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OF HUMANITIES
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**Teaching Whose Past? Assessing the Use of Archaeology in
US Educational Curricula and Its Role in the Reproduction
of Sociopolitical Injustice**

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Abstract

To what extent does the teaching of archaeology in general education resolve or perpetuate entrenched social injustices? This thesis builds upon prior archaeological outreach research to evaluate archaeology's current representation in American public-school curricula and to assess the impact its inclusion or absence has on education. Modern academic archaeology is explicitly connected to the present day through its use of modern perspectives and the funding of projects under the pretences of social utility. Despite these connections, significant gaps often exist between the work of modern archaeologists and the perception of the discipline in popular culture and public consciousnesses, and methods of outreach have often struggled to keep pace with developments in professional archaeology. This thesis investigates the USA as a case study, focusing on three states (California, Texas, and Alaska) to understand the prevalence of state archaeology in educational spaces (in comparison to the state's archaeology) and assesses the impact that choices of inclusion and exclusion have on educational courses and greater sociopolitical conditions.

A close study of the state curricula from important US states reveals differing archaeology uses in the classroom. The Alaskan standards choose to explicitly apply archaeological material to provide students with an understanding of local and indigenous history and perspectives. Texan curricula emphasize ancient Greek and Roman history to construct a connection between the perceived ideals of antiquity and the egalitarian principles of the American Declaration of Independence and Constitution. California largely omits using archaeology in detail to instead focus on political and cultural developments within historical periods. These choices reveal differing perspectives on the purpose of social studies education and often come at the expense of a critically engaged, reflective perspective of injustice. As a result, archaeology is often used to reinforce sociopolitical hegemony in US classrooms.

Calls to re-orient professional archaeology towards socially engaged, explicitly political positions must also include a renewal of critical outreach. Engagement with educational spaces must be included in a politically oriented archaeology. School systems in the US are highly politicized environments. It is often difficult to combat the reproduction of injustice through hegemonic institutions like education boards, as these institutions often benefit from its reproduction. Thus, optimal methods for engagement often differ depending on state curricula and politics, and effective top-down outreach through curricula may not always be attainable.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Archaeologists are tasked with creating knowledge, understandings of the past, and disseminating results. Archaeological information is communicated to a range of specialists and non-professionals, but what effects does communication with wider audiences have? How is archaeology taught in non-university classrooms, and what effect does the use or absence of archaeology have on new generations? Academic archaeology has existed under the pretense that archaeologists' results are valuable to modern societies (Little 2007, 2009). Grants and state funding are given after archaeologists justify the value of a project to the field and the benefits its results can provide to the greater public (Niklasson 2013, Isherwood 2011, Thomas 2017). Because of this, the knowledge production of academic archaeology actively connects to the current day, and the direction and focus of archaeological projects are directly tied to modern societal trends, needs, and interests.

Despite pretenses of social utility, the greater public often has limited direct engagement with academic archaeology. Popular perceptions of archaeology are not controlled exclusively by archaeologists but exist through engagement with other sociocultural apparatus, such as educational environments (Holtorf 2005, 2007, Gero and Root 1990). Significant gaps often exist between the production of archaeological knowledge within the discipline and the understanding of archaeology in greater society. How pronounced is this gap evident in non-university educational environments? Are current archaeological trends and understandings communicated to and represented in non-university educational settings? This thesis seeks to critically evaluate these issues by analyzing educational standards and curricula.

The use of archaeology in general classrooms is often tied to preexisting conceptions of national identity. Nations often privilege teaching national archaeologies at the expense of others, selectively applying archaeology to suit educational and political interests. For example, Denmark draws significantly from its history of national archaeology to construct an education that celebrates its ancient past to reinforce traditional national identities and promote patriotism (Sørensen et al. 1996, Trigger 1984). The use of archaeology in national consciousnesses varies across the world, and decisions over what archaeology is privileged can effect national perspectives, politics, and identity (Sørensen et al. 1996, Trigger 1984). As a result, certain archaeologies are visible in public consciousnesses, but significant gaps exist between professional archaeology and the perception of archaeology's scope in general environments.

Significant gaps in the representation of archaeology in the profession and its use in general education environments necessitate understanding what those differences are and what effects these differences have on the role and perception of archaeology in educational environments. The dissemination of archaeological knowledge through sociocultural apparatus to the greater public often revises and recontextualizes archaeological information to suit sociopolitical objectives (Holtorf 2005, 2007). To better understand how archaeology affects educational settings, archaeologists must compare its presence in educational environments to available local and state archaeology.

To date, North American archaeologists have generally approached and understood interaction with schools through classroom-based outreach, field trips, interactions with museums, or planned material studies in the classroom (Ducady et al. 2016, King 2016, Henderson and Levstik 2016). Independently and locally applied outreach efforts are useful in allowing archaeologists to connect with local populations and provide visible benefits to the school, such as broadening the scope of social studies, the ability to work with varied material, and the visibility of professions in the humanities (as well as supporting conservation efforts) (Mayro et al. 2017, Shackel and Chambers 2004, Little 2009). However, they rarely interact with challenging the framing of the classroom space as a whole. Few archaeological papers have sought to comprehensively understand how archaeology relates to and participates in the generational reproduction of sociopolitical conditions through educational policy. For a long-term approach to studying and applying archaeology to classrooms regularly and consistently, archaeologists must understand the current state of historical narratives in education and the implementation of archaeology in existing standards.

This thesis seeks to fill in a gap in existing research by analyzing the current application of archaeology in state standards and curricula, using the previous academic frameworks of archaeologists like Trigger, Hutchings, La Salle, and Hamilakis and reframe their analysis of archaeological constructivism within the contexts of public school environments. A distinct focus on secondary pre-university classrooms is applied. All of the selected curricula are intended for US high school classrooms, though this paper seeks to situate its findings within a global context. After closely studying specific case studies, this paper seeks to evaluate the potential for continued engagement with educational spaces from a top-down perspective and

their validity in sustaining critically-based outreach. Consequently, this paper follows three research questions:

- How has archaeological information been translated into educational standards in US public school history curricula? How does this use compare to available local and state archaeology?
- What narratives do educational standards privilege or construct through their use of archaeology? How are these choices related to modern sociopolitical conditions?
- How can archaeologists engage with outreach through educational curricula? Is top-down outreach a worthwhile strategy of engagement?

This thesis uses specific important states within the US (Texas, California, Alaska) as case studies to understand archaeology's current use (or absence) in classrooms and evaluates the role and effect archaeological material has within state curricula. The US represents an ideal case study because of its position as a modern settler colonial state and its historical and current diversity. It is a 'voluntary immigrant' nation formed primarily through immigration and injustice (Mamdani 2015 pg. 599). The modern US is a composite of many historical factors- its racial and ethnic diversity are impacted by its legacies of immigration (European in the 20th century, Asian migration in California, Immigration from southern and central America into the southern US) and the trade of enslaved peoples (Tullos 2004, Wagner 2012).

In iconography and language, the US often has styled itself as a land of freedom and opportunity- the first nation born from the enlightenment ideals of Western Europe and a continuation of the republican virtues of antiquity. Immigrants have come to the US in historical and modern periods for economic opportunity and the 'American Dream.' Despite this presentation, American history is characterized more by disparity, privilege, and injustice than by equality and egalitarianism (Sawyer and Wagner 2023). Historical injustices based on class, race, and identity have significantly affected the material realities of modern Americans (Hagan and Albonetti 1982). Historical courses in standardized environments often fail to analyze this irony critically (Goldstein 2020). A comparative study of state curricula can reveal variations in the perception of American identity and archaeology's roles in classrooms to construct them.

Before closely studying the state curricula of US states, this paper will briefly summarize the theoretical perspectives utilized and the state of prior research regarding curriculum review and archaeology. As little archaeological work has studied top-down education perspectives (curriculum, standards) in broader educational environments, this paper will seek to adapt the perspectives of existing research regarding archaeological curricula in universities to a broader context. This paper summarizes the effects of education as a space of sociocultural reproduction and the archaeological classification work of Bruce Trigger, as both are highly relevant to this study and used throughout. Following a discussion of relevant theory, this paper will discuss the study's analytical methodology, including the acquisition and selection process for the individual case studies.

Chapter 2: Theory and Method

This section briefly describes and defines relevant theories and prior research used throughout this thesis, including a discussion of social reproduction in educational contexts, previous research on archaeological curricula, and a discussion of classifications of archaeology. These three themes are discussed further throughout the paper, particularly in the analysis and discussion. However, they are worth defining and discussing here to clarify and construct a foundation for later conclusions. Following this discussion, this section describes the analytical methodology of the paper, including how case studies were selected and how primary documents were located.

Archaeology, Education, and National Identity

Educational spaces are critical environments for forming personal, social, and national identities and play a critical role in reproducing sociopolitical norms. Bourdieu's (1973, 1990) theories of social reproduction of the beliefs, norms, and distribution of forms of capital specifically identify educational settings as critical to the reproduction of sociocultural conditions and differences in means. How generations learn about sociopolitical participation affects how they interact with their conditions. Views and understandings of the world (and its history) influences the generational ability to understand the nature of sociopolitical inequality. Educational spaces are critical for understanding sociopolitical development as generational changes affect national self-perception and the understanding of civic engagement (Eccles and Roester 2011). National identity is created and reproduced through social engagement and educational systems.

The processes of social reproduction in educational spaces occur in structural design (how to participate in schools and society) and directly through course content. What students are taught directly affects their perspectives on societal participation, social values, and national identity. National education devotes significant time to informing students of state history, often with the purpose of creating sociopolitical engagement. Within these contexts, archaeology can play important visible and invisible roles. The highlighting of certain aspects of national archaeology can significantly affect the perception of national identity, as can the erasure of local archaeologies or archaeologies of the underprivileged. For example, Sweden often directly engages with Stone Age archaeology in education through local archaeology (local sites) and

general standards (Segerholm 2003, Facos 1998, Emilsson 2009). This presence directly affects perspectives on national identity and the visibility of archaeological material within the context of broader society. In other nations, such as the US, certain archaeologies like those of Indigenous genocide or American slavery are often overlooked by educational spaces because they do not coincide with desired beliefs of patriotic national identity or American exceptionalism. The connections between educational spaces, archaeology, and national interest reveal archaeology's active participation in social reproduction and identity formation. What effects do these participations have? How are the representations of certain archaeological periods in classrooms and the omissions of others related to sociopolitical conditions? To better understand these broader connections, archaeologists must extend the research of educational curricula to non-university settings.

Previous Studies of Archaeological Curricula

Archaeologists concerned with constructing critical pedagogies and critiquing the narratives of current curricula have often focused on evaluating the frameworks of entry-level university archaeology courses and attempted to describe potential alternatives within the bounds of university education (Bender and Smith 1999, Carey 2009, Flewellen et al. 2021). The academic work of writers such as Hamilakis, Hutchings, and La Salle has sought to identify the narratives apparent in large introductory courses taught by North American universities and identify gaps between their construction and the realities of archaeological practice (Hamilakis 2018, 2004, Hutchings and La Salle 2014). In their paper *Teaching Anti-Colonial Archaeology*, Hutchings and La Salle (2014) characterize the narratives of introductory archaeology courses as primarily focused on teaching popular archaeology rather than seeking to grapple with ethics or evaluating the position of the discipline in a global context (pg. 30). Hamalakis' (2004) paper *Archaeology and the Politics of Pedagogy* similarly critiques university archaeology and its reproduction of colonial perspectives. These papers are politically oriented and highly critical, utilizing a politically engaged form of archaeology that seeks to engage with archaeology's role in the cultural reproduction of colonial perspectives within university classrooms (Barton 2021, Jenks 1993). Engagement in these studies is not outreach-based but seeks to reform the discipline's self-image by promoting a critical perspective in introductory classrooms.

Revision to college-level archaeological frameworks is necessary and topical. Shifting introductory environments within universities towards critical perspectives and away from romanticized survey courses could positively affect how students engage with and perceive the professional discipline. Beyond these environments, archaeologists must also consider the bounds by which we define archaeological engagement and the range by which we extend critical curricula review. What statements do the confinement of these critical frameworks to university education reveal about access to archaeological material? The reproduction of colonial perspectives that support current injustice is not reserved for university settings (Collins 2009). Archaeologists must evaluate whether these restrictions are the product of pedagogical freedom or agency in university settings or an issue with the unwillingness to engage in outreach with hegemonic institutional systems due to unfamiliarity, politicization, or anxiety of archaeological stewardship. Barriers to access to university settings must not limit the efforts to extend critically-based archaeological pedagogy. Further work is needed to extend perspectives beyond university settings to understand archaeology's role and function in broader educational environments.

Evaluating and Classifying Archaeology

Critiques of archaeological curricula have often built upon the work of Bruce Trigger, particularly his classifications for how archaeology is constructed. His paper *Alternative Archaeologies* establishes colonial and national typologies for the orientation of archaeological research. Triggers (1984) typologies of archaeological work are based on their focus and relationship to modern sociopolitical contexts. Nationalist archaeologies focus primarily on constructing the history of a nation or space (Trigger 1984 pg. 359). Many older traditions of archaeology are inherently nationalist and actively connect to patriotism or glorify a sense of national unity to ease sociopolitical tensions (class conflict). Trigger identifies the traditional archaeology of Denmark and Germany as nationalist, writing that they actively promote national pride through constructed connections to prehistory and seek to boost the 'pride and morale of nations or ethnic groups' and is 'strongest amongst peoples who feel politically threatened (p. 360).'

Colonialist archaeologies are created in countries where the 'native population was wholly replaced or overwhelmed by European settlement or in ones where Europeans remained

politically and economically dominant for a considerable period of time (pgs. 360-61).’ Colonial archaeologies often emphasize the primitiveness of the native people or construct narratives of limited social or technological development. Early American archaeology is often characterized as colonial, as it has historically approached Indigenous contexts with static depictions of sociocultural change and technological development (pg. 361).

Trigger’s typologies of archaeological research are helpful for the study of outreach because their connection to modern sociopolitical conditions determines their classification. The work of Trigger has been iterated upon in the decades since its initial publication. Additional categorizations have been developed for cultural and regional variation between Trigger’s themes (Trigger 2008, Habu et al. 2008). Constructing archaeological narratives in American classrooms often incorporates outdated perspectives or information (Lyman 2010). In the case of archaeology, state boards often use archaeological material in methods that do not reflect current practices in the profession. Trigger’s classifications provide a useful template for understanding how archaeology has been used in educational standards.

This thesis reframes the work of archaeologists like Trigger, Hutchins, La Salle, and Hamilakis within the contexts of public school environments. As these authors have primarily focused on assessing work confined within professional archaeology or university settings, some reframing is required to adapt these methods to be critically applied to broader settings. It is overly generous to assume that the pedagogical freedom within the university classroom can be extended to high school environments. The process by which pedagogy, curriculum, and standards are created and sustained in public education is significantly more complicated, and archaeologists must account for these difficulties when suggesting revision. This feature is complicated further by educational federalism and the variation in outreach approach that may be needed based upon differing state systems (Heise 2006, Pinder 2010). This paper will examine what narratives state curricula and standards construct compared to local archaeology. Since this paper prioritizes a top-down approach, actionable conclusions differ significantly due to the nature of public education systems.

Methodology

Unlike many European nations, the United States does not write curricula or adopt educational policy at a national level. Instead, the responsibility of operating schools falls upon

states, who also write and approve the curricula and standards to be used by public school courses (Legal Information Institute 2020, Pelsue 2017). As a result, the US is an ideal setting for a comparative analysis of the use of archaeological material in public curricula. As a component for the background of this paper, curricula from all fifty US states were located, read, and analyzed. After a review of all states' curricula, the decision was made to focus on a select number of states as case studies to enable more detailed analysis and comparison and to avoid overgeneralization. Most states must provide public access to state curricula and standards due to their nature as public government entities. As such, curricula and documents used by state education boards and local districts are generally available through governmental or bureau websites or databases. In cases where these materials were unavailable, this study reviewed the curricula of the largest school system in the state with materials publicly available. Occasionally, local district standards were reviewed if state standards were too general or unspecific. The methodology described in Figure I below demonstrates the process of these selection decisions. All of the curricula, standards, and supplementary documents reviewed by this thesis were publicly accessible online. All documents were the most recent standards published for access to the general public by the state or local district at the time of the study.

Selection Process for Curricula and Standards

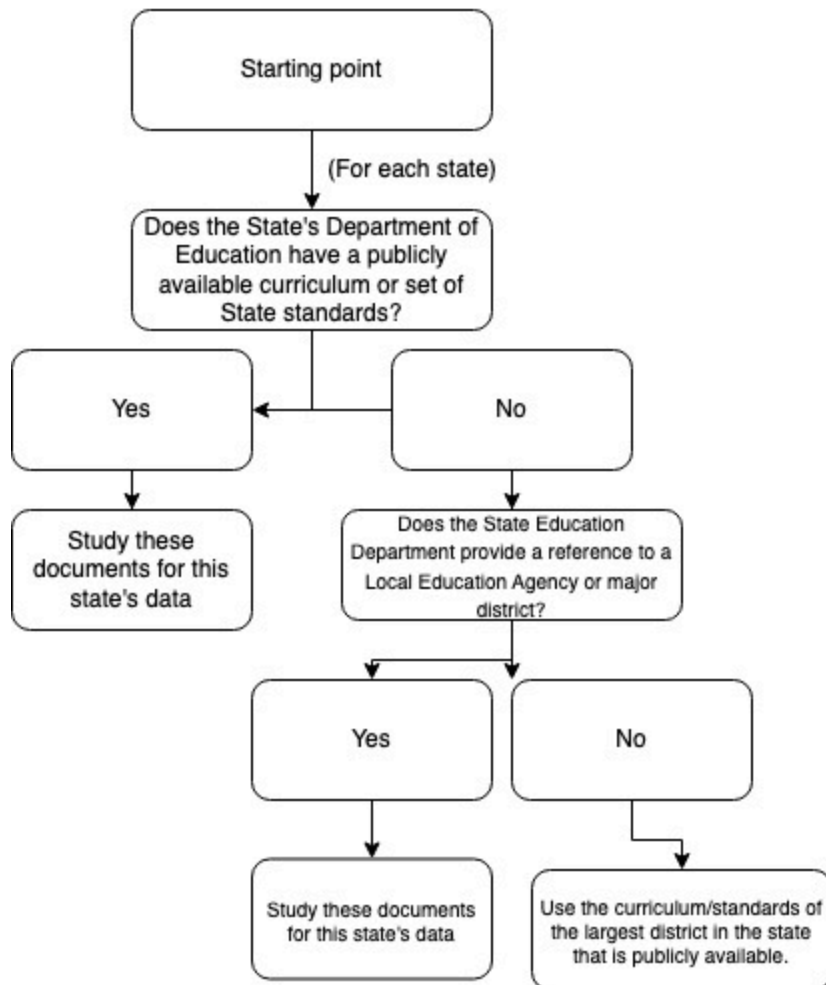


Fig 1: Selection Process for State Curricula

Three states were selected from the 50 reviewed curricula to act as case studies in a comparative analysis; Texas, California, and Alaska. Texas is the largest Republican-controlled state in the US and the second most populous state. As the largest Republican state, its state policy decisions are often adopted by smaller Republican states. As a result, many conclusions from a study of Texan standards can be applied across the country. California is the largest Democratic-controlled state in the US and the most populous state. Like Texas, its position as the largest state controlled by its party results in many smaller democratic states adopting policies similar to California. As such, a close understanding of the use of archaeology in California

curricula can be extended nationwide. Alaska is the second youngest state in the US and has the highest number of Indigenous residents as a percentage of the state's total population (15%). Unlike Texas and California, Alaska only provides a limited set of standards at the state level, allowing for a study on regionality's effects on local curricula. Figure II (reproduced below) describes the reason for each state's inclusion and the material chosen for specific study. Each state has very different perspectives on the role and purpose of social studies curricula, and as a result the presence of archaeology in each state's curricula also differs significantly. A comparative analysis of these three states enables a broader discussion of the variation in the use of archaeology in school standards and the implications of its use (or absence) nationwide.

A review of each state chosen for a case study (Texas, California, and Alaska) (see Figure IV) follows a standardized method of analysis focusing on key components of educational curricula. Each state review seeks to briefly describe the archaeology of the state. Providing a background to the local and state archaeology of each case study allows for it to be 'tested against' local and state curricula and standards to reveal the extent of the presence or absence of archaeology in each state. Figure III describes the basic analytical workflow designed by this thesis for each case study, where each study seeks to understand the use of archaeology within the goals and scope of each curriculum. In each case-study, 'content-neutral' refers to state standards that create achievement goals but do not instruct educators on specific periods or material to teach. Specific analysis of historical and archaeological standards can reveal how archaeology aids (or disrupts) each state's standards and the implications each carries. The evaluation process of these curricula is as much a study of what archaeology is missing as it is a study of what is visible.

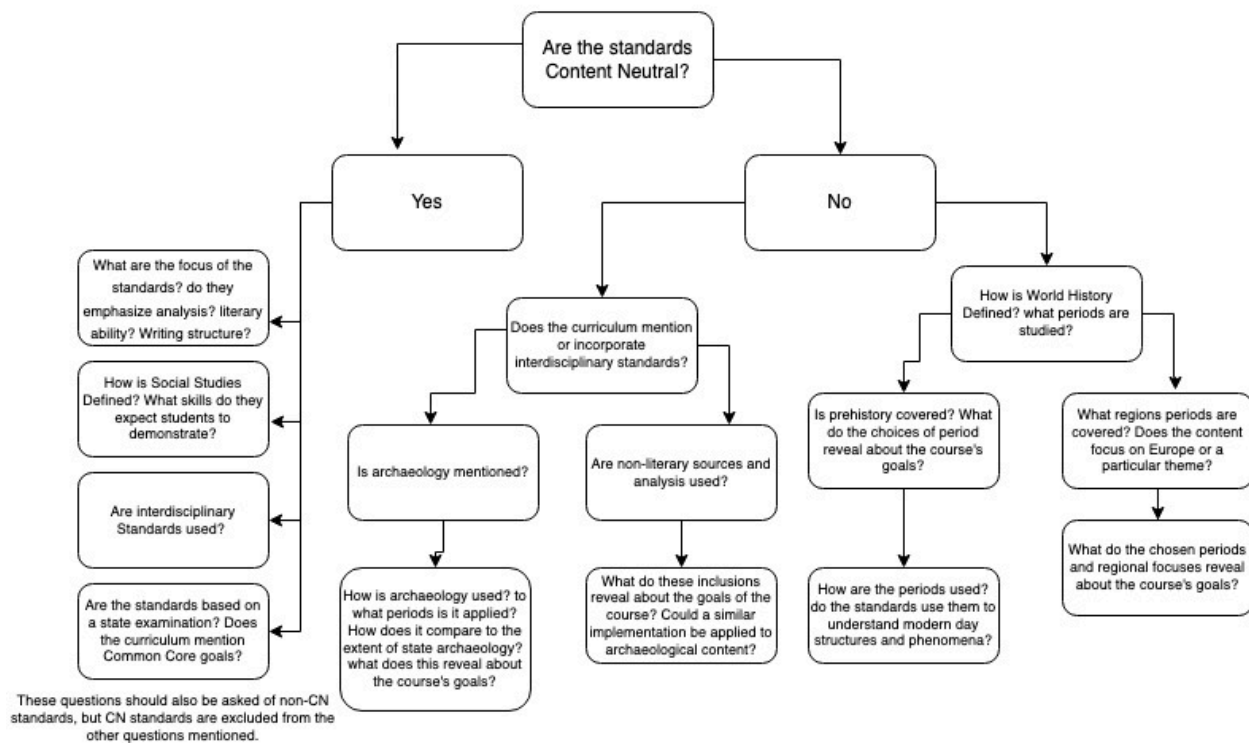
What is taught in history education often significantly affects the generational perception of the past and its relation to the current day. Thus, each section will also analyze the representation of a diverse past and historical injustice in the state curricula. This will be achieved by comparing closely against state archaeology, focusing on the representation of slavery and Indigenous archaeology within the classroom. The representation of both significantly affects how disparities in capital are reproduced through educational systems, and archaeologists must understand the use and role of archaeology within these environments.

Inclusion of States and Selected Documents

State	Selected Documents	Reason for Inclusion
Texas	Texas Education Agency: <i>Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills for Social Studies Subchapter C. High School</i> . US History and World History Standards.	Texas is the largest Republican-controlled state in the US and the second most populous state in the US. As the largest Republican state, its state policy decisions are often adopted by smaller Republican states. As a result, many conclusions from a study of Texan standards can be applied across the country.
California	<p>California Department of Education: <i>Curriculum Frameworks & Instructional Materials, An Overview of the New History–Social Science Framework for California Public Schools-HIGH SCHOOL (Brochure)</i>, <i>Frequently Asked Questions: Senate Bill 48 (FAIR Act)</i>.</p> <p>California DoE Social Studies Curricula: <i>CHAPTER 15: World History, Culture, and Geography: The Modern World</i>, <i>CHAPTER 16: United States History and Geography: Continuity and Change in Modern United States History</i>.</p> <p>Sacramento Unified School District, <i>Fair, Accurate, Inclusive, and Respectful Education Act (FAIR)</i>.</p>	California is the largest Democratic-controlled state in the US and the most populous state in the US. Like Texas, its position as the largest state controlled by its party results in many smaller democratic states adopting policies similar to California. As such, a close understanding of archaeology in California curricula can be extended nationwide.
Alaska	<p>Alaska Department of Education and Early Development. <i>Alaska Content Standards: History</i>.</p> <p>Anchorage School District. <i>Social Studies / High School Curriculum: Graduation Requirements</i>.</p> <p>Matanuska-Susitna Borough School District. <i>High School US History, High School World History</i>.</p>	Alaska is the second youngest state in the US and has the highest number of Indigenous residents as a percentage of the state's total population (15%). Unlike Texas and California, Alaska only provides a limited set of standards at the state level, allowing for an interesting study on regionality's effects on local curricula.

Fig. II: Inclusion of States and Selected Documents

Analytical Approach for Curriculum/Standards



Analytical Workflow

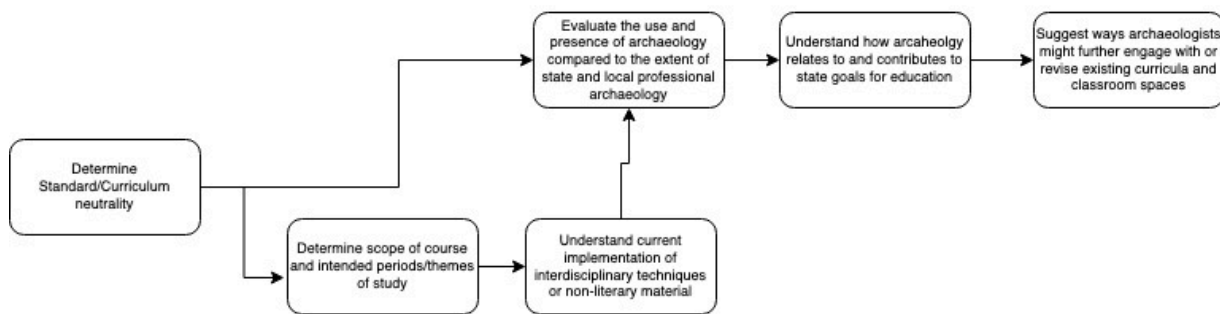


Fig III: Analytical approach and workflow created for this thesis. In this instance, Content-Neutral refers to standards that do not instruct educators on the period or content courses should include.

Map of Selected Case Studies

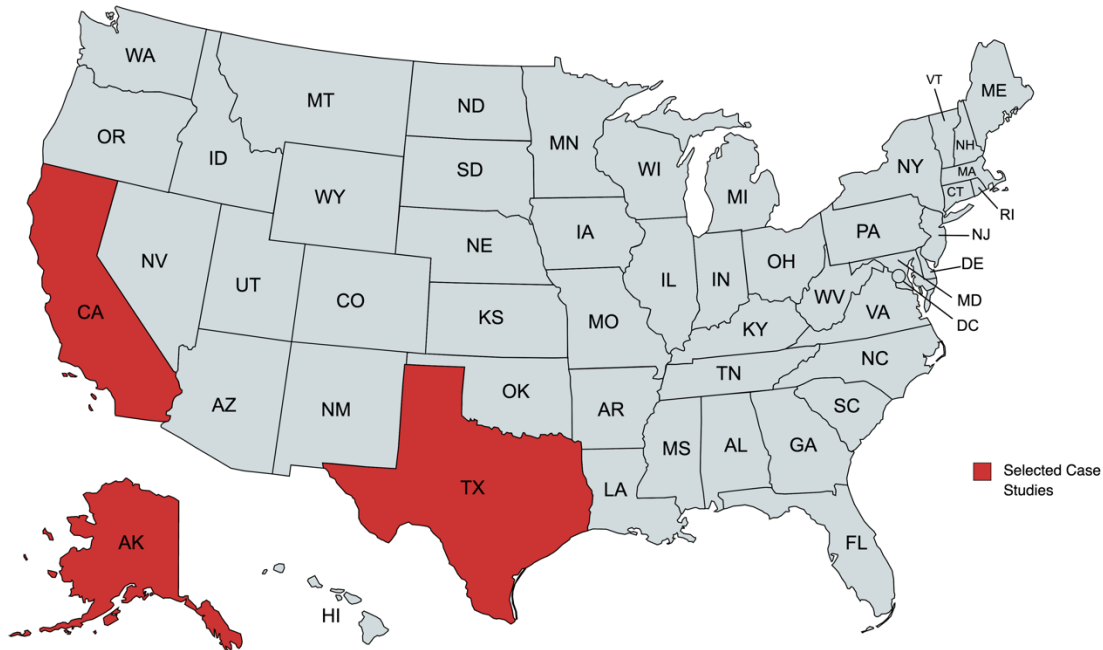


Fig IV: Map of Selected States

Following a close analysis of each state’s implicit and explicit use of archaeology in state curricula and the evaluation of their contribution to course aims, a comparative perspective will be utilized to understand the variance of the use of archaeology in relation to cultural reproduction. Specific characteristics, including demographics, history, political environment, and location will be considered to identify and explain similarities and differences revealed in the curricula. Subsequent chapters will then evaluate the role of archaeology in the reproduction of injustice in educational spaces nationwide, evaluate the potential of top-down outreach methods and suggest options for future methods of outreach and study.

Chapter 3: Case Study I: Texas

This chapter briefly analyzes the general scope of Texan archaeology and evaluates the extent to which the Texan education board incorporates archaeological material into its state high school curricula. Texan archaeology is varied and extensive, with pre-contact periods and historical archaeology of war, plantations, and industry. A close comparison of Texan archaeology to the state standards for high school social studies courses reveals an interest in constructing classical archaeology (Ancient Greece, Rome) and connecting it to American values instead of closely studying Indigenous or local archaeology. As a result, Texan classrooms often use archaeology to encourage patriotism at the expense of discussing diversity and injustice in Texan history, reproducing an inaccurate view of the past.

Texan Archaeology: Overview

Numerous institutions establish and maintain historical and archaeological sites in Texas. Archaeological sites are protected under the National and State Parks and Monuments system, local parks and agencies, and the Texas Historical Commission (National Parks Service 2012, Texas Historical System 2023, 2023). Privately owned archaeological and historical sites can be protected as State Antiquities Landmarks and included in the National Register of Historic Places (NPS 2012). Outside of governmental protections, extensive archaeological research is conducted by Texas universities. The variety of interest in Texas archaeology is indicative of the breadth of available material.

Portola et al.'s (2021) survey of the scope of Texan prehistory divides it into five distinct periods: 'pre-Clovis (ca. 18,000–13,400 years ago), Paleoindian (13,400–10,000 years ago), Archaic (10,000 years ago to around the beginning of the Christian era or later, depending on the region), Woodland (ca. 2500–1150 years ago in only a few regions), and the Late Prehistoric (ca. 1250–1150–420 years ago)(Perttula et al. 2021).' Specifics and prevalence of occupation differ between regions, but all periods include important archaeological sites. Pre-Clovis sites are limited but include the Central Texan Gault site and the Debra L. Friedkin site, which are closely related to the local Buttermilk Creek complex and demonstrate evidence of biface and lithic tool production as well as hunting and animal processing (Waters et al. 2011, Williams et al. 2011, Smallwood 2010). The Gault site contains some of North America's earliest known examples of stone engraving (Waters et al. 2011). Later periods show occupation across multiple regions of

Texas. Notable sites in these periods (among many others) include the mammoth butchering remains of Lubbock Lake, the masonry and ceramic phases of Antelope Creek, the shelters and mosaics of Big Bend National Park, and the mound burials of the Hatchel site in Northeast Texas (Bouseman et al. 2022, Perttula 2005, Johnson and Holliday 1986). Regardless of region, continuing research has demonstrated rich and diverse archeology (See Figure V: Overview of Texas Archaeology by Period).

Following European presence in North America, state education boards have often simplified instruction of Texan history into five periods; Spanish Exploration (1520-1684), Colonial Texas (1684-1821), Mexican Texas (1821-1836), the Republic of Texas and Early Statehood (1836-1865), and Reconstruction and Modern Texas (1865-) (TEA 2018). These periods simplify complex and nuanced distinctions between periods and regions, and each unit contains diverse archaeologies. Studies of these periods include notable Spanish missions, French colonization efforts, the Republic of Texas sites (like the Alamo), slavery conditions at Texan plantations, Indigenous relocation, and civil war battlefields. Like Texan prehistory, the historical archaeology of Texas is varied and extensive. Archaeologies of slavery and injustice can be found in the study of Texan plantations like the Barrington Plantation and Levi Jordan Plantation (McDavid 1997, 2004, McWilliams et al. 2013). Archaeological studies of reservations and the ‘Red River War sites’ have also provided material evidence of forcible relocation and violence against Native Texans (Cruse 2008, Black 2010).

State sites like the Alamo (a battlefield site from the Texan Revolution) are one of the state’s most visited destinations and are present in Texan iconography (Flores, 2002). The archaeology of Texas is not only continuously studied by professional archaeologists but is constantly encountered by the general public through tourism, museums, local engagement efforts, and state and national preservation systems (NPS 2021, THS 2023). Texan educational curricula have a varied and extensive archaeological record to use in social studies classrooms, but close comparison reveals a significant absence of local archaeology in state-mandated coursework.

Overview of Texan Archaeology by Period

Period Name	Date	Notable Texan Sites
Pre-Clovis	18,000–13,400 years ago	Gault site, Buttermilk Creek Complex
Paleoindian	13,400–10,000 years ago	Alibates Flint Quarries, Lubbock Lake, St. Mary's Hall site, Buckeye Knoll, Harrell Site
Archaic	10,000 years ago to around the beginning of the Christian era	Big Bend National Park/Burro Mesa, La Junta de los Ríos Site District, Lower Pecos Canyonlands/Baker Cave, McKenzie Site
Woodland	2500–1150 years ago	Goose Creek pottery, Mossy Grove tradition, Jonas Short Burial Mounds
Late Prehistoric	1250–1150–420 years ago	Neches River Basin, Bird Point Island, Brownsville complex, Landergin Mesa
Spanish Exploration	1520-1684	Galveston Island, Cicúique, La Belle Ship
Colonial Texas	1684-1821	Mission Santa Cruz de San Sabá, Mission San Juan Capistrano, Fort Saint Louis, Old Socorro Mission, San Antonio missions
Mexican Texas	1821-1836	Brazos River Settlements, San Antonio Road settlements
The Republic of Texas/Early Statehood	1836-1865	Barrington Plantation, The Alamo, Fort Mckavett, Levi Jordan Plantation, Verner-Hogg Plantation
Reconstruction and modern Texas	1865-	Upper Washita, Confederate Reunion Grounds, Red River War sites (Palo Duro Canyon)

Fig. V: Texan sites and Archaeology by period (Perttula et al. 2021, Texas Historical Commission 2023, National Parks Service 2012)

The Construction of Archaeology in Texan Schools

Texas has a demonstrably diverse and rich archaeology to incorporate into its educational courses, but a close analysis of state curricula reveals the general absence of state and local archaeologies in high school environments. The general absence of the continuous application of archaeology in Texan classrooms is evident in its lack of explicit use. Archaeology is only mentioned explicitly once by the Texan social studies standards, requiring students to 'identify methods used by archaeologists, anthropologists, historians, and geographers to analyze evidence (Texas Education Agency 2018 pg. 21).' This standard is included in the standards for the Texan world history course and is part of a series of standards encouraging interdisciplinary education. The goal of these standards is for students to use a variety of analytical methodologies drawn from various professions. Establishing frames of reference, assessing the biases of primary sources, and locating contexts are all central themes of these standards, which apply to all historical units across the course. Within these standards archaeology is treated as an analytical tool that provides variation to historical perspectives.

- (28) Social studies skills. The student understands how historians use historiography to interpret the past and applies critical-thinking skills to organize and use information acquired from a variety of valid sources, including technology. The student is expected to:
- (A) identify methods used by archaeologists, anthropologists, historians, and geographers to analyze evidence;
 - (B) explain how historians analyze sources for frame of reference, historical context, and point of view to interpret historical events;
 - (C) analyze primary and secondary sources to determine frame of reference, historical context, and point of view;
 - (D) evaluate the validity of a source based on bias, corroboration with other sources, and information about the author;
 - (E) analyze information by sequencing, categorizing, identifying cause-and-effect relationships, comparing, contrasting, finding the main idea, summarizing, making generalizations and predictions, drawing inferences and conclusions, and developing connections between historical events over time; and

Fig VI: The only explicit mention of archaeology in Texas state curricula.

Beyond the explicit mention of archaeology as an analytical lens, archaeological content is used implicitly throughout the state's history courses, particularly in the prehistory and classical sections of the world history course. These standards create historical themes that can

be applied to recent history and the current day. In the limited standards on prehistory, instruction of ancient civilizations intends to 'explain the development of classical civilizations (pgs. 15-16).' Standards on the Classical Period require understanding the 'cultural influences of Israel, Greece, and Rome,' as well as requiring the ability to describe and assess the creation and fall of the Roman empire (pgs. 15-16). The standards on Roman development are noteworthy because they are the only standards in the unit that concern a specific civilization. The state standards specifically mention the assessment of the impacts of the fall of ancient Rome on 'Western Europe,' an interesting divisionary choice that indicates a desire to connect Rome to narratives of Western development (pg. 15). Beyond classical Hellenistic archaeology, later units of the world history course also briefly mention the study of 'the Maya, Inca, and Aztec' and how they were 'impacted by western explorers (pg. 17).'

Trigger's work on classifying the construction of archeology describes nationalist archaeology as one that enshrines the history of modern nations to 'promote patriotism (358).'

Nationalist archaeologies seek to connect the archaeological past to the current day by creating and establishing ethnic continuity. Trigger writes that 'the primary function of nationalistic archaeology... is to bolster the pride and morale of nations or ethnic groups' And is 'strongest amongst peoples who feel politically threatened (Trigger 1984 359-60).'

Trigger's examples of nationalist archaeology (Germany, China) primarily identify domestic archaeology as a tool for constructing nationalist archaeology (pgs. 358-361). The United States differs from these examples in that its youth as a nation and its colonial identity significantly affect how it constructs nationalist archaeologies. These differences are evident in the nationalist manner that Texas curricula use archaeology. The specific emphasis on classical European archaeology and the focus on civilizations like Rome denotes an attempt to construct a connection between the classical Mediterranean and modern America. This reproduces a narrative of America as an evolution of the democratic, republican, and philosophical ideals of ancient Greece and Rome (TEA 2018, pgs. 15-20). Throughout the curricula, perceived developments in Western Europe are connected to the founding principles of the US to encourage patriotism (TEA 2018, pgs. 15-20).

A brief overview of Texan archaeology has revealed its variety and material complexity. Instead of drawing from these archaeologies and building a national narrative from Indigenous Texas to the present day, Texas instead chooses to construct a national archaeology built on a

philosophical connection to ancient Europe (typically portrayed as predominantly white) to exalt the political structure of modern America and encourage patriotism. Patriotism is explicitly described as a primary objective of the Texas standards, and every social studies course uses historical material to enshrine American ideals, including state and individual rights and free enterprise (pgs. 14-15). The constructed archaeologies of Texas state curricula come at the expense of Indigenous archaeology and local Texan archaeology, which are not mentioned or utilized in the Texan high school classroom. By extensively describing European archaeology and failing to describe Indigenous or local Texan archaeology in significant detail, a colonial perspective is reproduced through which change, development, and continuity are only constructed for Western cultures.

Texas Curricula and a Diverse Past

The absence of Texan (and American) archaeology in Texas standards reproduces a colonial perspective and significantly impacts their ability to describe history in detail. This is particularly evident in the absence of discussion of historical diversity and American injustice in the Texan classroom. Archaeological research of Texan plantations has extensively detailed the conditions of slavery and its material effects (McDavid 1997, 2004, McWilliams et al. 2013). Discussion or use of these works, like the discussion of slavery in a broad context, is absent in the Texan high school curricula. Texan social studies do not require students to take a course that discusses American slavery or the legacy of slavery on inequality in America. This is primarily because the Texan high school course only discusses American history after the Civil War. Discussion of American slavery and racism is found in the state's 'Ethnic Studies' courses, but these courses are opt-in, and the goals and results that those courses produce cannot extend to all graduates (Texas Education Agency 2018, pgs. 50-62).

Beyond the absence of archaeologies of slavery, Texan classrooms never incorporate archaeological material into the discussion of historical racism. This contributes to the general absence of these discussions in Texan classrooms. The word 'racism' only appears thrice across the sixty-nine-page document (TEA 2018). Only in one instance is racism discussed in a history-centered class that must be taken for graduation (the standard requires a discussion of racism during WWII). In the state's sociology course, students must 'explain institutional racism in American society' and 'analyze the varying treatment patterns of minority groups (pg. 40).'

These standards appear to adopt a reflective and somewhat socially critical stance, although no mention of connecting instances of institutional racism to their historical origins appears in the text. Pre-Civil War American archaeology is absent from advanced courses in the current Texan system. Texan high school courses on American history only incorporate material after the Civil War. Thus, discussions of early American archaeology, Indigenous history and injustice, and American slavery are all relegated to earlier grades where students have less analytical ability. The relegation of critical topics that shape inequality in the present day to grades where these frameworks still need to be developed (pre-high school) limits the critical potential of the course and further erases the connections between past injustice and modern inequality.

Like slavery, discussing the histories and legacies of injustice between American expansionism and Indigenous communities has been relegated to pre-high school study. Archaeological research on pre-contact archaeology and the archaeology of contact, injustice, and relocation are absent from Texan standards. Standards mentioning the 'American Indian' appears only five times in the standards of required Texas courses. 'Indigenous,' 'Native American,' and 'reservation' are all terms that never appear in required standards, despite Texas's historic role in actively seizing Indigenous land and developing reservation systems (TEA 2018, Calvert et al. 2002). The times these terms are mentioned demonstrate differing levels of specificity; one standard requires the ability to 'describe the roles of political organizations that promoted American Indian civil rights,' and another requires students to 'evaluate various means of achieving equality of political rights, including congressional acts such as the American Indian Citizenship Act of 1924 (pg. 12).' Nowhere in required courses are students required to locate the conditions of Indigenous Americans in modern society, consider the impacts of the reservations system, or discuss Indigenous beliefs and culture. Pre-contact archaeology is not mentioned to any extent. The standards' absence of any specificity regarding Indigenous archaeology despite the prominence of pre-contact archaeology in Texas indicates the absence of any Indigenous perspective in the standardized Texan education. When combined with the more detailed archaeology of Europe in Texan courses, a colonial perspective is reproduced.

The absence of archaeology and critical perspectives in the Texas standards indicates a fundamental belief inherent in the Texas standards: that equality, diversity, and civil rights struggles are modern concepts and phenomena. This is evident in the increased focus on diversity and civil rights in units of the twentieth and twenty-first centuries, though these

sections are still often asides in a larger narrative of American power and exceptionalism. For example, the American history unit on 1898-1920 is focused primarily on 'the emergence of the United States as a world power (pg. 8).' Standards spend the most time discussing American expansionism, battles, and technology used during World War I. Social conditions, movements, and domestic life are then compressed into a single standard: 'Evaluate the impact of muckrakers and reform leaders such as Upton Sinclair, Susan B. Anthony, Jane Addams, Ida B. Wells, and W. E. B. DuBois on American society (Pgs. 8-9).' The grouping of social reform movements and historical movements for equality into a single set of standards to make space for more discussion of military conflicts and war technology reveals a lack of interest in fully representing the past. Even if civil rights are discussed, their limited visibility and separation from core standards reveal a need for more interest in teaching critical histories. In its current state, archaeological material plays no part in describing these periods, instead limited only to periods and contexts that suit Texas' desire to encourage patriotism and civic duty through hegemonic institutions (Bates 1975).

Texan Education and Modern Texas

Texas' historical omissions and the absence of widespread use of archaeology are a product of the intended narrative, course constraints, and state goals for using historical material. The focus on connecting historical events to civics and the state's many standards on literary analysis indicate a viewpoint of history grounded in skills-based study. History is not taught so that students understand historical phenomena; it is taught in Texas to inform and reinforce modern sociopolitical structures. History, archaeology, civics, and the other aspects of social studies all combine to develop what Texas sees as model citizens. A model Texan citizen expresses social criticism and displeasure through civil means (voting, peaceful protests) rather than extra-political action (Graham and Neu 2004). These goals are evident through the state's description of historical injustice: they are predominantly described in passive, vague standards and only apply specificity when used to require non-violent activists/movements.

The desire to build a model citizen that acts through the state's hegemonic apparatuses comes at the expense of discussing historical injustice and the connection of these injustices to current inequalities. E.B. Rockmore's (2015) analysis of the language used in state-adopted history textbooks in Texas identifies the continual use of the passive voice when describing

injustice in the past. Descriptions of the actions of enslavers, for example, are told in a passive context and with wording that often de-emphasizes the brutality of historical injustices (Rockmore 2015). The same patterns of de-emphasis can also be seen in Texas' educational standards- requiring an assessment of the 'impacts' or 'effects' of the arrival of the Spanish on Aztec and Incan culture results in a less precise curriculum that fails to require specificity when describing historical injustice (TEA 2018 pgs.14-15). Texan standards are not universally vague; standards on World War I, for instance, are specific in the battles, technology, and leaders they want Texan educators to teach (TEA 2018 pgs. 8-10). Standards about historical injustice in Texas lack this specificity and need to be more specific in what material and historical events teachers should utilize. The deliberate lack of specificity in Texan standards limits the effectiveness of archaeological material and erases the brutality of historical injustice.

Texas is the second-largest US state in population and has significant disparities in economic ability and privilege. The latest US census demonstrates the diversity of the Texas populous; Hispanic and Latino residents are almost the largest ethnic group in the state, and significant numbers of African American and foreign-born persons also reside in Texas (See Figure VII: Texas Demographics). Between these racial and ethnic divisions, significant gaps in economic agency are evident. Latino and African American residents are two to three times more likely to live in poverty than White Texans, and the median salary is \$20,000 lower in comparison. The past directly shapes the material conditions of the present day and contributes to its material disparities (Harootunian 2007, Hanson and Hanson 2006). Despite the diversity of Texan residents and extensive local archaeologies of Indigenous occupation and historical injustice, Texan school standards opt to enshrine the archaeology and legacies of (perceived) white and Western societies at the expense of discussing local archaeology. As a result, archaeology in Texan classrooms often reproduces a colonial perspective by limiting the visibility of Indigenous and local archaeology and failing to describe development in pre-contact settings.

Texas Demographics at a Glance	
Total Population	30,029,572
% under 18 years	25.3%
Households with Internet	86.9%
Race and Origin	40.3% White Non-Hispanic 40.2% Hispanic or Latino 13.2% Black or African American 5.5% Asian 1.1% American Indian or Alaskan Native
Bachelor's Degree or higher, age 25+	31.5%
Persons in poverty	14.2%
Foreign Born Persons	17%

Fig VII: Texan Demographics (US Census Bureau 2020)

Conclusion

This chapter has compared the presence of archaeology within Texan high school curricula to the scope of professional archaeology to understand the impact of the inclusion or exclusion of archaeological material within Texas state education. Texas' construction of state history and archaeology glorifies white and 'Western' narratives at the expense of discussions of historical oppression and injustice. While ancient histories are connected to the present day to encourage American patriotism, the discussion of state injustice, oppression, and inequality is often vague. These discussions are never connected to critical perspectives of modern society and never utilize relevant and available archaeological material. As a result, Texan curricula often work to perpetuate injustice more than they work to dismantle it. Significant curriculum revision must occur to engage with archaeology in Texan classrooms critically. Current archaeological perspectives must be reframed, and additional archaeological perspectives must be added (indigenous archaeology, archaeologies of slavery). Interaction and outreach with top-down perspectives in Texas is an inherently political process. Revising curricula through political apparatuses in Texas through state-level outreach is likely a complex and slow process. The construction of local outreach to classrooms could be more immediately effective.

Chapter 4: Case Study II: California

This chapter briefly analyzes the archaeology of California and compares it to Californian high school social studies courses to determine the extent to which educational standards incorporate archaeological content. Legislative policy in California has resulted in a visibly diverse construction of American history. Despite this, archaeology is never mentioned and seldom used in the Californian standards, often to the detriment of local and state history. The lack of specific discussion of critical aspects of Californian archaeology, particularly the state's Indigenous history, reproduces an inaccurate version of the state's history and limits the ability for a nuanced discussion of American history.

Californian Archaeology: Overview

California is a large and geographically diverse state and thus has a complicated and detailed archaeological chronology. As different regions of California developed separately, it is impossible to define uniform chronological periods of archaeology for the entire state. Instead, archaeologists have often created chronologies of regions of California (Beardsley, 1948). Using the periods from the California Department of Education material, the school system generally approaches California history and archaeology through five generalized periods of study: Pre-Columbian (-1533), European Exploration (1533-1700), Spanish Colonial California (1700-1810), Russian and Mexican California (1810-1846), and California as a US State (1850-) (See Period chart below)(California Department of Education 2022). Within these periods are greater variations and specificity; certain Californian courses divide state history into more specific units (CDE 2022). The overly simplified nature of these periods, specifically Indigenous per-contact periods, demonstrates the focus of California education standards on modern and historical periods.

Overview of Californian Archaeology by Period

Period	Approximate Dates	Noteworthy Sites
Pre-Columbian	(-1533)	Channel Island Sites, Arlington Spring Man, Tulare River, Birdwell Rock, and Burro Flats, Los Osos, San Dieguito, Pauma
European Exploration	(1533-1700)	Cedros Island, San Francisco Port, Carmel Bay
Spanish Colonial California	(1700-1810)	Mission San Diego de Alcalá, Mission Santa Barbara, Mission San Gabriel Arcángel, Mission Santa Cruz
Russian and Mexican California	(1810-1846)	Fort Ross. Mission San Francisco Solano, Sonoma Barracks
California as a US State	(1850-)	Sutter's Mill, Highway 49, Round Valley Massacres, Yontocket Massacre, Sacramento River Massacre, California State Parks

Fig VIII: Californian sites and Archaeology by period (as defined by California curricula) (Stewart 2011, Knight 2020, Madley 2019, Johnson et al. 2002, Beardsley 1948).

Significant academic archaeological attention has further divided the Pre-Columbian period into distinct regional periods and often focused on early Californian occupation (Johnson et al. 2002, Beardsley 1948). California is an important state for North American archaeology for several reasons. Firstly, California sites are central to the early dating of occupation on the continent. Late Pleistocene remains like the Arlington Springs Man of Santa Rosa and remains found in Los Angeles have been important discoveries in the study of the early occupation of the continent (Johnson et al. 2002). Because of the famous nature of many early remains in California, public perception of Californian archaeology has often predominantly focused on early occupation (particularly in the park and monuments system). Beyond early occupation, Californian Pre-Columbian archeology is incredibly diverse and complex due to its extensive number of sites and high occupation rate. At one point (before 1800) an estimated 13% of all

Indigenous North Americans lived in California (McGhee 2022, Library of Congress 2015). As a result, California archaeology is culturally complex (See Figure VIII), and significant archaeological diversity and variation exist beyond the state government's description of prehistoric California. The work of academic archaeologists studying later pre-Columbian periods has focused on describing the variation of Californian archaeology and investigating interaction zones and language development. Other notable Californian sites of pre-Columbian periods include the Channel Islands, the milling stone horizon sites of the Archaic period, and the painted and petroglyph arts of the Tulare River, Birdwell Rock, and Burro Flats (Stewart 2011, Knight 2020, Rick et al. 2005).

Post-contact sites are numerous and span large periods of Californian history. Like pre-European contact periods, the periods broadly suggested by the California Education standards are simplified to allow for broad comparative discussion. Important phases in post-contact archaeology include the numerous Spanish missions, Russian colonial communities, the development of Californian industry following the Gold Rush, and sites related to the genocide of native Californians by US militias in the 1850s and 60s (National Parks Service 2012, Panich 2010, CDE 2022, Greenwood 1991, Lightfoot et al. 1993). While California was never a state that legalized US slavery, significant archaeologies of injustice are present in California, particularly in the archaeology of the Spanish mission system and the Californian genocide of Indigenous residents following statehood (Madley 2019, 2016, 2016 Silliman 2001). Regardless of the period, Californian archaeology is visible and accessible through state and local museums, historic registries, and monument and park systems. Californian archaeology is one of the most studied regions of the US, and educational spaces have a breadth of national, local, and state archaeologies to draw from when constructing history curricula. Despite the prominence of Californian archaeology, archaeology is decidedly absent from the educational standards of Californian high school curricula.

The Construction of Archaeology in California Schools

The use of archaeology in Californian social studies classrooms is minimal, and archaeology is never explicitly mentioned. The California curricula of required high school social studies courses (Modern American History and Modern World History) do not mention archaeology by name at any point (California Department of Education 2016). Explicit

discussions of material studies and interdisciplinary perspectives are kept brief. The complete absence of archaeology in Californian standards is partly due to how the California standards are communicated. Rather than adopt a standardized, bullet-point model of standards, California uses a text-heavy and narrative-driven communication model that is primarily descriptive. These texts summarize the history of each period so that the school and teacher can understand the narrative the state wants them to construct, but often limits the requirement of specific events or materials. Californian curricula often suggest material and provide detailed examples of ways teachers have taught content periods but refrain from instructing teachers how to teach each period.

While the California standards never explicitly mention or require archaeological material by name, standards regarding material study and provided examples still indicate its use in Californian classrooms. In the unit ‘The Great Depression and the New Deal’ (the 1930s), the Modern American History course suggests that teachers use their local environment to demonstrate the effects of the various programs passed by FDR under the New Deal program (CDE 2016 pg. 400). Students are prompted to ‘identify an artifact in their communities’ made by an agency under the New Deal and to ‘tell the story of the artifact’ to ‘contextualize the project’ as ‘a reflection of the New Deal (pg. 400).’ The New Deal was a series of regulations, reforms, and public works programs enacted by the Federal government to combat the effects of the Great Depression of the 1930s. Public works programs significantly affected the physical landscape of America (for example, the Civilian Conservation Corps built most existing National Parks infrastructure, the Rural Electrification Commission built modern utilities for rural areas, and the Works Progress Administration funded the creation of art, literature, and music- see Figure IX) (Kennedy 2009, Leighninger Jr 1996).



Fig IX: Civilian Conservation Corps workers work to restore La Purísima Mission with the help of historians and Archaeologists (California Department of Parks and Recreation, 2014)

These standards operationalize the perspectives of historical archaeology to describe the material connection between modern environments and historical events. In this instance, archaeology connects the current day to the past and promotes independent student analysis. While these examples provide evidence of the use of archaeological perspectives in Californian classrooms, they represent only a fraction of the available national and Californian archaeology. The consistent absence of archaeology across the Californian standards results in a lack of standardization. As such, it is difficult to describe how and when each student will encounter archaeology in a Californian classroom. The connection of material developments to the current day encourages an engaged and investigative student perspective, but the limited use of archaeological study restricts its effectiveness.

Californian use of archaeology in the high school classroom is more characterized by its absence than its visible application. Californian standards generally reproduce national perspectives, but Trigger's classification cannot be reliably applied to archaeological material in

the Californian classroom because it appears too infrequently. Archaeologies of slavery are not constructed. Indigenous archaeology across any period is not constructed in mandatory courses. Critical connections to current sociopolitical structures or political pedagogies are not used. California constructs a history that is more diverse than other states, but its limited use in archaeology limits the ability of Californian students to understand the material relationship between the past and the modern world. As a result, the absence of standardized engagement with archaeological material produces inaccurate histories that enshrine the historically privileged.

California and a Diverse Past

Due to the absence of archaeological material and its period choices, Californian standards often struggle to fully describe historical diversity or adequately represent state legacies of injustice. These choices significantly impact the state's ability to analyze the effects of American slavery and Indigenous genocide, resulting in their erasure from national narratives. California does not teach American history before 1870 in High School environments (CDE 2016 pg.378). As a result, their American history course seldom mentions slavery in its curriculum, appearing twice in its fifty-seven-page curriculum. These brief standards on slavery require students to assess 'How...American freedom and slavery coexisted in the nation's past,' comparing the 'emergence of a free, democratic system of government' alongside 'an entrenched system of chattel slavery that lasted for nearly a century (pg.379).' These requirements reveal an expectation of more significant historical criticism, prompting the Californian student to consider the 'paradoxical' relationship between the principles of the American founders and historical realities (pg.379). California does not have as extensive archaeology of nineteenth-century slavery as other states, as it entered statehood as a 'free state' in the decade immediately preceding the American Civil War. Archaeologies of slavery and conditions of enslaved Native Californians under the Spanish mission system have been extensively studied by archaeologists (Madley 2019,2016, 2016 Silliman 2001). Both local archaeologies of mission slavery and national perspectives on the American slave trade are absent from Californian high schools, erasing important periods of historical injustice from visibility.

Similar to discussions of American slavery, the period framing of California's eleventh-grade American history course significantly affects how Indigenous rights and history are

discussed. While discussion of Indigenous history appears more frequently, the removal of discussion of pre-1870s events erases the ability of the standards to describe the many injustices against Indigenous Americans and Californians, most notably the Californian genocide of Native Californians in the 1850s and 60s. As a result of the course's choice of the period, the discussion of Indigenous rights in America focuses on movements for civil rights in the twentieth century. The curriculum situates the origins of the Indigenous civil rights movement in the experiences abroad in World War II. Specific discussion of significant events of the Indigenous civil rights movement is suggested, including the occupation of Alcatraz and the standoffs between the members of the American Independence Movement (AIM) at the office of the Bureau of Indian Affairs in Washington D.C. and Wounded Knee South Dakota (the site of a historic massacre of the Lakota people by the U.S. army in the 1890s) (pgs. 414-425). Specific discussion of the Californian Genocide or the archaeologies of spaces like the Sacramento River Massacre is not constructed.

Discussion of the Indigenous civil rights movement in California is presented as a component of larger twentieth-century developments. The standards emphasize the solidarity between the underprivileged in America in the twentieth century and the movement for equality on multiple fronts. In the same space, California discusses the Indigenous civil rights movement, it also requires the discussion of events such as the women's rights movement, the Civil rights movement, Chicano activism, the United Farm Workers movement, and the LGBT rights movement post-Stonewall. As a result, the standards prompt students to consider the interconnectedness of twentieth-century civil rights efforts and evaluate how movements built upon the actions of others (pgs. 414-425). The standards ask the student to consider the legacy of civil rights efforts with the question: 'Did the Civil Rights Movement succeed (pgs. 414-425)?'

The interconnected standards of Civil Right movements of the twentieth century encourage a critical framework for assessing the relationship between modern injustice and the past by prompting them to consider the legacies of rights movements in the US and their success (and how inequality persists). While the standards refrain from prompting the students to consider overarching structures that oppress the underprivileged universally (republican structures, capitalism), it nevertheless provides students with a working understanding of various movements against injustice in the past and prompts them to consider their legacies. Analysis of Indigenous rights movements is contextualized within a broader movement towards civil rights,

but the lack of discussion of events before 1870 hurt the ability of students to name specific injustices (such as the Californian genocide). In its current state, archaeology plays no role in discussing historical injustice or civil rights movements. Specific discussion of injustices and the archaeology of Indigenous Californians would better enable students to understand the context that informs twentieth-century social justice movements.

Students can consider the following question: **Did the Civil Rights Movement succeed?** Making a class presentation, composing an essay, or creating a project that addresses this question will encourage students to make a claim based on a variety of pieces of evidence they have collected throughout the unit. They analyze historical examples of movements for equality to support their claims.

In addition to the movements for equality that made the 1960s and early 1970s remarkable for the heightened level of activism, the expansion of the war in Vietnam provoked antiwar protests that reflected and contributed to a deep rift in American society and culture.

Fig X: A section of the California Curricula related to the twentieth-century Civil Rights Movement (CDE 2016 pg.422)

The Californian course fails to cultivate a comprehensive critical pedagogy. Its comparison and reflection of twentieth-century phenomena often come at the expense of extensive discussion of material historical injustice, particularly the legacies of the injustices and prejudices of early America. Its connection of historical movements to the modern-day does so within a hegemonic context. Californian curriculum details a historical citizen that uses extra-political methods of sociopolitical action, but it fails to use historical injustice to understand systematic injustice in the modern world comprehensively and generally characterizes social development through the context of structural hegemony (legislation, court cases) (Bates 1975). California devotes extensive time to critically analyzing modern diversity and social movements, but this time often comes at the expense of discussing past injustice, particularly the archaeology of injustice before 1870. The absence of descriptions of injustice in earlier periods of American history robs the study of modern periods of their contextual origins and conveys the image of diversity as a modern phenomenon. Greater use of engaged archaeological material could rectify these issues by aiding the education of injustice in earlier periods.

Curriculum Education and Modern California

The lessons emphasized and taught in California schools reflect how the education board envisions the model Californian citizen. The greater focus on diverse historical content in California is partly attributed to the Fair, Accurate, Inclusive, and Respectful Education Act of 2011 (FAIR Act) (CDE 2022, Sacramento City Unified School District n.d.). This act passed by the state legislature requires schools to teach content on various ethnic and cultural groups in their Californian and US History Courses, including but not limited to Native Americans, persons with disabilities, Asian Americans, Pacific Islanders, Mexican Americans, and LGBT Americans (CDE 2022, Sacramento City Unified School District n.d.). This act is not unique among states, and other (primarily democratic) states have adopted similar laws. As a result of this focus, American patriotism in California is formed through an understanding of the diversity of modern American history and the nation's place in the world through a curriculum enabled by the FAIR Act (CDE 2021). Within these contexts exists a more nuanced and reflective perspective on history, but archaeology plays an extremely restrained role in its construction and the absence of early periods of American history limits the ability for comprehensive evaluation.

California is the most populous state in the US and the largest Democrat-controlled state. The 2020 US census data reveals an ethnically diverse state with more than a quarter being foreign-born residents (See Figure XI: California Demographics). Only 1.7% of Californians identify as American Indian or Alaskan Native, a comparatively small number for a state that contained 13% of all Native Americans in North America in 1800. The median income for Latino, Indigenous, or African American residents of California is \$30-40,000 lower than the medium income of a white family, and these groups have up to two to three times lower rates of college graduation and home ownership. These figures are closely related to cycles of poverty and historical oppression. California's extensive archaeology of injustice spans its history and is intimately related to the present day (the mission system, Japanese internment). The absence of these archaeologies limits the potential for critical connections to the present and reproduces a narrative of American History that omits the legacies of historical injustice on inequity in the current day.

California Demographics at a Glance	
Total Population	39,029,342
% Under 18 Years Old	22.4%
Households with Internet	90.4%
Race and Origin	35.2% White non-Hispanic 40.2% Hispanic or Latino 6.5% Black or African-American 15.9% Asian 1.7% American Indian or Alaskan native
Bachelor's Degree or Higher, age 25+	35.5%
Persons in Poverty	12.3%
Foreign-born Persons	26.5%

Fig. XI: Californian demographics (US Census Bureau 2020)

Critical connections between historical events to the present day in the Californian standards are more often intended to celebrate the effects of civil movements through history rather than encourage sociopolitical action. Californian standards rarely prompt students to analyze historical injustice and prejudice to connect their effects to the current day. As a result, the education board has constructed a curriculum that encourages historical reflection and connection but still centers it in the context of civic participation and sociopolitical hegemony (Graham and Neu 2004). California does not explicitly use its curricula to celebrate capitalism, patriotism, and the promotion of American exceptionalism. Nevertheless, California does not construct a curriculum that uses historical material to promote meaningful critiques of these systems, and archaeology plays a limited role in the standards.

Conclusion

This chapter has evaluated the extent to which California high school curricula use archaeological material. Despite diverse and extensive archaeological material to draw from,

Californian standards never explicitly incorporate archaeology and rarely use material-based methodologies. California state legislators require an engaged and diverse modern history, but it comes at the expense of discussing pre-American Civil War settings. As a result, archaeologies of the Spanish mission system, American slavery, and Indigenous histories (and genocide) are absent from the mandatory coursework of Californian high school classrooms. Distinct state and local archaeologies are not utilized. Thus, Californian standards fail to adequately explain the developments that led to civil justice movements, and diversity is characterized as a modern development.

Discussion of world history in the Californian classroom primarily informs an American viewpoint. Courses in California are primarily written from Western perspectives that seek to provide global context to national narratives. The absence of archaeological material in classroom standards contributes to reproducing unrepresentative history in the Californian classroom. Continued engagement with educational standards and classrooms should encourage adopting archaeological perspectives and extending critical, FAIR-Act-based frameworks to early American and world history periods.

Chapter 5: Case Study III: Alaska

This chapter analyzes the general scope of Alaskan archaeology and compares it to state and local standards to evaluate their use and visibility. Unlike other US states, the Alaskan Education Board refrains from requiring specific units and periods needed for study, instead describing general goals that students must demonstrate by graduation. As a result, curricula responsibility is split between state agencies and local school districts. Alaska has a rich and extensive archaeology, particularly of Native Alaskans. This rich archaeology and the higher numbers of Indigenous residents are reflected in state and local standards, where state local standards devote extensive time to Alaskan history and archaeology. While this focus results in constructing a nuanced and detailed state history, archaeological material and critical perspectives rarely extend beyond Alaskan settings.

Alaskan Archaeology: Overview

Alaska is the largest state in the US by land mass and has a regionally diverse and complex archaeology closely related to environmental changes, beginning around the end of the last ice age/Late Pleistocene. Much of Alaska remains difficult to fully access, resulting in archaeological research often concentrating on accessible areas and leaving gaps in the archaeological record of certain periods (Gillispie 2018). Significant archaeological research has studied the archaeology of the Alaskan Holocene and late Pleistocene, focusing first on the eastern Beringian tradition (starting 12-14,000 years ago) and developing into the study of regional development of technology, migration, and culture (Gillispie 2018, Goebel and Buvit 2011)(See timeline below). Later Anthropocene-based archaeology has generally focused on pre-contact environments, focusing on native Alaskan maritime cultures (Davis 1990, Moss 2004). Later historical archaeology includes the study of Russian colonization efforts in Alaska and the impact of American settlers following Alaska becoming a US territory (National Parks Service 2017).

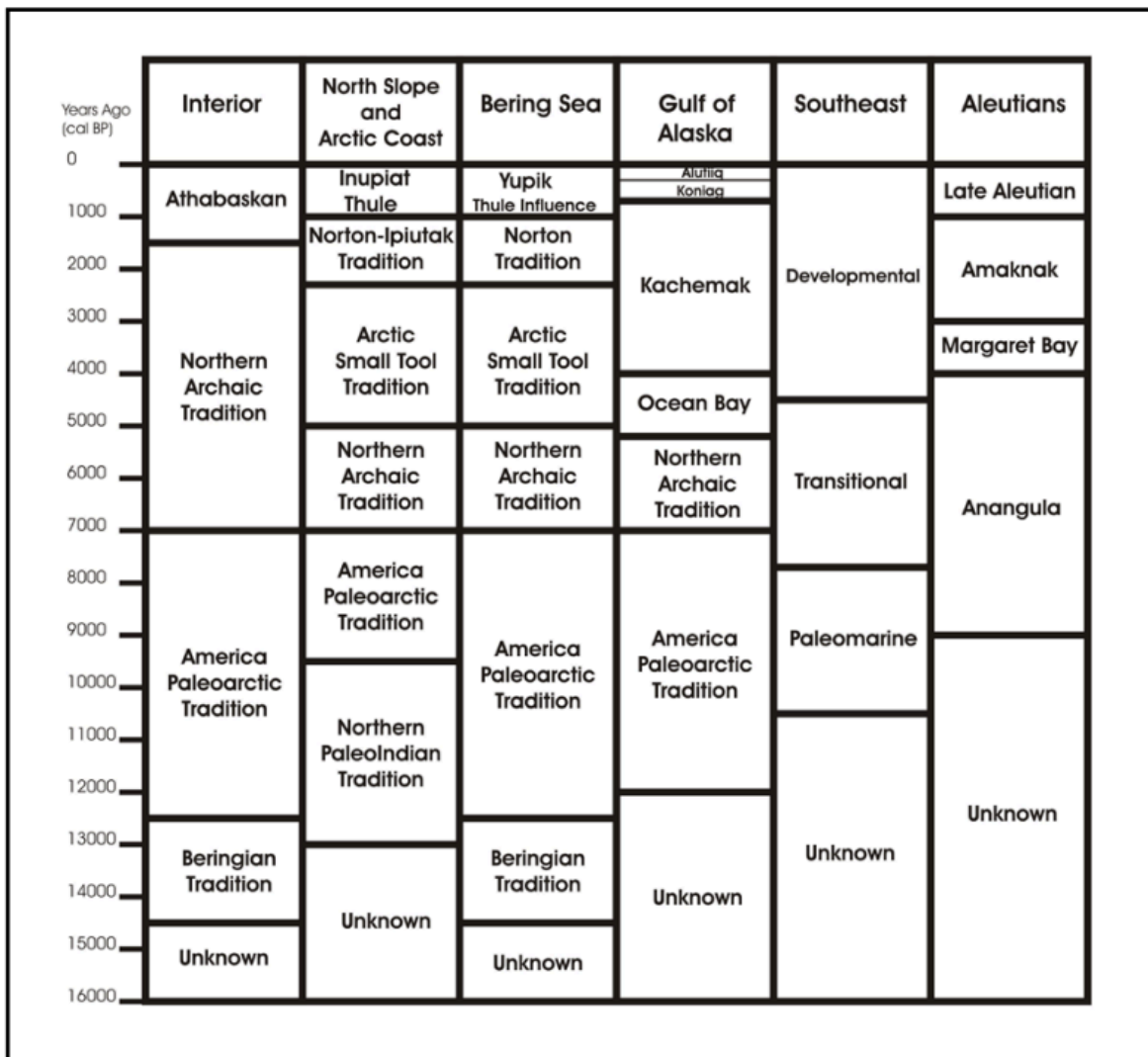
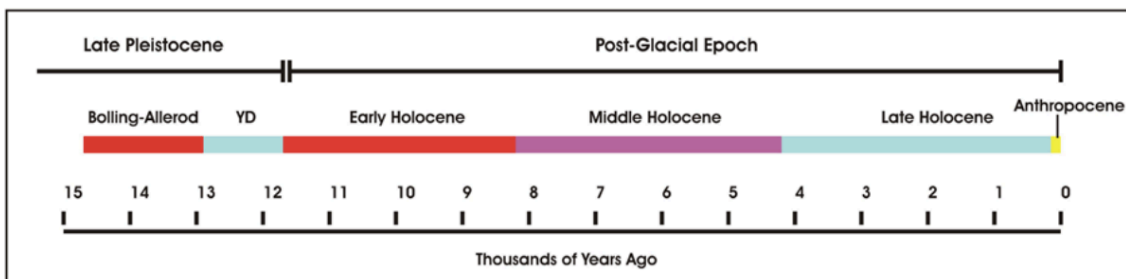


Fig XII: Geologic periods during Alaskan prehistory and corresponding major cultural traditions (to European contact). (Illustrations from: Gillispie 2018).

Among the periods of Alaskan archaeology, numerous archaeological sites are notable and visible to greater public consciousness. The Walrus Island National Landmark and Trail

Creek Caves of the Seward Peninsula are important sites for studying the origins of population dispersal into North America, a period and region that remains heavily researched by archaeologists (NPS 2017, Anderson 1970, Yesner 2001). The Anangula National Historic Landmark in the Aleut islands connects to earlier periods of migratory archaeology but also contains numerous sites of later occupation. This includes Igaghsiilugh, an Early Holocene stone blade production site, and the Anagula village site, a settlement preserved by volcanic ash from which 20,000 objects have been recovered. (NPS 2017, Laughlin and Marsh 1954, Maschner 2016). Notable sites of historical archaeology include structures from the Russian colonization of Alaska, including the sites contained in the Three Saints Bay National Landmark and the Holy Assumption Church, an example (among many others) of Russian missionary efforts in Alaska (See Image below)(Clark 1985, Griffin 2013). Alaska also contains many visible archaeological remains from twentieth-century wars, such as the Attu and Kiska island battle sites from the World War II Aleutian campaign (NPS 2017). Among these sites are many archaeological records of historical injustice, such as the US's forcible relocation of Indigenous Unanga to internment camps in southern Alaska following the Japanese invasion of the Aleut islands (See Image below)(NPS 2017, 2021, Madden 1992).



Fig XIII: The Russian Orthodox Church of Holy Ascension on Unalaska. (NPS, 2020).



Fig XIV: The US government relocated native Aleutians to the Funter Bay Internment Camp, 1500 miles from the Aleut islands. (NPS 2021)

Alaskan social studies standards generally refrain from providing specific periods or content requirements but make an exception to define the periods of Alaskan history to be taught. The standards define five periods of Alaskan study: Indigenous Alaskans Before Western Contact, Colonial Era- Russian Period, Colonial Era- US Period, Alaska as a Territory, and Alaska as a State (Alaska Department of Education 2020 pgs. 22-26). The period groupings of these standards reveal a desire to sustain a close study of more recent Alaskan history (specifically the last 2-300 years). While prehistoric content and archaeology are still required and studied, the vast extent of Alaskan prehistory is condensed into a single unit (the Alaskan standards list the period as lasting between ‘time immemorial-contact’ with the next unit starting in 1741), limiting the ability for detailed and site-specific analyses (ADE 2020, pg. 22).

The Construction of Archaeology in Alaskan Schools

Alaskan standards include use of local at state archaeologies, but the limited nature of state standards often restricts their specificity. Alaskan standards on social studies are only two pages long (ADE 2021), with an additional five pages set out to describe standards and periods

of study for Alaskan history. The standards on Alaskan history are the only social studies material in which the state education board defines periods and creates specific criteria. Other standards only define general achievement goals and are content-neutral. Alaska does not adopt a textbook statewide, leaving the decision-making power for most social studies up to the preferences of local school districts (Education Commission of the States 2022). Because the Alaska education board provides a very limited set of educational standards, it is difficult to fully assess the construction of archaeology in Alaska at a state-wide level. The curricula of the two largest Alaskan school districts, the Anchorage School District and the Matanuska-Susitna District, provide further standards development by establishing courses, periods, and objectives but similarly refrain from suggesting specific archaeological material (Anchorage School District n.d., Matanuska-Susitna Borough School District 2018).

The use of archaeology in Alaskan classrooms is concentrated in pre-contact settings. Explicit archaeology requirements appear in both state standards on Alaskan History and local curricula (the Matanuska-Susitna and Anchorage curricula). These standards are the same between local and state curricula; students must ‘use historical data from various primary resources, including letters, diaries, oral accounts, archeological sites, and artifacts (ADE 2021, MSD 2018).’ Both state and local standards mention archaeology as a ‘suggested topic’ among topics like ‘cultures, political organizations, and cultural changes (ASD 2022, MSD 2018).’ In both state and local Alaskan standards explicit mention of archaeology or materiality is related to local, pre-contact Alaskan environments. Both state and local standards suggest using archaeological material in the ‘Indigenous Alaskans before Western Contact’ unit (ASD 2022, MSD 2018). Elsewhere archaeology is absent from state and local curricula (Anchorage and Matanuska-Susitna) but is used occasionally in units that involve popular archaeological periods. For example, the Matanuska-Susitna world history standards use archaeology to discuss classical material in pre-Renaissance contexts. These standards include sections on Greece and the requirement for students to ‘Retell the myth of the founding of Rome (MSD 2018 pg. 3).’ These standards teach students to ‘Investigate archeological discoveries and make inferences toward their significance (pg. 1).’ The repeated mention of archaeological material suggests an interest in enabling students to use multi-disciplinary perspectives to engage with and evaluate historical material, although its presence is often limited to classical or prehistorical contexts.

While archaeology is mentioned explicitly by Alaskan standards on Alaskan history, they fail to establish specificity beyond requiring its general application. Alaskan standards devote significant time to identifying and locating Alaskan perspectives throughout historical periods, but they fail to provide educators with the specificity to construct classroom lessons. In both local and state standards, archaeology is required, but these standards never describe what archaeology should be taught other than that it should generally be focused on pre-contact Alaska. No specific sites, cultures, or materials are mentioned or suggested, leaving the representation of archaeology in Alaskan classrooms up to individual teachers' familiarity with Alaskan archaeology. Alaska has a demonstrably diverse and varied archaeology to draw from, but its use in the Alaskan classroom will likely vary significantly between classrooms and districts due to the limited nature of state and local standards. As a result, Alaskan standards demonstrate a desire to educate about local archaeology, but lack of specificity limits its statewide impact.

Using Trigger's classifications of archaeology, Alaska often imitates a national archaeology in how its focus reveals a desire to use archaeology to construct state and regional continuity. Instead of using archaeology to further a national lineage, its choices reveal a more evident focus on regionality than a desire to connect to enabling current-day patriotism. Díaz-Andreu iterates upon Trigger's initial definitions of archaeology by describing the effects of regionality on national archaeologies in Spain (Díaz-Andreu 1995, Díaz-Andreu and Champion 2014). Within national archaeologies that frame state histories, regional depictions vary to favor local history and to locate it within the contexts of larger national archaeologies (Díaz-Andreu 1995). Alaska's standards employ regional archaeology in this manner; they explicitly name and discuss the archaeologies of Native Alaskans independent of national or continental contexts, demonstrating a prioritization of local chronologies. While Alaskan standards are nondescript, a specific focus on describing an Alaskan narrative grounded in an ongoing native Alaskan perspective reflects their unique history, regionality, and demographics. Compared to previous case studies, Alaska is more successful at describing local and regional archaeology, but these perspectives are often not applied to national or non-Alaskan contexts. The limited scope of the state's standards results in little instruction on the specific application of archaeology outside of suggested periods.

Regionality and a Diverse Past in the Alaskan Classroom

Study of the limited Alaskan standards have revealed a desire to use archaeology to locate local and state history. Outside of local contexts, Alaskan standards struggle to adequately describe historical chronologies, diversity, or injustice, and archaeology's role outside of state history is limited. Alaskan districts have made similar period choices as other state education boards, limiting the scope of its general US History course to focus on events after 1870 (MSD 2018). This restricted scope allows local districts to discuss historical periods in more detail and to devote time to locate the state throughout multiple historical periods, whose history is discussed from prehistory to the current day. This structure helps discussion of local histories (particularly Native Alaskan) but comes at the expense of discussing earlier periods of US history or critical analysis of nationwide development. As a result, discussions of continental slavery or the use of archaeologies of slavery, continental Indigenous Americans, and other periods of history are absent from Alaskan high school curricula.

The standards for the Alaskan history course are the most detailed of any state or local Alaskan curriculum. The state education board's Alaskan history standards work to establish a historical narrative written from both a colonial and Indigenous perspective, with standards on Native Alaskans in each of the five defined periods. Standards prompt students to evaluate 'traditional Alaskan native governance' and the 'similarities and differences in the cultural attributes... among Native Alaskan people (ADE 2021 pg. 22).' In later periods, the state standards spent extensive space requiring students to understand how specific actions (Russian colonialism, American resource exploitation) affected the agency and lives of Alaskan Native communities (pg. 23-24). The perspectives and agency of Alaskan Natives are the predominant through lines of evaluating continuity and change in the standards of Alaskan History.

	PEOPLE, PLACES, ENVIRONMENT	CONSUMPTION, PRODUCTION, DISTRIBUTION	INDIVIDUAL, CITIZENSHIP, GOVERNANCE, POWER	CONTINUITY AND CHANGE
<p>Colonial Era The United States Period (1867-1912)</p> <p>Suggested Topics <i>[Not an inclusive list]</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • United States' motives for purchasing Russia's interest in Alaska • Treaty of Cession • Legal status of Alaska Natives under the Commerce Clause and the Marshall Trilogy • Mining Law of 1872 • Organic Act of 1884 • Role of Sheldon Jackson • Resources (e.g., whaling, fur trading, mining, commercial fisheries) • Gold Rush • Nelson Act of 1905 and the dual school system • Creation of National Forests 	<p>The student demonstrates an understanding of the interaction between people and their physical environment by:</p> <p>AH. PPE 3 using texts/sources to analyze the effect of the historical contributions and/or influences of significant individuals or groups and local, regional, statewide, and/or international organizations. [DOK 3] (H. B4)</p>	<p>The student demonstrates an understanding of the discovery, impact, and role of natural resources by:</p> <p>AH. CPD 2 using texts/source to draw conclusions about the role of the federal government in natural resource development and land management (e.g., jurisdiction, authority, agencies, programs, policies). [DOK 3] (GC. F1)</p>	<p>The student demonstrates an understanding of the historical rights and responsibilities of Alaskans by:</p> <p>AH. ICGP 3 explaining and analyzing tribal and western concepts of land ownership and how acting upon those concepts contributes to changes in land use, control, and ownership. [DOK 4] (H. C7, C8)</p> <p>AH. ICGP 4 explaining Alaskans' quest for self-determination (i.e., full rights as U.S. citizens) through the statehood movement. [DOK 1] (GC. C3)</p> <p>AH.ICGP 5 explaining the impacts of military actions (e.g., Naval bombardment of Angoon, Aleut internment, military expeditions) relative to Native communities. [DOK 2] (H. B1)</p> <p>ICGP 6 using texts/sources to analyze how the military population and its activities, including administrative, policing, defense, mapping, communication, and construction, have impacted communities. [DOK 3] (H. B2)</p> <p>AH. ICGP 7 describing the historical basis of federal recognition of tribes, their inherent and delegated powers, the ongoing nature and diversity of tribal governance, and the plenary power of Congress. [DOK 1] (GC. C8)</p>	<p>The student demonstrates an understanding of the chronology of Alaska history by:</p> <p>AH. CC 2 describing how policies and practices of non-natives (e.g., missionaries, miners, Alaska Commercial Company merchants) influenced Alaska Natives. [DOK 2] (H. B4, B5)</p>

Fig. XV: A sample of the Alaska-focused standards provided by the state (Alaska Department of Education and Early Development 2022 pg. 24).

Local school boards devote additional curricula space to evaluating the history of Native Alaskans, often including sections locating Alaskan histories in of non-Alaskan courses (MSD 2018 pgs. 2-4). In the Matanuska-Susitna district, most US history units include a section on relating general trends to Alaskan histories, such as evaluating the impacts of the reconstruction era (post-American Civil War) on Indigenous Americans in Alaska and in the US as a whole (MSD 2018, pgs. 2-4). Specific discussion of injustice in the state is used throughout, with specific suggested topics of American Indian legislation, segregation, civil rights, and the effects of missionaries on Indigenous cultures (pgs. 19-22). As with other states, the choice of period significantly affects the ability of Alaskan courses to trace historical injustice to the modern classroom comprehensively. Only teaching US history after 1870 impacts the ability to study the continuity and evolution of injustice. In the case of Indigenous history, state and district standards primarily focus on establishing the perspective of Alaskan Natives from colonial and pre-contact settings to the modern day. The use of archaeology in these standards serves

primarily to help construct these perspectives, particularly in prehistoric periods. However, outside of Alaskan settings, the standards remain limited in scope and period. They never explicitly suggest requiring archaeological material and struggle to broadly address the continuity of American archaeology or historical injustice by only approaching the continental US after 1870. As a result, discussion of the perspective of the Indigenous American in continental settings is only established after the creation of the reservation system, and archaeology is not required, resulting in a limited and inaccurate construction of broader Indigenous history.

Alaska is the second youngest state in the US and the third smallest in population. Alaska has the highest number of Indigenous residents as a percentage of its population (15.4%)(US Census Bureau 2020)(See Alaskan Demographics Table). Its educational standards are specifically focused on local and state history and use archaeology to construct regional chronologies that evaluate continuity and change. The Alaskan social studies standards for high school describe injustice in local and state contexts but rarely extend these perspectives to broader world history or US history courses. As a result, discussion of slavery, indigenous rights as a whole, and civil rights are generally absent from Alaskan classrooms, as is the use of related archaeology.

Alaska Demographics at a Glance	
Total Population	733,583
% Under 18 Years Old	24.5%
Households with Internet	88.4%
Race and Origin	64.5% White non-Hispanic 7.5% Hispanic or Latino 3.6% Black or African American 6.6% Asian 15.7% Alaskan Native
Bachelor's Degree or Higher, age 25+	30.6%
Persons in Poverty	10.5%
Foreign-born Persons	7.9%

Fig. XVI: Alaskan Demographics (US Census Bureau 2020)

Although Alaskan social studies standards describe historical injustice (particularly in Alaskan history), they often utilize broad terms, grouping distinct social events into overarching narratives of social change and rarely connecting them to material examples. These standards detail the civil rights movement of Alaskan Natives, demonstrating the regional focus. Outside of regional history, non-Indigenous civil rights movements are often described through legislative actions or supreme court decisions (pg. 11). Extra-political action is not specifically discussed, and the legacy of the civil rights movement is not assessed. Within these contents historical archaeology is never utilized, nor is earlier archaeology used to inform civil rights movements.

Alaskan social studies standards suffer by being unable to describe a continuous narrative of injustice in America due to the period choices of their broader US history course (slavery, Indigenous genocide) (Krogstad 2014). The description of civil rights movements only in terms of judicial and legislative achievements work to reinforce the status quo by only portraying the path to civil rights through civil and hegemonic sociopolitical structures. As a result, cultivating social justice is described as a slow and methodological process. Current sociopolitical conditions are not connected to historical injustice, reproducing and normalizing current injustice

for future generations. Archaeology aids detailed and critical perspectives of state and local histories, but its absence outside of these contexts contributes to the erasure of injustice and limits the ability of critical perspectives of national and global histories.

Conclusion

This chapter has evaluated the standards of Alaskan state and local education boards and compared their use of archaeology to the breadth of Alaskan archaeology. Alaska is the largest territorial state in the US and has incredibly significant archaeological sites related to continental migration, the development of lithic technologies, strategies of continuous occupation, and Western colonialism. Both state and local standards are limited in their instruction. Alaskan state and local standards incorporate local and state archaeology, but often only in specific periods and lacking specificity. The use of archaeology appears primarily in units in pre-contact or classical environments. While state and local standards detail what results archaeology should produce (in student analysis), they refrain from suggesting what archaeology should be taught and do not suggest material or sites. The lack of specificity in state standards limits the statewide impact of archaeology in the Alaskan classroom and creates an environment in which proper application of archaeological material depends on individual educators' abilities.

State and local standards focus on cultivating local and regional perspectives. Alaskan history and archaeology are analyzed and described from pre-contact to present, enabling the course to evaluate continuity and change through history. These standards analyze how past actions have impacted the present and often focus on Native Alaskan perspectives. Outside of Alaskan contexts, state and local standards struggle to utilize archaeology or adopt critical perspectives. Continental archaeology of the US is never incorporated, and perspectives on America before 1870 are never discussed. As a result, critical perspectives are only ever understood locally, and the absence of early US history from state classrooms reproduces hegemonic civil participation by failing to adequately describe historical injustice or extra-political civil movements. Further work within the contexts of the Alaskan system should seek to encourage greater specificity in archaeological standards and apply similar perspectives to non-Alaskan settings.

Chapter 6: Discussion

How does the use of archaeology in general education environments effect the reproduction of national identities and sociopolitical conditions? This thesis has found that every American state creates educational standards within the contexts of state politics and regional history (Heise 2006, Spring 2011). The variation in educational approach in each case study indicates a difference in political conditions and approaches between state education systems (Barak and Kniker 2002, VOA n.d., US Department of Education 2021, Scudella 2013, Goldstein 2020). These differences result in different constructions of archaeology between state classrooms (see Figure XVII). States like California predominantly use social studies (and historical and archaeological content) to teach historical events, while states like Texas devote more significant time to fields like civics and economics. These choices significantly affect the amount of classroom time dedicated to teaching archaeology and history.

Within the goals of state education systems exist variations in what and whose histories are privileged and the extent to which they are connected to the current day. California, for example, teaches twentieth-century civil rights movements in the context of current social justice movements without using earlier historical periods or connecting archaeology. By comparison, Alaska does not actively connect the past to current events and contemporary sociopolitical issues, but it spends much more time extensively using earlier history and archaeology to construct local indigenous chronologies. Both states refrain from discussing historical injustice comprehensively. This is due to restriction in course scope and period. Both states only present a connection between historical injustice and contemporary environments within the context of modern history. As a result, engaged connections often emphasize nonviolent civic engagement through hegemonic structures (voting, court cases, nonviolent participation).

Texan standards use historical and archaeological material to further general academic objectives (civic participation, literary analysis). In Texas, historical and archaeological content often serves multiple purposes. It works to construct the Texan view of the model citizen, who is informed on the benefits of American values, capitalism, and tradition and engages politically only through non-violent and hegemonic civil means. They also work to actively encourage patriotism. In Texas, classical archaeology is used to construct an artificial link between Mediterranean antiquity and American egalitarian principles. As a result, archaeology in Texas actively participates in reinforcing current civic and sociopolitical structures. Like California and

Alaska, Texas teaches civic engagement as possible only through hegemonic systems and civil duty (Graham and Neu 2004). Unlike the others, its history is often more exclusionary and revisionist, opting to teach and construct a connection between Antiquity and America's elite white founders rather than engage in significant discussion of slavery, civil rights movements, or local Indigenous history (Rockmore 2015, Goldstein 2020).

Overview of Archeological Use by Case Study

State	Is Archaeology Mentioned Explicitly?	Are specific sites or materials mentioned?	Is local archaeology mentioned?	Do the curricula discuss Indigenous history or American Slavery?	What archaeology is visible?
Texas	Yes	No	No	Yes, but only in twentieth-century contexts	Specific focus on Roman and Greek archaeology, Briefly mentions Mesoamerican archaeology.
California	No	No	No	Yes, but only in twentieth-century contexts	Study of the effects of industry and governmental programs in the Twentieth Century
Alaska	Yes	No	Yes	Yes, but no discussion of slavery or Indigenous history outside of Alaska	Archaeology of Alaska/Native Alaskans. Classical Archaeology is briefly mentioned.

Fig. XVII: Summary of archaeological visibility by state

The use of archaeology in state classrooms varies significantly between states. Across the nation, archaeology is often constructed implicitly rather than explicitly and through exclusion rather than inclusion. As such, critical analysis of archaeology in state curricula is as much the recognition of what is missing as it is specifically studying explicit use. Academic archaeology has addressed many ethical issues related to using archaeology in university settings, perhaps most extensively the connection between the university classroom and the

reproduction of colonial perspectives (Trigger 1982, González-Ruibal et al. 2018, Hamilakis 2012). While significant work still needs to be done in introductory university courses and through other means of outreach, archaeological education in academia has tangibly improved students' ability to ethically evaluate archaeology's contextual position as a discipline (Hamilakis 2004, 2012). Academic perspectives on archaeological ethics and the discipline's connection to injustice have improved, but they have widened the gap between professional archaeology and the perception and use of archaeology in popular culture and non-university academic settings (Lyman 2010). The case studies of state curricula used in this thesis demonstrate that education boards often write archaeological requirements with an outdated perspective and generally favor popular archaeology over local archaeology.

Ethically engaged outreach with broader social and educational apparatus is necessary for archaeologists to prevent archaeological material from being constructed to reinforce hegemony or promote exclusionary histories (González-Ruibal et al. 2018, Blakey 1997). The contextual position of the profession in a capitalist system has often disincentivized archaeologists from considering long-term engagement with educators and educational spaces due to a lack of funding (Ellenberger and Richardson 2019). Yet if politically engaged archaeology is to be the future of academic archaeology, then an extension beyond the walls of academia to means of mass engagement with archaeology remains an ethical imperative (Atalay 2006, González-Ruibal et al. 2018, Hamilakis 2018, Hutchings and La Salle 2014).

The Role of Archaeology in Public Education

States incorporate archaeological material in fundamentally different ways. Alaska chooses to explicitly apply archaeological material to provide students with an understanding of local and indigenous history and perspectives. Texas emphasizes ancient Greek and Roman history to construct a connection between the perceived ideals of antiquity and the egalitarian principles of the American Declaration of Independence and Constitution. California largely omits using archaeology in detail to instead focus on political and cultural developments within more recent historical periods. These choices occur at the detriment of the histories and archaeologies of earlier periods (particularly pre-Civil War America) and the discussion of historical oppression and injustice. California and Texas fail to detail their local Indigenous archaeologies or describe the genocide of Indigenous people in their states before 1870. Alaska

fails to describe historical injustice in continental America adequately. All states fail to engage in significant discussions of slavery and race, and all states decline to extend conversations of history's adverse aspects towards critically evaluating contemporary sociopolitical conditions.

A comparison of each case has demonstrated that states only use a fraction of local and state archaeology available, if they mention it. Even when limited use of local archaeology is present, state standards often lack the specificity to instruct educators on material or sites. This results in the specific representation of archaeology in classrooms depending on teacher familiarity. Archaeological and historical material can disrupt traditional narratives and prompt students to consider different perspectives through interdisciplinary methods (Schneider 2022, Leone et al. 1987, Hamilakis 2012, 2018). In current state standards, archaeology is often used to support and reinforce traditional and exclusionary historical narratives rather than provide alternative perspectives.

Archaeology in classroom curricula often uses outdated conceptions of historical periods or furthers exclusionary archaeologies. Trigger's definition of colonialist archaeology can be used to describe the use of archaeology in many state courses, as the histories of non-white nations are often condensed to allow for a more significant discussion of Westernism (specifically in world history courses)(Trigger 1984, 1995). The US exists as a modern settler colonial state built upon egalitarian concepts of immigration and cultural diversity (Mamdani 2015). Despite the continuous history and archaeology of diversity in the US, high school history courses often only dedicate time to discussing this historical diversity in units on the twentieth century and civil rights movements. Complete continuity of American diversity is not constructed due to course period choices. Discussion of broad American diversity or pre-colonial archaeologies is not constructed. As such, critical understandings of American history are only taught after the Civil War.

While states fail to extend their discussion of American history beyond the mid-nineteenth century, the chronology of states' world history courses often stretches into prehistory. Given that these states often only construct classical archaeology and discuss events from Western perspectives, a colonial perspective similar to the one critiqued in academic courses is reproduced (Hamilakis 2004). Only European history and the history and archaeologies of perceived white civilizations (Greece, Rome) are constructed in length. As such, several inaccurate viewpoints of the past are reproduced by educational curricula. The

history of white America is extensively discussed and connected to European prehistory. The histories of Indigenous Americans and minorities in America are often erased, generalized, or only discussed in recent eras. These constructions reinforce conservative political narratives that celebrate the legacies and achievements of predominantly white Western societies and contrast their legacy to sociocultural diversity that only appears in the present. Without significant discussion of historical diversity and the history of injustice, state standards work to reproduce xenophobia, racism, and division (Meskell 2002).

Without understanding true American history-Indigenous archaeology, archaeologies of slavery, and continuous histories of diversity and injustice, it is impossible for students to critically evaluate the origins and representation of current sociopolitical injustice. How can a student understand the present without understanding critical histories and archaeology? Barriers to economic opportunity and representation based on race are impossible to combat without recognizing the impacts of historical redlining. The agency and access of indigenous communities are impossible to fully realize without understanding the effects of settler colonialism and historical reduction efforts. Equality of opportunity is impossible without naming how historical privilege has empowered some at the expense of others. Without these topics, the privilege inherent in hegemonic systems is normalized, and the ironies of American virtues and exceptionalism are not exposed through comparison to the past. In its current position, the archaeology used in school curricula is minimal and unreflective of the critically engaged perspectives of the modern profession. School systems rarely engage with archaeological material, and when they do it is often to construct limited archaeologies within the context of political and state interests.

Writing that “critical and emancipatory pedagogy in archaeology should aim at unsettling common-sense preconceptions and demolish stories that have produced pasts to suit present-day dominant practices and identities: from the racist conceptions of primitiveness when referring to people in prehistory,” Hamilakis (2004) argues for introductory archaeology that promotes a critical position and as a means of decolonization of archaeological education (pg. 296). Hamilakis (2004) and other authors primarily present their arguments within the context of university environments, but these perspectives must also be applied to archaeological outreach and general education settings (Atalay 2006, González-Ruibal et al. 2018, Hamilakis 2018, Hutchings and La Salle 2014). The classroom is a complicated environment that works to

educate the next generation of society and reproduce generational norms and values (Eccles and Roester 2011). If the curricula of educational spaces work to reinforce existing structures rather than challenge the status quo, then these spaces work to reproduce inequality and sociopolitical injustice more than they work to advocate for generational change. Archaeological material and existing professional research can enable critically engaged discussion of historical injustice, but archaeologists must do work to engage with and understand the non-university classroom.

What effect does using archaeology in classrooms have and why is this gap important for professional archaeologists? This thesis has demonstrated that the representation of archaeology in state curricula often reflects the privilege inherent in hegemonic political systems. As they currently exist, states vary in how they describe diversity in the past, but no state adequately uses archaeology to encourage critical perspectives on the current day. Gaps and issues identified within each case study are not unique. Many conclusions from Texas and California curricula often appear in other states due to Texas and California's influence as major political powers. Regional variability and political environment mean that each state is different in its construction, but fundamental issues in addressing historical injustice and applying them to the modern day are universal across state curricula.

Politics and Education

How may archaeologists approach addressing the gap between the use of archaeology in professional education and its use in constructing revisionary histories in public education curricula? Two basic engagement options exist; top-down engagement with educational spaces through curricula revision and supplementary material and direct engagement with classroom settings through local outreach. Both methods have their uses and limitations, and the choice of which option is more effective is closely related to educational structure and political environments.

Archaeologists approaching outreach and critical engagement with educational spaces in the US must do so with knowledge of the politicized nature of public educational environments compared to university settings (Spring 2011). Most educational spaces and curricula in the US directly and indirectly connect to politics through elections and appointments (Education Commission of the States 2022). Positions on the state education board are not apolitical, as most are either appointed by the governor or directly elected by voters (the specific process differs

between states)(Education Commission of the States 2022). As a result, curricula are often designed and revised with explicit political agendas (Goldstein 2020).

Educational spaces have become a primary battleground for social issues and political culture wars (Benson 2022, Phelan 2019, Johnson 2007). State political campaigns increasingly prioritize rewriting school curricula and restricting access to diverse historical material, particularly in opposition to ‘critical race theory’ (Rockmore 2015). Florida has made recent headlines in the last few months after their Republican governor changed educational policy to restrict the discussion of race and the civil rights movement (Office of the Florida Governor 2022, Berg-Brousseau 2022, Bond 2022). The board has also criminalized the use of literature not approved by the education board (carrying a prison sentence for the teacher) (Kim 2023, Salam 2023, Burmester and Howard 2022). These increasingly political goals are evident through the appearance of state curricula, where social studies often celebrate and glorify the histories and achievements of a white Western world. As such, some environments where archaeologists would engage with curricula are visibly politically charged, and creating effective, critical perspectives through interaction with these institutions would be difficult.



Fig XVIII: Florida Governor Ron Desantis gives a speech celebrating the passage of the 'Stop WOKE Act' which criminalizes 'Critical Race Theory' in schools (WLRN 2022).

It is overly generous for archaeologists to expect to implement engaged, explicitly political, and socially critical archaeological content in educational settings. The critical pedagogies Hamalakis, Hutchings, and La Salle employ to restructure the revisionist frameworks of introductory archaeology courses operate under the pretense of the greater pedagogical freedom of university settings (Hamalakis 2018, 2004, Hutchings and La Salle 2014). These writers can structure their courses to identify and combat the relationship between archaeology and colonial perspectives because they can incorporate explicitly political criteria and dictate course content. Educational spaces in non-university environments often do not operate with this level of freedom (Barak and Kniker 2002, Uerling 2000, Chandler 2006, Margolis et al. 2016). Applying outreach through local (teacher and classroom outreach) and bottom-up methods is likely the easiest method for archaeologists to affect the classroom immediately. Existing outreach structures and organizations such as Project Archaeology already create case-study-based material for teachers and schools to implement archaeological perspectives, in short, one-to-two-day studies (Project Archaeology 2023). These limited implementations, often in the form of purchasable case studies, seek primarily to provide engagement with the materiality and profession of archaeology rather than instill a critical position (Project Archaeology 2023). Continued politically engaged work could seek to construct similar case-study-based material for the archaeology of specific historical injustices.



Project Archaeology is Composed of Four Integral Components:

- High-quality grade-level and regionally appropriate curricular materials.
- Professional development for formal and informal educators.
- Continuing professional support.
- A national network of archaeology educators.

National Network

Project Archaeology operates through a national network of state and regional programs. These programs offer local workshop and institutes for educators; experiences for school groups and family learners at archaeological sites, museums, and visitor centers; and continuing support for Project Archaeology teachers.

Fig. XIX: The Project Archaeology website details the organization's goals and includes photos of teacher workshops (Project Archaeology 2023).

Is local, case study-based outreach the ideal method for archaeologists to contribute to fighting the cultural reproduction of hegemony and inequality in school environments? This depends on the nature of top-down outreach in the state and its potency. If state education boards are too highly politicized and the process of curricula revision too slow, local methods may be the most effective for archaeologists looking to create an immediate effect. These methods are more immediately effective but struggle to combat the absence or misuse of archaeological material statewide. Local outreach using case studies does not rewrite the broader standards by which classrooms operate. Individual days in specific classrooms may incorporate critical, reflective archaeological content but still operate within the confines of state standards that work to entrench injustice and reinforce hegemony (Carson 1987, Chandler 2006).

Case-study-based approaches operate on opt-in pretenses, meaning they will never work to combat the generational reproduction of injustice at a state-wide level (Su and Su 2019). Given the growing politicization of educational spaces in the US, is it correct for academic archaeologists to expect public school educators to willingly choose to adopt case-study-based content that could endanger their jobs, livelihood, and personal safety? In many cases, these local methods may prove to be the most immediately effective, but they do little to challenge the absence or misuse of archaeology as a whole in state education systems.

Educators are very aware of schools' role in the generational reproduction of inaccurate histories and modern inequality (Eccles and Roester 2011, Hanna 2019, North 2006). When the alternative option is engagement with hegemonic political systems (state education boards) to encourage the adoption of anti-hegemonic perspectives, critical outreach appears (and is) difficult. Professional archaeologists must understand schools' sociopolitical contexts to determine the optimal outreach method (and level). In the US, educational federalism and state variation result in variations in the effectiveness of top-down and bottom-up outreach methods (Heineman 2016, Heise 2006, Pelsue 2017, Pinder 2010).

Evaluating Outreach

There are fundamental issues with the current manifestation of educational praxis in the US and how educational spaces contribute to the reproduction of injustice. Educators have studied various school environments extensively and evaluated their connection to oppression,

privilege, and hegemony for decades (Bourdieu 1973, Carson 1987, Heybach 2009, Mayo 2015). Affecting educational policy and organizing large-scale reform is a difficult and slow process. Archaeologists must understand the challenges they face when they seek to engage in critically oriented outreach with education spaces.

It is easy for professional archaeologists to simply decide that outreach with educational spaces is not worth engaging with. Perspectives on educational outreach have sometimes found it too complicated and overly politicized, and the research related to educational outreach is too underfunded (Heybach 2009, Mayo 2015). Archaeological research in academia is funded and sustained based on its value to current society, but the primary spaces in which the greater public engages with archaeology have not evolved with the profession. The dissemination of archaeological research into public spaces must be actively engaged with and continuously reevaluated. Decisions of archaeological stewardship must not be motivated by familiarity and convenience but by society's needs. The politically engaged work of archaeologists means little if we allow it to be repurposed into exclusionary and revisionist narratives once it reaches public consciousness. Educational spaces are critical environments in the reproduction of sociocultural perspectives (Nelsen 2021). If the future of engaged archaeology is actively political and oriented against injustice, then sustained engagement with the classroom must be considered.

How should archaeologists engage with combating inaccurate representations of archaeology in general education? This paper has shown that the optimal method of engagement often differs depending on the state and environment. It is difficult to expect hegemonic institutions like state education boards to willingly adopt revisions designed to combat the reproduction of hegemony and injustice. Despite this, work can still be done to address the misrepresentation (or a lack of representation) of archaeological content in course curricula. Many states fail to construct a meaningful chronology of historical diversity in existing curricula. The achievement goals of outreach then depend on how well a state's curricula represent historical diversity and injustice. In California, outreach can be targeted toward creating socially reflective content since the FAIR Act has constructed relatively more diverse curricula to work with (Adams et al. 2007). Targeted work in California should therefore focus on reframing the presentation of archaeological material to encourage critical perspectives. This targeted effort is impossible in Texas because the base curricula are not diverse enough to build critical

perspectives. Work must be done first to construct a more representative history before critically engaged perspectives can be encouraged.

Engagement with educational outreach requires understanding the current state of curricula and the validity of top-down outreach. In Texas, for example, state education interaction is highly political, and the means of revision is slow and difficult (Mayes et al. 2021). As a result, engaging with top-down outreach methods is unlikely to be productive, and archaeologists should consider locally-based outreach methods if they seek more immediate effect. In California, sustained work with top-down outreach may be more effective than in other states because the FAIR Act's effect on existing curricula allows for a better foundation to expand into the discussion of injustice. Furthermore, the more detailed nature of Californian standards could allow for more space for outreach to modify curricula and classroom suggestions/examples than the limited nature of other state standards. In content-neutral states like Alaska, targeted outreach is better applied at a local or district level, as the state standards have little effect on the specific content chosen. Outreach towards the established level at which detailed curricula are written should be prioritized.

The existing work that archaeologists engage with regarding outreach should be maintained and built upon. Local outreach and case-study-based outreach remain effective strategies for engaging with classroom environments and can more easily avoid the political processes inherent in educational standard revision. Top-down outreach and curricula revision should remain a goal for outreach, but archaeologists must understand the difficulty inherent in this method of engagement and tailor their strategies to suit state and local variation.

Beyond the United States

Close study of US curricula in this thesis has revealed a gap between the representation of archaeology in the profession and its visibility in state educational curricula. Rather than use archaeology to sustain critical perspectives on local and regional history, state curricula often selectively apply and omit archaeological material to suit the narrative interests of their courses. The role of educational spaces as critical environments for social reproduction means that what is and isn't taught in schools significantly impacts a generation's outlook on national history and the formation of national identity. As a result, archaeology plays a role in constructing certain periods of history into national identities at the expense of many others. In the US, the preference

for popular and classical archaeology serves to aid the construction of American patriotism, further the image of the egalitarian nature of American ideals, and reinforce hegemonic means of sociopolitical participation (Watts 2021). This results from the absence of archaeologies of injustice and local, community, and state archaeology (particularly Indigenous), which is generally absent from state curricula (except in states with a notably high percentage of Indigenous residents, like Alaska).

Archaeology's impact on the social reproduction of national identities through educational environments is not exclusive to US contexts. Each nation's education system perceives archaeology differently and assigns different values to certain periods, resulting in unique uses of archaeological material between national education systems. In many instances, the prevalence of archaeological material coincides with important periods of national history or historical periods of perceived power. The UK national curriculum, for example, focuses on the British Iron Age, Roman, Anglo-Saxon, and Scot periods of archaeology, with a distinct focus on sites within the UK (Department of Education 2013). These periods connect directly to periods closely associated with modern national identity (origins of the nation) and strength. Extensive discussion of these periods often comes at the expense of detailed discussion of historical archaeology and archaeologies of imperialism.

An important distinction to make when studying the use of archaeology in curricula is to evaluate whose archaeology is being taught. The UK is incredibly diverse and multicultural. Yet in the state curricula, the course focuses on Roman and Anglo-Saxon archaeology as primary vehicles for using archaeology in constructing national identity (Department of Education 2013). What effect do these choices have? What do these curriculum choices teach student generations about what it means to be (and who is) British? How do these impact current sociopolitical conditions? How does the absence of critical and world archaeology affect student identity and self-perception? These questions are not exclusive to English-speaking environments. In Sweden, for example, the Stone Age plays an important role in forming national identity and appears in school curricula, printed money, and state iconography (Facos 1998, Emilsson 2009). A significant focus on this period coincides with perceived periods of national strength and identity (Elmersjö 2016, Edman 2016). Like the US curricula, a focus on these periods in Swedish standards could come at the expense of constructing other archaeologies. As such, significant implications may emerge over archaeology's effects on the reproduction of Swedish

national identity in educational environments. These questions demonstrate the need for archaeologists to continue to study and engage with educational environments.

Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research

This paper has evaluated the use of archaeology in public school curricula and described its role in reproducing sociopolitical injustice in educational spaces. This paper's significant focus has been on evaluating the implicit and explicit goals of curricula and state standards, which form the working basis from which teachers model their classes and standardized examinations are written. School systems and curricula are complicated, especially in a federalist system like the US (Heineman 2016, Heise 2006, Pelsue 2017, Pinder 2010). Given the broad scope of this paper and the complex nature of educational systems, some compromises in the research design have been made to inform the results better. Only a select number of states have been chosen for close study. These states represent many common features of US state standards and engagement approaches- politically written, regional, and with varying degrees of specificity. Many of these conclusions from a close study of each state are easily extended to states across the US, as can potential means of outreach. However, variations dependent on politics, location, and other factors make every state unique, so archaeologists should work to understand the educational conditions of the state they work in when evaluating outreach opportunities.

This paper has also sought to understand the basic student experience when going through state social studies courses. As such, this paper has focused predominantly on standard-level history courses that are mandatory for graduation in each chosen state. Variations in students' perception of archaeology and how historical beliefs reproduce may vary from this general experience in many ways. Students may encounter more critically based standards and standards that better represent historical diversity injustice in social studies elective courses (such as the Californian and Texan ethnic studies courses). Additionally, students may enroll in special programs written by national third-party educational groups, such as the College Board's Advanced Placement courses. These courses are opt-in and more advanced than the standardized classroom, so assuming the average American student will encounter these perspectives is irresponsible. It is likely that those of higher socioeconomic status are overrepresented in the enrollment of advanced courses involving greater historical complexity such as AP courses than

their distribution in typical standard courses. This paper has detailed how state curricula in standard classroom environments often work to reinforce privilege, but it would be useful if further studies by archaeologists investigated how access to archaeological material in the classroom was determined by class and socioeconomic ability.

Additional research on the effectiveness of archaeology as a tool for justice in low-level and local interactions would also better inform professional archaeologists of their options when considering optimal outreach strategies. Teachers still have much freedom in how they structure their classroom material, so variation in pedagogy could result in very different manifestations of curricula in the same state. This paper's focus on evaluating many course standards and curricula has come at the cost of having time to investigate the interaction between standards and teachers in praxis fully. The location of the study and time constraints compounded these issues. Archaeology and its role in the classroom remain under-researched by professional archaeologists. Additional research should seek to understand the relationship between course standards and classrooms to understand the translation process between concept and class environment or extend the bounds of the study to engage in an international comparative perspective.

Chapter 7: Conclusion

Archaeology as a profession is as much related to the present as it is to the past. Modern archeological academia is funded under the assumption of social utility (Niklasson 2013). Archeological material and excavations are implicitly and explicitly tied to sociocultural and political changes. Across the profession, outreach methods have often failed to keep pace with the continuously evolving nature of the field. Despite calls to action for politically motivated archaeology and archaeology to be used as a tool for social justice, disseminating archaeological material to the greater public often reverts to outdated, reductive headlines and concepts (Hotorf 2007, 2013).

Significant gaps often exist between national perceptions of archaeology in the greater public and the work of archaeological professionals. Archaeology plays a vital role in nation-building. The US often highlights and constructs connections between its utopian founding principles and ancient Greece and Rome through iconography, architecture, and education. The Stone and Viking ages are emphasized in the consciousness of Scandinavia through increased focus in schools and museums and its prominence in national iconography. The choices of popular archeology often do not reflect the nuance of modern archaeological research and come at the expense of the erasure of other histories. In the US, focus on classical archaeology often comes at the expense of the visibility of indigenous archaeology outside of local settings. In Sweden, focus on Stone and Viking Age archaeology could come at the expense of global archaeology. Representations of the past are directly related to the reproduction of modern injustice. This thesis has demonstrated how the absence of critical and representative archaeology in US educational contexts works to further a revisionist and hegemonic worldview that reproduces structures of oppression (Chi et al. 2019, Toure et al. 2021, Wistrich 2022, Wagner 2012).

Schools exist as microcosms of larger societies. They provide students with the skills needed to function in said society, teach them norms of participation in hegemonic systems, and educate them about content deemed permissible and necessary (Mayo 2015). School environments and educational policies are incredibly complex. It is often as difficult to adequately address fundamental issues of educational systems as it is to address the fundamental issues of nations and societies. Educational spaces are constantly revised through their interaction with passing generations and their place in a larger sociocultural context. Despite the

constant evolution of classroom-level education, the rate of change in school curricula and policy is often slow. The slow process of educational policy evolution often results in gaps between the sociocultural needs of society and the ‘model citizen’ of academic standards. Even when nations work to rewrite curricula, they often still produce academic standards that seek to reproduce cultural hegemony (Jay 2003, Bernstein 2000, Beck 2013).

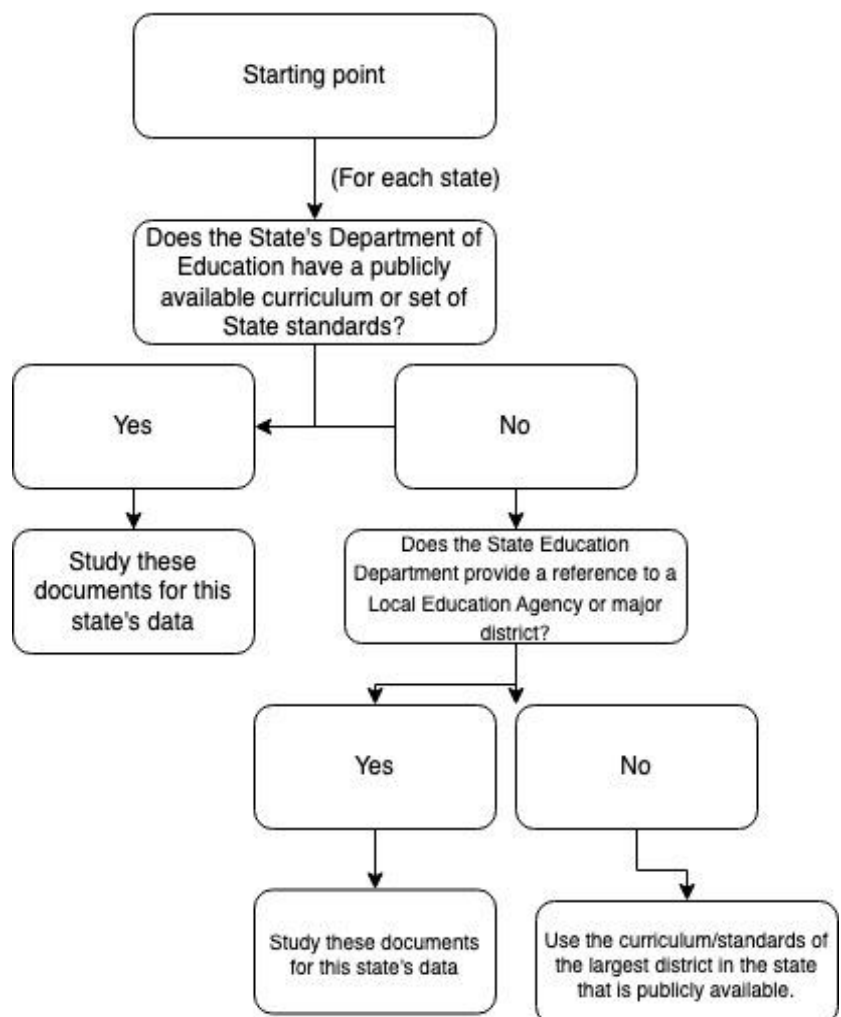
This thesis has demonstrated that the standards of mandatory coursework often do not change based on changing demographical or social contexts; they change to reflect ideals of state and civil participation (Bernstein 2000). In Texas, these standards prioritize constructing a continuous history of whiteness and privilege at the expense of significant discussion of the legacy US as a settler colonial state or its history as an immigrant nation. In Scandinavian courses, extensive time is dedicated to detailing the region's archaeology and connecting past societies to modern countries (originally intended to encourage patriotism) (Trigger 1984, Segerholm 2003, Rosenlund 2018, Ledman 2014, Nordgren 2016). The discussion of constructed archaeological continuities without significant discussion of historical injustice and diversity prioritizes histories of privilege and allows for the political hijacking of archaeological narratives- contrasting the ‘great’ past of a nation to its modern self without a significant discussion of historical injustice and diversity allows for the reproduction of privilege, injustice, and xenophobia.

The active revision of archaeological perspectives to become critically and politically oriented must include changes in how archaeologists conduct outreach. Previous archaeological research has worked to combat the reproduction of colonial perspectives in university education, but more work must be done to address archaeology’s role in the reproduction of injustice in public education (Hamilakis 2004 Atalay 2006 Breunig 2009). Schools and educational spaces play essential roles in the generational reproduction of hegemony, social norms, and sociopolitical inequality (Blasko 2003, Bogotoch 2002, Eccles and Roester 2011). Critical analysis of school curricula reveals the use of outdated and limited archaeological material that fails to adequately address current sociopolitical needs. Sustained efforts to encourage critical perspectives in the classroom using archaeology must be considered part of politically oriented social outreach. This thesis has described the gaps between professional archaeology and the use of archaeology in state curricula. Engagement with top-down outreach methods by archaeologists can help reshape curricula to better represent historical injustice in the classroom,

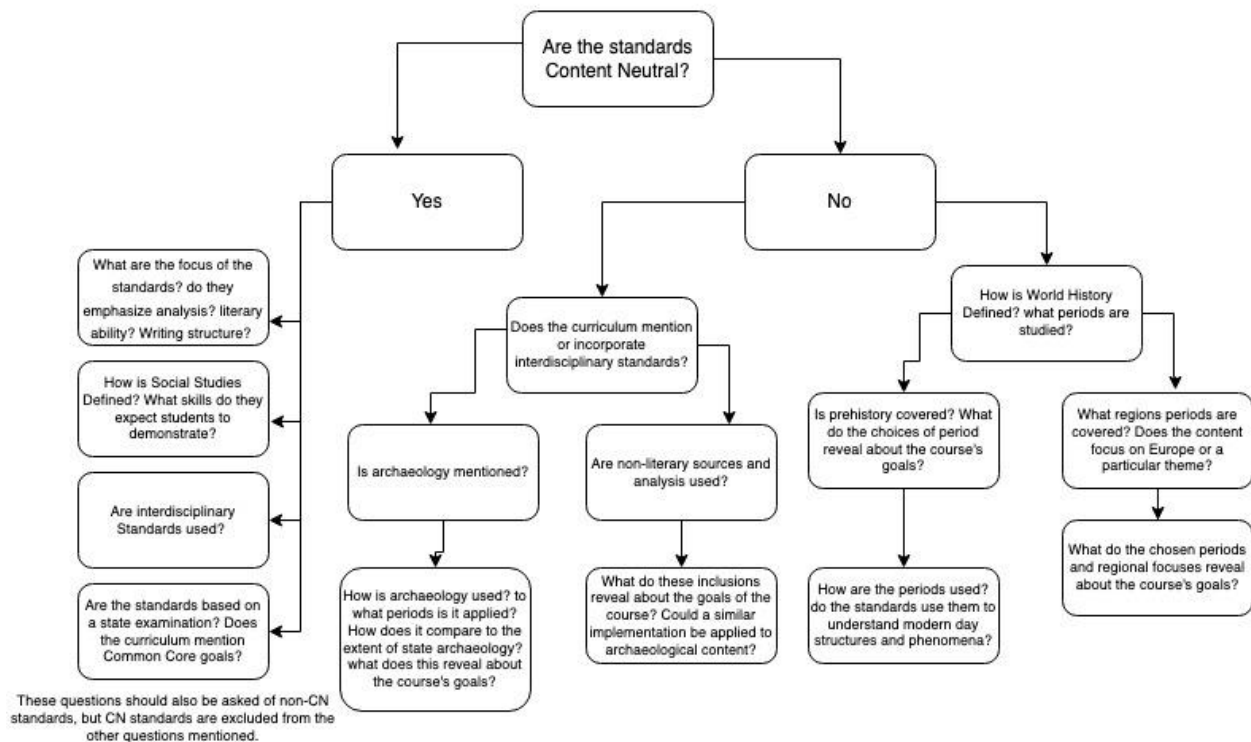
but archaeologists must understand the complexity and political nature of school environments to orient their efforts for the greatest effectiveness.

Appendix I: Methodology Illustrations

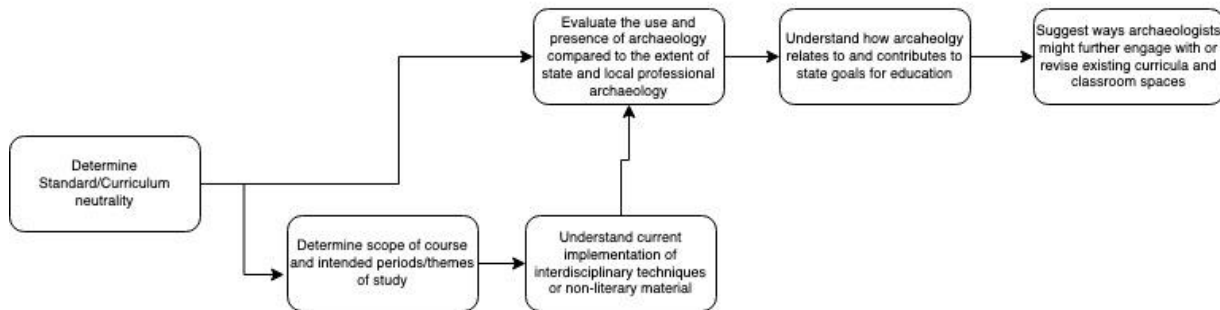
Selection Process for Curricula and Standards



Analytical Approach for Curriculum/Standards



Analytical Workflow



Appendix II: Selected Pages, Texas Curricula

The entirety of the Texas high school social studies curricula is available online and can be found here:

Texas Education Agency. 2018. Chapter 113: Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills for Social Studies Subchapter C. High School. Texas Education Agency. Available at: <https://tea.texas.gov/sites/default/files/ch113c.pdf>.

Below are a few excerpts of important sections of the curricula used in this thesis.

§113.41. United States History Studies Since 1877 (One Credit), Adopted 2018.

- (a) General requirements. Students shall be awarded one unit of credit for successful completion of this course.
- (b) Introduction.
 - (1) In United States History Studies Since 1877, which is the second part of a two-year study that begins in Grade 8, students study the history of the United States from 1877 to the present. The course content is based on the founding documents of the U.S. government, which provide a framework for its heritage. Historical content focuses on the political, economic, and social events and issues related to industrialization and urbanization, major wars, domestic and foreign policies, and reform movements, including civil rights. Students examine the impact of geographic factors on major events and eras and analyze their causes and effects. Students examine the impact of constitutional issues on American society, evaluate the dynamic relationship of the three branches of the federal government, and analyze efforts to expand the democratic process. Students describe the relationship between the arts and popular culture and the times during which they were created. Students analyze the impact of technological innovations on American life. Students use critical-thinking skills and a variety of primary and secondary source material to explain and apply different methods that historians use to understand and interpret the past, including multiple points of view and historical context.
 - (2) To support the teaching of the essential knowledge and skills, the use of a variety of rich primary and secondary source material such as biographies, autobiographies, landmark cases of the U.S. Supreme Court, novels, speeches, letters, diaries, poetry, songs, and artworks is encouraged. Motivating resources are available from museums, historical sites, presidential libraries, and local and state preservation societies.
 - (3) The eight strands of the essential knowledge and skills for social studies are intended to be integrated for instructional purposes. Skills listed in the social studies skills strand in subsection (c) of this section should be incorporated into the teaching of all essential knowledge and skills for social studies. A greater depth of understanding of complex content material can be attained when integrated social studies content from the various disciplines and critical-thinking skills are taught together. Statements that contain the word "including" reference content that must be mastered, while those containing the phrase "such as" are intended as possible illustrative examples.
 - (4) Students identify the role of the U.S. free enterprise system within the parameters of this course and understand that this system may also be referenced as capitalism or the free market system.
 - (5) Throughout social studies in Kindergarten-Grade 12, students build a foundation in history; geography; economics; government; citizenship; culture; science, technology, and society; and social studies skills. The content, as appropriate for the grade level or course, enables students to understand the importance of patriotism, function in a free enterprise society, and appreciate the basic democratic values of our state and nation as referenced in the Texas Education Code (TEC), §28.002(h).
 - (6) Students understand that a constitutional republic is a representative form of government whose representatives derive their authority from the consent of the governed, serve for an established tenure, and are sworn to uphold the constitution.

- (7) State and federal laws mandate a variety of celebrations and observances, including Celebrate Freedom Week.
- (A) Each social studies class shall include, during Celebrate Freedom Week as provided under the TEC, §29.907, or during another full school week as determined by the board of trustees of a school district, appropriate instruction concerning the intent, meaning, and importance of the Declaration of Independence and the U.S. Constitution, including the Bill of Rights, in their historical contexts. The study of the Declaration of Independence must include the study of the relationship of the ideas expressed in that document to subsequent American history, including the relationship of its ideas to the rich diversity of our people as a nation of immigrants, the American Revolution, the formulation of the U.S. Constitution, and the abolitionist movement, which led to the Emancipation Proclamation and the women's suffrage movement.
- (B) Each school district shall require that, during Celebrate Freedom Week or other week of instruction prescribed under subparagraph (A) of this paragraph, students in Grades 3-12 study and recite the following text from the Declaration of Independence: "We hold these Truths to be self-evident, that all Men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty and the Pursuit of Happiness--That to secure these Rights, Governments are instituted among Men, deriving their just Powers from the Consent of the Governed."
- (8) Students discuss how and whether the actions of U.S. citizens and the local, state, and federal governments have achieved the ideals espoused in the founding documents.
- (c) Knowledge and skills.
- (1) History. The student understands the principles included in the Celebrate Freedom Week program. The student is expected to:
- (A) analyze and evaluate the text, intent, meaning, and importance of the Declaration of Independence and the U.S. Constitution, including the Bill of Rights;
- (B) analyze and evaluate the application of these founding principles to historical events in U.S. history; and
- (C) explain the meaning and historical significance of the mottos "E Pluribus Unum" and "In God We Trust."
- (2) History. The student understands traditional historical points of reference in U.S. history from 1877 to the present. The student is expected to:
- (A) identify the major eras in U.S. history from 1877 to the present and describe their defining characteristics; and
- (B) explain the significance of the following years as turning points: 1898 (Spanish-American War), 1914-1918 (World War I), 1929 (the Great Depression begins), 1939-1945 (World War II), 1957 (Sputnik launch ignites U.S.-Soviet space race), 1968 (Martin Luther King Jr. assassination), 1969 (U.S. lands on the moon), 1991 (Cold War ends), 2001 (terrorist attacks on World Trade Center and the Pentagon), and 2008 (election of first black president, Barack Obama).
- (3) History. The student understands the political, economic, and social changes in the United States from 1877 to 1898. The student is expected to:
- (A) analyze political issues such as Indian policies, the growth of political machines, and civil service reform;
- (B) analyze economic issues such as industrialization, the growth of railroads, the growth of labor unions, farm issues, the cattle industry boom, the growth of entrepreneurship, and the pros and cons of big business; and

- (C) analyze social issues affecting women, minorities, children, immigrants, and urbanization.
- (4) History. The student understands the emergence of the United States as a world power between 1898 and 1920. The student is expected to:
- (A) explain why significant events, policies, and individuals, including the Spanish-American War, U.S. expansionism, Alfred Thayer Mahan, Theodore Roosevelt, and Sanford B. Dole moved the United States into the position of a world power;
 - (B) evaluate American expansionism, including acquisitions such as Guam, Hawaii, the Philippines, and Puerto Rico;
 - (C) identify the causes of World War I and reasons for U.S. entry;
 - (D) understand the contributions of the American Expeditionary Forces (AEF) led by General John J. Pershing, including the Battle of Argonne Forest;
 - (E) analyze the impact of machine guns, airplanes, tanks, poison gas, and trench warfare as significant technological innovations in World War I on the Western Front; and
 - (F) analyze major issues raised by U.S. involvement in World War I, including isolationism, neutrality, Woodrow Wilson's Fourteen Points, and the Treaty of Versailles.
- (5) History. The student understands the effects of reform and third-party movements in the early 20th century. The student is expected to:
- (A) analyze the impact of Progressive Era reforms, including initiative, referendum, recall, and the passage of the 16th, 17th, 18th, and 19th amendments;
 - (B) evaluate the impact of muckrakers and reform leaders such as Upton Sinclair, Susan B. Anthony, Jane Addams, Ida B. Wells, and W. E. B. DuBois on American society; and
 - (C) analyze the impact of third parties, including the Populist and Progressive parties.
- (6) History. The student understands significant events, social issues, and individuals of the 1920s. The student is expected to:
- (A) analyze causes and effects of events and social issues such as immigration, Social Darwinism, the Scopes Trial, eugenics, race relations, nativism, the Red Scare, Prohibition, and the changing role of women; and
 - (B) analyze the impact of significant individuals such as Henry Ford, Marcus Garvey, and Charles A. Lindbergh.
- (7) History. The student understands the domestic and international impact of U.S. participation in World War II. The student is expected to:
- (A) identify reasons for U.S. involvement in World War II, including the aggression of Italian, German, and Japanese dictatorships, especially the attack on Pearl Harbor;
 - (B) evaluate the domestic and international leadership of Franklin D. Roosevelt and Harry Truman during World War II, including the U.S. relationship with its allies;
 - (C) analyze major issues of World War II, including the Holocaust, the internment of Japanese Americans as a result of Executive Order 9066, and the development of atomic weapons;
 - (D) analyze major military events of World War II, including fighting the war on multiple fronts, the Bataan Death March, the U.S. military advancement through the Pacific Islands, the Battle of Midway, the invasion of Normandy, and the liberation of concentration camps;
 - (E) describe the military contributions of leaders during World War II, including Dwight Eisenhower, Douglas MacArthur, and Chester W. Nimitz;

- (F) explain issues affecting the home front, including volunteerism, the purchase of war bonds, and Victory Gardens and opportunities and obstacles for women and ethnic minorities; and
 - (G) explain how American patriotism inspired high levels of military enlistment and the bravery and contributions of the Tuskegee Airmen, the Flying Tigers, and the Navajo Code Talkers.
- (8) History. The student understands the impact of significant national and international decisions and conflicts in the Cold War on the United States. The student is expected to:
- (A) describe U.S. responses to Soviet aggression after World War II, including the Truman Doctrine, the Marshall Plan, the Berlin Airlift, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, and John F. Kennedy's role in the Cuban Missile Crisis;
 - (B) describe how Cold War tensions were intensified by the House Un-American Activities Committee (HUAC), McCarthyism, the arms race, and the space race;
 - (C) explain reasons and outcomes for U.S. involvement in the Korean War and its relationship to the containment policy;
 - (D) explain reasons and outcomes for U.S. involvement in foreign countries and their relationship to the Domino Theory, including the Vietnam War;
 - (E) analyze the major events of the Vietnam War, including the escalation of forces, the Tet Offensive, Vietnamization, and the fall of Saigon; and
 - (F) describe the responses to the Vietnam War such as the draft, the 26th Amendment, the role of the media, the credibility gap, the silent majority, and the anti-war movement.
- (9) History. The student understands the impact of the American civil rights movement. The student is expected to:
- (A) trace the historical development of the civil rights movement from the late 1800s through the 21st century, including the 13th, 14th, 15th, and 19th amendments;
 - (B) explain how Jim Crow laws and the Ku Klux Klan created obstacles to civil rights for minorities such as the suppression of voting;
 - (C) describe the roles of political organizations that promoted African American, Chicano, American Indian, and women's civil rights;
 - (D) identify the roles of significant leaders who supported various rights movements, including Martin Luther King Jr., Cesar Chavez, Dolores Huerta, Rosa Parks, and Betty Friedan;
 - (E) compare and contrast the approach taken by the Black Panthers with the nonviolent approach of Martin Luther King Jr.;
 - (F) discuss the impact of the writings of Martin Luther King Jr. such as his "I Have a Dream" speech and "Letter from Birmingham Jail" on the civil rights movement;
 - (G) describe presidential actions and congressional votes to address minority rights in the United States, including desegregation of the armed forces, the Civil Rights Act of 1964, and the Voting Rights Act of 1965;
 - (H) explain how George Wallace, Orval Faubus, and the Congressional bloc of southern Democrats sought to maintain the status quo;
 - (I) evaluate changes in the United States that have resulted from the civil rights movement, including increased participation of minorities in the political process; and
 - (J) describe how *Sweatt v. Painter* and *Brown v. Board of Education* played a role in protecting the rights of the minority during the civil rights movement.

High School

§113.C.

- (C) apply the process of historical inquiry to research, interpret, and use multiple types of sources of evidence;
 - (D) evaluate the validity of a source based on corroboration with other sources and information about the author, including points of view, frames of reference, and historical context; and
 - (E) identify bias and support with historical evidence a point of view on a social studies issue or event.
- (29) Social studies skills. The student communicates in written, oral, and visual forms. The student is expected to:
- (A) create written, oral, and visual presentations of social studies information using effective communication skills, including proper citations and avoiding plagiarism; and
 - (B) use social studies terminology correctly.
- (30) Social studies skills. The student uses geographic tools to collect, analyze, and interpret data. The student is expected to:
- (A) create a visual representation of historical information such as thematic maps, graphs, and charts; and
 - (B) pose and answer questions about geographic distributions and patterns shown on maps, graphs, charts, and available databases.
- (31) Social studies skills. The student uses problem-solving and decision-making skills, working independently and with others. The student is expected to use problem-solving and decision-making processes to identify a problem, gather information, list and consider options, consider advantages and disadvantages, choose and implement a solution, and evaluate the effectiveness of the solution.

§113.42. World History Studies (One Credit), Adopted 2018.

- (a) General requirements. Students shall be awarded one unit of credit for successful completion of this course.
- (b) Introduction.
 - (1) World History Studies is a survey of the history of humankind. Due to the expanse of world history and the time limitations of the school year, the scope of this course should focus on "essential" concepts and skills that can be applied to various eras, events, and people within the standards in subsection (c) of this section. The major emphasis is on the study of significant people, events, and issues from the earliest times to the present. Traditional historical points of reference in world history are identified as students analyze important events and issues in western civilization as well as in civilizations in other parts of the world. Students evaluate the causes and effects of political and economic imperialism and of major political revolutions since the 17th century. Students examine the impact of geographic factors on major historic events and identify the historic origins of contemporary economic systems. Students analyze the process by which constitutional governments evolved as well as the ideas from historic documents that influenced that process. Students trace the historical development of important legal and political concepts. Students examine the history and impact of major religious and philosophical traditions. Students analyze the connections between major developments in science and technology and the growth of industrial economies, and they use the process of historical inquiry to research, interpret, and use multiple sources of evidence.
 - (2) The following periodization should serve as the framework for the organization of this course: 8000 BC-500 BC (Development of River Valley Civilizations); 500 BC-AD 600 (Classical Era); 600-1450 (Post-classical Era); 1450-1750 (Connecting Hemispheres); 1750-1914 (Age of

High School

§113.C.

Revolutions); and 1914-present (20th Century to the Present). Specific events and processes may transcend these chronological boundaries.

- (3) To support the teaching of the essential knowledge and skills, the use of a variety of rich primary and secondary source material such as state papers, legal documents, charters, constitutions, biographies, autobiographies, speeches, letters, literature, music, art, and architecture is encouraged. Motivating resources are available from museums, art galleries, and historical sites.
 - (4) The eight strands of the essential knowledge and skills for social studies are intended to be integrated for instructional purposes. Skills listed in the social studies skills strand in subsection (c) of this section should be incorporated into the teaching of all essential knowledge and skills for social studies.
 - (5) A greater depth of understanding of complex content material can be attained by integrating social studies content and skills and by analyzing connections between and among historical periods and events. The list of events and people in this course curriculum should not be considered exhaustive. Additional examples can and should be incorporated. Statements that contain the word "including" reference content that must be mastered, while those containing the phrase "such as" are intended as possible illustrative examples.
 - (6) Students identify the role of the U.S. free enterprise system within the parameters of this course and understand that this system may also be referenced as capitalism or the free market system.
 - (7) Throughout social studies in Kindergarten-Grade 12, students build a foundation in history; geography; economics; government; citizenship; culture; science, technology, and society; and social studies skills. The content, as appropriate for the grade level or course, enables students to understand the importance of patriotism, function in a free enterprise society, and appreciate the basic democratic values of our state and nation, as referenced in the Texas Education Code (TEC), §28.002(h).
 - (8) Students understand that a constitutional republic is a representative form of government whose representatives derive their authority from the consent of the governed, serve for an established tenure, and are sworn to uphold the constitution.
 - (9) State and federal laws mandate a variety of celebrations and observances, including Celebrate Freedom Week.
 - (A) Each social studies class shall include, during Celebrate Freedom Week as provided under the TEC, §29.907, or during another full school week as determined by the board of trustees of a school district, appropriate instruction concerning the intent, meaning, and importance of the Declaration of Independence and the U.S. Constitution, including the Bill of Rights, in their historical contexts. The study of the Declaration of Independence must include the study of the relationship of the ideas expressed in that document to subsequent American history, including the relationship of its ideas to the rich diversity of our people as a nation of immigrants, the American Revolution, the formulation of the U.S. Constitution, and the abolitionist movement, which led to the Emancipation Proclamation and the women's suffrage movement.
 - (B) Each school district shall require that, during Celebrate Freedom Week or other week of instruction prescribed under subparagraph (A) of this paragraph, students in Grades 3-12 study and recite the following text from the Declaration of Independence: "We hold these Truths to be self-evident, that all Men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty and the Pursuit of Happiness--That to secure these Rights, Governments are instituted among Men, deriving their just Powers from the Consent of the Governed."
 - (10) Students discuss how and whether the actions of U.S. citizens and the local, state, and federal governments have achieved the ideals espoused in the founding documents.
- (c) Knowledge and skills.

- (1) History. The student understands traditional historical points of reference in world history. The student is expected to:
 - (A) identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following events from 8000 BC to 500 BC: the development of agriculture and the development of the river valley civilizations;
 - (B) identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following events from 500 BC to AD 600: the development of the classical civilizations of Greece, Rome, Persia, India (Maurya and Gupta), China (Zhou, Qin, and Han), and the development of major world religions;
 - (C) identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following important turning points in world history from 600 to 1450: the spread of major world religions and their impact on Asia, Africa, and Europe and the Mongol invasions and their impact on Europe, China, India, and Southwest Asia;
 - (D) identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following important turning points in world history from 1450 to 1750: the rise of the Ottoman Empire, the influence of the Ming dynasty on world trade, European exploration and the Columbian Exchange, European expansion, and the Renaissance and the Reformation;
 - (E) identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following important turning points in world history from 1750 to 1914: the Scientific Revolution, the Industrial Revolution and its impact on the development of modern economic systems, European imperialism, and the Enlightenment's impact on political revolutions; and
 - (F) identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following important turning points in world history from 1914 to the present: the world wars and their impact on political, economic, and social systems; communist revolutions and their impact on the Cold War; independence movements; and globalization.
- (2) History. The student understands how early civilizations developed from 8000 BC to 500 BC. The student is expected to:
 - (A) summarize the impact of the development of farming (Neolithic Revolution) on the creation of river valley civilizations;
 - (B) identify the characteristics of civilization; and
 - (C) explain how major river valley civilizations influenced the development of the classical civilizations.
- (3) History. The student understands the contributions and influence of classical civilizations from 500 BC to AD 600 on subsequent civilizations. The student is expected to:
 - (A) describe the major political, religious/philosophical, and cultural influences of Persia, India, China, Israel, Greece, and Rome;
 - (B) explain the impact of the fall of Rome on Western Europe; and
 - (C) compare the factors that led to the collapse of Rome and Han China.
- (4) History. The student understands how, after the collapse of classical empires, new political, economic, and social systems evolved and expanded from 600 to 1450. The student is expected to:
 - (A) explain the development of Roman Catholicism and Eastern Orthodoxy as social and political factors in medieval Europe and the Byzantine Empire;
 - (B) describe the major characteristics of and the factors contributing to the development of the political/social system of feudalism and the economic system of manorialism;
 - (C) explain the political, economic, and social impact of Islam on Europe, Asia, and Africa;

- (D) describe the interactions among Muslim, Christian, and Jewish societies in Europe, Asia, and North Africa;
 - (E) describe the interactions between Muslim and Hindu societies in South Asia;
 - (F) explain how the Crusades, the Black Death, and the Hundred Years' War contributed to the end of medieval Europe;
 - (G) summarize the major political, economic, and cultural developments in Tang and Song China and their impact on Eastern Asia;
 - (H) explain the evolution and expansion of the slave trade;
 - (I) analyze how the Silk Road and the African gold-salt trade facilitated the spread of ideas and trade; and
 - (J) summarize the changes resulting from the Mongol invasions of Russia, China, and the Islamic world.
- (5) History. The student understands the causes, characteristics, and impact of the European Renaissance and the Reformation from 1450 to 1750. The student is expected to:
- (A) explain the political, intellectual, artistic, economic, and religious impact of the Renaissance; and
 - (B) explain the political, intellectual, artistic, economic, and religious impact of the Reformation.
- (6) History. The student understands the characteristics and impact of the Maya, Inca, and Aztec civilizations. The student is expected to:
- (A) compare the major political, economic, social, and cultural developments of the Maya, Inca, and Aztec civilizations and explain how prior civilizations influenced their development; and
 - (B) explain how the Inca and Aztec empires were impacted by European exploration/colonization.
- (7) History. The student understands the causes and impact of increased global interaction from 1450 to 1750. The student is expected to:
- (A) analyze the causes of European expansion from 1450 to 1750;
 - (B) explain the impact of the Columbian Exchange;
 - (C) explain the impact of the Atlantic slave trade on West Africa and the Americas;
 - (D) explain the impact of the Ottoman Empire on Eastern Europe and global trade;
 - (E) explain Ming China's impact on global trade; and
 - (F) explain new economic factors and principles of Europe's Commercial Revolution.
- (8) History. The student understands the causes and the global impact of the Industrial Revolution and European imperialism from 1750 to 1914. The student is expected to:
- (A) explain how the Industrial Revolution led to political, economic, and social changes;
 - (B) identify the major political, economic, and social motivations that influenced European imperialism;
 - (C) explain the major characteristics and impact of European imperialism; and
 - (D) explain the effects of free enterprise in the Industrial Revolution.
- (9) History. The student understands the causes and effects of major political revolutions between 1750 and 1914. The student is expected to:

- (B) describe the major influences of women during major eras of world history such as Elizabeth I, Queen Victoria, Mother Teresa, Indira Gandhi, Margaret Thatcher, and Golda Meir.
- (24) Culture. The student understands how the development of ideas has influenced institutions and societies. The student is expected to:
- (A) summarize the fundamental ideas and institutions of Eastern civilizations that originated in China and India;
 - (B) summarize the fundamental ideas and institutions of Western civilizations that originated in Greece and Rome;
 - (C) explain how the relationship between Christianity and Humanism that began with the Renaissance influenced subsequent political developments; and
 - (D) explain how geopolitical and religious influences have impacted law and government in the Muslim world.
- (25) Culture. The student understands the relationship between the arts and the times during which they were created. The student is expected to:
- (A) analyze examples of how art, architecture, literature, music, and drama reflect the history of the cultures in which they are produced; and
 - (B) describe examples of art, music, and literature that transcend the cultures in which they were created and convey universal themes.
- (26) Science, technology, and society. The student understands how major scientific and mathematical discoveries and technological innovations affected societies prior to 1750. The student is expected to:
- (A) identify the origin and diffusion of major ideas in mathematics, science, and technology that occurred in river valley civilizations, classical Greece and Rome, classical India, the Islamic caliphates between 700 and 1200, and China from the Tang to Ming dynasties;
 - (B) summarize the major ideas in astronomy, mathematics, and architectural engineering that developed in the Maya, Inca, and Aztec civilizations;
 - (C) explain the impact of the printing press on the Renaissance and the Reformation in Europe;
 - (D) describe the origins of the Scientific Revolution in 16th century Europe and explain its impact on scientific thinking worldwide; and
 - (E) identify the contributions of significant scientists such as Archimedes, Copernicus, Eratosthenes, Galileo, Pythagoras, Isaac Newton, and Robert Boyle.
- (27) Science, technology, and society. The student understands how major scientific and mathematical discoveries and technological innovations have affected societies from 1750 to the present. The student is expected to:
- (A) explain the role of textile manufacturing, steam technology, development of the factory system, and transportation technology in the Industrial Revolution;
 - (B) explain the roles of military technology, transportation technology, communication technology, and medical advancements in initiating and advancing 19th century imperialism;
 - (C) explain the effects of major new military technologies on World War I, World War II, and the Cold War;
 - (D) explain the role of telecommunication technology, computer technology, transportation technology, and medical advancements in developing the modern global economy and society; and

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- (E) identify the contributions of significant scientists and inventors such as Marie Curie, Thomas Edison, Albert Einstein, Louis Pasteur, and James Watt.
- (28) Social studies skills. The student understands how historians use historiography to interpret the past and applies critical-thinking skills to organize and use information acquired from a variety of valid sources, including technology. The student is expected to:
- (A) identify methods used by archaeologists, anthropologists, historians, and geographers to analyze evidence;
 - (B) explain how historians analyze sources for frame of reference, historical context, and point of view to interpret historical events;
 - (C) analyze primary and secondary sources to determine frame of reference, historical context, and point of view;
 - (D) evaluate the validity of a source based on bias, corroboration with other sources, and information about the author;
 - (E) analyze information by sequencing, categorizing, identifying cause-and-effect relationships, comparing, contrasting, finding the main idea, summarizing, making generalizations and predictions, drawing inferences and conclusions, and developing connections between historical events over time; and
 - (F) construct a thesis on a social studies issue or event supported by evidence.
- (29) Social studies skills. The student uses geographic skills and tools to collect, analyze, and interpret data. The student is expected to:
- (A) create and interpret thematic maps, graphs, and charts to demonstrate the relationship between geography and the historical development of a region or nation; and
 - (B) analyze and compare geographic distributions and patterns in world history shown on maps, graphs, charts, and models.
- (30) Social studies skills. The student communicates in written, oral, and visual forms. The student is expected to:
- (A) use social studies terminology correctly;
 - (B) use effective written communication skills, including proper citations and avoiding plagiarism; and
 - (C) interpret and create written, oral, and visual presentations of social studies information.
- (31) Social studies skills. The student uses problem-solving and decision-making skills, working independently and with others. The student is expected to use problem-solving and decision-making processes to identify a problem, gather information, list and consider options, consider advantages and disadvantages, choose and implement a solution, and evaluate the effectiveness of the solution.

Appendix III: Selected Pages, California Curricula

Like Texas, Californian standards are available to the public online. However, these websites are primarily intended for domestic use, and the sites do not work from international locations without the use of a VPN. As such, the excerpts provided are more extensive, and the Californian standards used are longer in general when compared to Texas (~150 pages vs ~60). These websites are available internationally via use of the Internet Archive, and access is provided via the citations below.

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Content

The California curriculum framework incorporates new scholarship and recent state mandates such as the Fair, Accurate, Inclusive, and Respectful (FAIR) Act. The course descriptions for grades nine through twelve have been completely rewritten to tell a story that reflects the contributions of many diverse groups to the development of California and the United States.

Inquiry

This framework is rooted in a strong emphasis on student inquiry. The goal is not just to tell students **about** history–social science but to teach them the skills to **do** history–social science. The framework calls upon students to conduct research (both guided and independent), evaluate primary and secondary sources, develop arguments, and make presentations.

Literacy

The framework views the development of student literacy as a shared enterprise within all content areas. The curriculum includes an emphasis on giving all students access to the academic vocabulary and skills necessary for success in college, careers, and civic life.

Citizenship

The history–social science curriculum places a strong emphasis on democratic values in the relations between citizens and the state. It encourages teachers to help their students practice the skills of engaged citizenship.

The eighteenth century witnessed the development of two revolutionary trends that ultimately influenced the world in ways that are still felt today: political and industrial revolutions. Before students learn about the on-the-ground experiences and consequences of these two revolutions, they should learn about the ideas that gave rise to them.

Revolutionary political ideals were rooted in notions of Athenian democracy, English constitutional laws, the Enlightenment, and other traditions of European political thought, and they emphasize the rule of law, reason, individual rights, republicanism, and citizenship. These concepts are abstract, and the primary sources that illustrate these concepts are dense and challenging for students to navigate.

When possible, teachers should try to introduce brief excerpts of primary sources or secondary sources that convey meaning in a direct way. Even though principles of political revolutions are challenging to navigate, students should learn the ideas that guided much of modern history before learning about the reality and put them into a comparative context.

The eighteenth-century revolutionary ideas, which influenced much of the world in the modern period, had its origins in Judeo-Christian culture and Greco-Roman philosophy. Both Jewish and Christian scriptures informed ethical beliefs, while Greek philosophers like Plato and Aristotle were concerned with the establishment of the rule of law to prevent tyranny. Roman legal philosophy built on Greek ideas of citizenship—defined as the exercise of one's talents in the service of the civic community—was necessary to protect the authority of the state. However, authoritarian ideas, such as divine right of kings, the privileged status of nobles and clergy, and rule by elite groups were also traditional concepts drawing on ancient ideas and practices.

In the 1700s, authoritarian institutions and ideas governed every state and empire, and to Europeans in that time, the revolutionary ideas were quite new. This question can frame students' understanding of revolutionary political ideas: **How were enlightened ideas a break from the past?** For students to understand the significance of concepts such as the rule of law, citizenship, reason, liberty, and property, for example, teachers should present them as a dramatic break from the

ideological motives of a “civilizing mission.” The question **Why did industrialized nations embark on imperial ventures?** can help connect students’ earlier learning about industrialization with foreign policy. The economic strength of industrialized nations gave them an advantage of cheaper goods over nations that engaged in traditional manual production of goods. For much of the late nineteenth and early twentieth century, local manufacturing in regions such as India, China, and Latin America declined dramatically. Some scholars use the label *informal empire* to refer to situations where countries, while not formally colonized, became increasingly dependent on industrialized nations, which sometimes threatened violence, to establish the terms and conditions of international commerce.

The race to secure raw materials spurred European, Japanese, and American imperialism. Students can also learn about the process of imperialism by considering the question **How did colonization work?** Tropical products, such as rubber and tea, and other resources for industrial use drove competing nations to claim political, economic, and territorial rights to colonies.

Students should read primary sources that reflect the motives behind European imperial efforts. F. D. Lugard’s *The Rise of Our East African Empire* explains in direct clear language why, in 1893, European leaders believed it to be necessary to expand their empires for economic reasons. To locate a useful excerpt from this text, teachers should search online for the paragraph that begins with the following sentence: “It is sufficient to reiterate here that, as long as our policy is one of free trade, we are compelled to seek new markets; for old ones are being closed to us by hostile tariffs, and our great dependencies, which formerly were the consumers of our goods, are now becoming our commercial rivals.”

Students may also read Joseph Conrad’s *Heart of Darkness* or Adam Hothschild’s *King Leopold’s Ghost*. Colonizers also justified their conquests by asserting arguments of racial hierarchy and cultural supremacy, offering a vision of civilization in contrast to what they argued were “backward” societies. Literature and poetry, such as Rudyard Kipling’s “The White Man’s Burden,” engages students with this period and deepens the ability of students to understand the era in its own context.

Students compare the perspectives of advocates for and against imperialism and consider the way each side presents evidence to support its claims. The question

How was imperialism connected with race and religion? can be addressed by a close reading and analysis of Kipling's poem. Overall, students should understand the multiple interconnected causes and justifications for colonization: religious, racial, and political uplift; economic exchange; and geopolitical power.

Governments of industrialized nations also viewed overseas expansion as a means to strengthen their own global strategic position. The development of more advanced firearms, transportation, and communications than those of nonindustrial societies paved the way for a wave of imperialism. Britain, France, and other European nations established colonies throughout Africa and South and Southeast Asia, while the United States and Japan did the same around the Pacific Rim, often allying with local elites and exploiting colonized peoples as laborers despite sometimes strenuous resistance.

Indigenous leaders in various colonized regions engaged in protracted resistance to the colonizers, though they were ultimately outmatched by the military superiority of the colonial powers. In India, for example, students explore the environmental and social effects of Britain's acquisition and control of raw goods and markets, and in South Africa, where its wealth of gold and diamonds provided the capital needed for further industrialization. Students learn how the competition for and decisions regarding natural resource acquisition and use influenced perspectives regarding the use of colonial lands and the nature of colonial rule (see appendix G for Environmental Principle V).

Only a few countries under European pressure—notably China, Thailand, Iran, and Ethiopia—retained their political independence. Students may study the Opium Wars in China to learn about the ways in which British attempts at controlling Chinese markets and opening ports led to extended and intense conflicts. Students can demonstrate their understanding of this period—and the different perspectives of both the industrialized and colonized nations—by writing editorials or government position papers, giving speeches, or creating multimedia documentaries for their classmates.

Although most Latin American nations were technically independent in this era, they often came under the influence of European nations and the United States after accepting large loans to help them develop transportation and communication networks. Latin American countries produced cash crops and

Students may continue to consider the question **How did colonization work?** in order to understand the concrete results of colonization in a variety of geographic contexts. Colonizers introduced new infrastructures, medicines, educational systems, and cultural norms. Print technology and more rapid transportation aided the growth of organized religion. These technological developments also facilitated integration of regional Indian religious traditions into the larger religious tradition of the subcontinent while still retaining their regional identity.

Christian missionaries made use of colonial institutions and infrastructure to educate and evangelize native peoples, helping to broaden Christian presence around the world. Some European thinkers joined religious beliefs to social Darwinian ideas about the evolution of races, leading to European efforts to “civilize” native peoples they perceived as “backward.” They also attempted to reform practices involving marriage and women’s social roles.

Although some colonial peoples converted to European practices, others deeply resented the violent exploitation of their people and the disruption of traditional beliefs. Students should consider the question **How did native people respond to colonization?** in order to make sense of the multiple contexts and responses to colonization. Nationalist leaders, often educated in European universities, began to use ideologies rooted in the Enlightenment to challenge the injustice of Western and Japanese imperialism. Europeans, in turn, were shaped by their encounters with colonial peoples through their exposure to non-Western religions and systems of thought for the first time.

Imperial encounters strengthened European nationalism at home, as colonizers defined themselves in response to colonial “others.” In addition, internal tensions sometimes erupted between dominant and dominated groups within a state or empire. For example, European Jews had felt that Enlightenment ideals of equality and citizenship applied to them, although they were a minority in the countries in

countries as a central objective for their own foreign policies, even though most of them face criticism from groups such as Amnesty International for conditions at home (e.g., overcrowded prisons, wrongful convictions, or the death penalty, or the persistence of conditions inconsistent with standards of economic, social and cultural rights).

If the campaign for human rights is a universalizing movement that asserts the basic similarity of human expectations across time and place, the contemporary era has also witnessed a dramatic movement toward diversity in the form of a worldwide religious revival. Reflecting on the history of modern nationalism, students may perceive some similarities in the ways in which both human rights and religion assert the existence of authorities higher than national governments, whether in the form of “natural law” or holy law. Both religious leaders and human rights activists affirm that the individual is not only a citizen of his or her country; he or she may also be a member of an “identity community” far larger than the nation-state, whether the entire human race or a community of religious believers spanning many different countries.

The global revival of religiosity has been a defining characteristic of the times. It is also a development that would have surprised academic theorists of secularization in the 1960s and 1970s who argued that religion was in irrevocable decline. In a reflection of the resurgence of religion in many parts of the world over the past 30 years, politics has become increasingly infused with the language of faith.

The revival of religion has, in some respects, created new cleavages in world politics, both within and among societies. Anti-Western violence perpetrated by the followers of a fundamentalist version of Islam has contributed to the

appearance of deep conflict between the Islamic and Western worlds, especially since 9/11. Students should learn about the roots of modern Islamic extremism by reading a variety of sources—for example, from Egyptian writers and the Muslim Brotherhood. In numerous societies, such as Nigeria, the Sudan, and India, the revival of religion—and of religion



as an expression of political identity—has bred tension and even outright violence among members of neighboring religious communities.

In societies around the world, the proponents of religious orthodoxies have found themselves in conflict with secularists, whether in battles over headscarves in Istanbul and Paris or over prayer in American schools. Although the resurgence of religion has been a transnational phenomenon affecting many different countries, students ought to be aware that it has been less pronounced in some areas of the world, notably Western Europe and China, than in others. Students may investigate whether the world is becoming more or less religious, and what the implications of religion are for international relations and for domestic politics in the United States and other societies. Why has Western Europe (so far) seemed to remain separated from this global trend?

A New Role for the West

Perhaps the most dramatic story of the second millennium (1000–1999 CE) has been the rise of Europe—a remote, salty, and windswept corner of Eurasia—to global dominance. The “Rise of the West” was a transformative movement in world history, and it brought tumultuous consequences for the entire world. Students should have studied the reasons for Europe’s rise to dominance in the early modern era, from the growth of the seaborne trading companies of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries to the spread of colonies in the eighteenth and nineteenth. Have Europe and its Western offshoots, including the United States, now entered a phase of relative historical decline? This is a historical transformation that students should consider carefully, especially insofar as it relates to the “rise” of new powers such as India and the People’s Republic of China.

At the beginning of the twentieth century, Europe was dominant, and its eclipse was a central theme. Exhausted by two world wars and unable to hold back powerful nationalist movements in the colonial world, the European colonial empires collapsed in the thirty years after 1945. Simultaneously, the major west European countries created among themselves a novel confederal apparatus—the European Union—to integrate their economies and to provide a modicum of political unity. As an economic initiative, the European Union has been highly successful: per capita incomes in Europe remain very high, and the west European region has enjoyed an unprecedented phase of peace and cooperation. Yet Europe

Grade Eleven

In this course, students examine major developments and turning points in American history from the late nineteenth century to the present. During the year, the following themes are emphasized: the expanding role of the federal government; the emergence of a modern corporate economy and the role of organized labor; the role of the federal government and Federal Reserve System in regulating the economy; the impact of technology on American society and culture; changes in racial, ethnic, and gender dynamics in American society; the movements toward equal rights for racial, ethnic, religious, and sexual minorities and for women; and the rise of the United States as a major world power.

As students survey nearly 150 years of American history, they learn how geography shaped many of these developments, especially in terms of the country's position on the globe, its climate, and abundant natural resources. In each unit, students examine American culture, including religion, literature, art, music, drama, architecture, education, and the mass media.

The content covered in grade eleven is expansive, and the discipline-specific skills that are to be taught are equally demanding. To highlight significant developments, trends, and events, teachers should use guiding questions around which their curriculum may be organized. Organizing content around questions of historical significance allows students to develop their understanding of that content in greater depth. Guiding questions also allow teachers the leeway to prioritize their content and highlight particular skills through students' investigations of the past.

Questions that can frame the year-long content for eleventh grade are as follows:
How did the federal government grow between the late nineteenth and twenty-first centuries? What does it mean to be an American in modern times? How did the United States become a superpower? How did the United States' population become more diverse over the twentieth century?

As students learn American history from the late 1800s through the 2010s, they should be encouraged to develop reading, writing, speaking, and listening skills that will enhance their understanding of the content. As in earlier grades, students should be taught that history is an investigative discipline, one that is continually reshaped based on research in primary sources and on new perspectives that can be uncovered. Students should be encouraged to read multiple primary and

Nevertheless, in the problem-ridden environments of recently industrialized cities, many people found the opportunities of city life to be exciting. Thriving urban centers became havens for the middle-class single women who played an important role in the settlement house movement. These women established collective homes in the poor areas of cities and often formed marriage-like relationships, known as "Boston marriages," with one another as they worked to provide services.

In addition, in these growing cities, poorer young women and men who moved from farms and small towns to take employment in factories, offices, and shops found themselves free from familial and community supervision in the urban environment. At nights and on weekends, they flocked to new forms of commercialized entertainment such as amusement parks, dance halls, and movie theaters, and engaged in less restricted forms of intimacy, alarming some middle-class reformers. The more anonymous environment of cities also made space for men and women seeking relationships with one another and with someone of the same sex. By the end of the century, concepts of homosexuality and heterosexuality became defined as discrete categories of identity. This had consequences for the ways that people thought about intimate relationships between people of the same gender.

While primarily working-class youths found excitement in the opportunities of the city, a group of reformers—broadly termed *progressives*—also emerged around the turn of the century and sought to remedy some of the problems arising from industrialization. Primarily composed of white, middle-class, Protestant, college-

Grade Eleven

Moreover, American intervention in the Panama Revolution helped secure control over the Panama Canal and certified America's emergence as a global economic and military power. President Roosevelt portrayed his "big stick" policies as necessary extensions of American strength and racial destiny onto a world that needed U.S. leadership. The voyage of the Great White Fleet and the United States' involvement in World War I are additional examples of America's complicated expansion into world affairs. These seemingly simple questions can help students to form a nuanced analysis: **Did the United States become an imperial power? Why or why not?**

World War I began in 1914, and while the US began to supply the Allies with weapons and goods that year, American soldiers did not join the conflict until three years later. Although American entry into the Great War came later than the Allied Powers hoped for, when Wilson asked Congress for a declaration of war in April 1917, he did so in an effort to continue promoting America's vision for the world. When American troops arrived in Europe in the fall of 1917, their participation helped bring an end to the war and establish the United States as a global power. Students should read Wilson's Fourteen Points as a justification for why he felt America should go to war, analyze how the Fourteen Points were an extension of earlier policies, and identify which of the points might be controversial in the context of the war.

With the end of the war, Wilson was heralded as a hero in Europe when he traveled there to attend the Paris Peace Conference. Despite his significant role in designing the Versailles Treaty that ended the war, Wilson ultimately could not convince Congress to join the League of Nations. Students may identify the significance of World War I in transforming America into a world leader, but they should also understand that the aftermath of the war ushered in a decade of isolationism, which by the end of the 1920s would have serious consequences for the world economies.

Just as World War I stands as an important marker of the new role for the U.S. on the world stage, the war also stands as an important event that started a century-long growth of the federal government. Once the United States entered the war, the government grew through the administration of the draft, the organization of the war at home, and the promotion of civilian support for the war.

politicians espoused a desire to return to “normalcy” as evidenced by the election of Warren Harding, Calvin Coolidge, and Herbert Hoover.

In addition to American political leaders’ reluctance to embrace change, many Americans did not embrace the social and cultural openness of the decade. These people found a voice in many organizations that formed to prevent such shifts. The Ku Klux Klan launched anti-immigrant, anti-Catholic, anti-Semitic, and moralizing campaigns of violence and intimidation; vice squads targeted speakeasies, communities of color, and LGBT venues.

As a reflection of the anxiety about the changing demographic composition of the country, the United States Supreme Court ruled in *United States v. Bhagat Singh Thind* (1923) that the country could restrict the right to naturalization based on race. Congress, encouraged by eugenicists who warned of the “degradation” of the population, restricted immigration by instituting nationality quotas the following year in 1924.

Similar fears about outsiders hurting the nation led to campaigns against perceived radicals. Fears of communism and anarchism associated with the Russian Revolution and World War I provoked attacks on civil liberties and industrial unionists, including the Palmer Raids, the “Red Scare,” the Sacco-Vanzetti case, and legislation restraining individual expression and privacy. Legal challenges to these activities produced major Supreme Court decisions defining and qualifying the right to dissent and freedom of speech. By reading some of the extraordinary decisions of Justices Louis Brandeis and Oliver Wendell Holmes (*Schenck v. U.S.* (1919) and *Whitney v. California* (1927)), students will understand the continuing tension between the rights of the individual and the power of government. Students can engage in a debate that weighs the need to preserve civil liberties against the need to protect national security. Learning about the American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU), formed in 1920 with the purpose of defending World War I dissenters, and the NAACP, established in 1909 to protect and promote the constitutional rights of minorities, helps students identify organizational responses to unpopular views and minority rights. Students can synthesize their studies of the 1920s by addressing these questions: **Were the 1920s a “return to normalcy?” Why or why not?**

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National Industrial Recovery Administration (NIRA), and Works Progress Administration (WPA). These agencies—and many new policies set in place by Roosevelt—were based on a theory of Planned Scarcity; the root of economic problems was an oversupply of goods in the marketplace and the role of the government would be to stabilize production and aid businesses, which would ultimately help workers. John Maynard Keynes, the leading economist whose ideas of “priming the pump” also guided many of Roosevelt’s later economic policies, argued that if the government directly invested in the economy—even if it had to run a deficit by doing so—individual Americans would have more purchasing power and the economy would recover sooner from the Depression.

Though the New Deal coalition forged a Democratic voting bloc that comprised workers, farmers, African Americans, Southern whites, Jews, Catholics, and educated Northerners, the New Deal generated controversy and inspired significant opposition to Roosevelt. Criticism came from both the Far Left, who argued that the government was not doing enough to help Americans’ suffering, and the Right of the political spectrum, which argued that the executive branch was doing far too much to regulate the economy.

Students may study dissident voices in the New Deal and analyze the effects of the New Deal by exploring the areas of U.S. society that were addressed. What agencies were created? Were they effective? Why were many nullified? Which are still in place? Students may watch, listen to, or read excerpts from Roosevelt’s inaugural addresses and fireside chats in order to analyze how the president worked to rally the nation by communicating with Americans in a sympathetic and plainspoken way.

Ultimately, Roosevelt’s economic policies did not end the Great Depression; World War II did, because it involved a level of government spending and mobilization that led sectors of the economy to put everyone back to work. However, New Deal policies did ameliorate some of the worst ravages of the Depression, gave the nation hope at a time of despair, and paved the road to recovery, which had made significant progress by 1937.

After 1937, Roosevelt reduced the government stimulus in a pronounced shift to balance the budget, temporarily stalling the recovery. Despite the New Deal’s failure to end the Great Depression, Roosevelt forever changed the office of the

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Severe economic distress also triggered social protests, such as sit-down strikes, and the successful unionization of unskilled workers in America's giant industries led by the American Federation of Labor and the Congress of Industrial Organizations. Moreover, black and white sharecroppers in the South launched the Southern Tenants Farmers Union. With the Roosevelt administration in support of the rights of workers through such laws as the Wagner Act, the 1930s saw a vast acceleration of the number of workers that felt free and protected to join a union. Photographs, videotapes, monographs, newspaper accounts, interviews with persons who lived in the period (for example in Studs Terkel's *Hard Times*, Vicki Ruiz's *Cannery Women*, *Cannery Lives*, and Dorothea Lange's photojournalism), as well as paintings and novels (such as John Steinbeck's *Grapes of Wrath*), capture how ordinary people experienced the Depression.

To make projects from the New Deal local and concrete, students may participate in a project in which they identify and study something in their community that was created during the New Deal by one of the agencies. California students may focus on projects done through the WPA or the Civilian Conservation Corps. Teachers can guide students to identify the artifact (such as an art installation, bridge, building, reservoir, hiking trail, and the like) in their communities. Then students are directed to tell the story of the artifact; identify the agency that worked on the project; research who worked for the agency and, ideally, on the project itself; and to contextualize the project in the New Deal by responding to this question: **How is this artifact a reflection of the New Deal?**

At home, World War II had many long-lasting effects on the nation. Industrial demands fueled by wartime needs contributed to ending the Depression and set a model for an expanded governmental role in regulating the economy after the war. Students can consider this question in order to identify cause-and-effect changes for ordinary people on the home front: **How did World War II serve to advance movements for equality at home and abroad?** Wartime factory work created new and higher-paying job opportunities for women, African Americans, and other minorities; the opening up of the wage-labor force to women and minorities helped them to raise their expectations for what they should be able to achieve. Unlike World War I, many women remained in the workforce after demobilization.

The defense-related industries became especially critical to California's economy, helping to drive other sorts of development such as the manufacturing sector and the science-technology establishment. These jobs drew enormous numbers of migrants from other parts of the country and eventually spurred the creation of expansive suburbs, highways, and shopping complexes.

Meanwhile, immigration continued, especially to California, which depended on agricultural labor provided by immigrants, particularly Mexicans, who came through the Bracero Program. This 1942 government-sponsored program, designed primarily to replace native-born agricultural and transportation industry workers who were mobilizing for war and interned Japanese-American farmers with imported Mexican laborers, continued until 1964. Instruction on the Bracero program may include oral or video histories of those who came to the United States as part of the program. Students can use those resources to explore the economic and cultural effects of the program during and after World War II and the reasons why the *braceros* chose to participate.

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Although the 1950s have been characterized as a decade of relative social calm, the struggles of African Americans, Chicano/as, Native Americans, Asian Americans, as well as women and LGBT people that emerged forcefully in the 1960s have their roots in this period. In this unit, students focus on the history of the movements for equality and the broader social and political transformations that they inspired, beginning with the Civil Rights Movement in the South and continuing for the 35-year period after World War II.

The question **Why was there a Civil Rights Movement?** will prompt students to identify the hurdles minorities faced in the mid-twentieth century; however, teachers should remind students that there had been civil rights activism before now, but this time the movement seemed different. The goal of the class is to explain how and why. A brief review of earlier content helps students grasp the enormous barriers African Americans had to overcome in the struggle for their rights as citizens: legal statutes in place that prevented them from voting and exercising their rights as citizens, Jim Crow laws that kept them in a state of economic dependence, a system of violence and intimidation that prevented most African Americans from attempting to exercise power, and a legal system that was devoted to preserving the status quo. Life for African Americans at the century's mid-point was one of second-class status.

At the beginning of this unit, teachers may have students address this question: **What does "equal rights" mean?** To investigate this issue, students should be encouraged to consider what "equality of rights" versus "equality of opportunity" might entail; this sort of discussion will lead students to employ the historical thinking skill of *contingency*—in other words, to see the Civil Rights Movement not as a pre-ordained movement that turned out exactly as intended. Instead, teachers should encourage the class to develop a working definition of equal rights, as it will likely change or be challenged as the class surveys different forms of activism.

Students should first learn about the rise of the African American Civil Rights Movement and the legal battle to abolish segregation by considering this question: **What were the goals and strategies of the Civil Rights Movement?** An important stimulus for this movement was World War II, when African Americans worked in both the defense industries at home and in military service abroad that were often framed as wars against two racist empires.

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American Indians also became more aware of the inequality of their treatment in many states where Indian tribes are located. American Indian veterans returning from World War II were no longer willing to be denied the right to vote by the states, which controlled the voting sites, or to be told their children could not attend state public schools. Some veterans and their families brought lawsuits in the late 1940s and the 1950s successfully challenging such practices.

Some of the most successful state and federal court cases challenged racial segregation and inequality in education, including cases in state and federal district courts, such as *Mendez v. Westminster* (1947), which addressed segregation of Mexican and Mexican-American schoolchildren and involved then-Governor Earl Warren, who would later, as Chief Justice of the U.S. Supreme Court, write the *Brown* decision. The NAACP in 1954 achieved a momentous victory with the *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka et al.* (1954) decision in challenging racial segregation in public education. The NAACP Legal Defense Fund, employing Thurgood Marshall as its lead counsel, successfully overturned the entire legal basis of "separate but equal." Exploring why African Americans and other minorities demanded equal educational opportunity early on in the Civil Rights Movement is important for students to consider and understand.

The *Brown* decision stimulated a generation of political and social activism led by African Americans pursuing their civil rights. Students can continue to address the question **What were the goals and strategies of the Civil Rights Movement?** to unite the many historical actors and moments that define the movement. Events in this story illuminate the process of change over time in terms of goals and strategies, and they highlight for students the challenges of participating in the movement: the Montgomery bus boycott, triggered by the arrest of Rosa Parks, led by the young Martin Luther King, Jr., and sustained by thousands of African-American women; the clash in Little Rock, Arkansas, between federal and state power; the student sit-in demonstrations that began in Greensboro, North Carolina; the "freedom rides"; the march on Washington, D.C., in 1963; the Mississippi Summer Project of 1964; the march in Selma, Alabama, in 1965; and the Supreme Court's 1967 *Loving v. Virginia* decision to overturn state antimiscegenation laws.

By focusing on African Americans' struggle to gain equal rights, students can learn about key civil rights organizations and put them in a comparative context: King's Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC), the Congress on Racial

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Equality (CORE), and the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC) among others. Students recognize how these organizations and events influenced public opinion and enlarged the jurisdiction of the federal government. There was also considerable violent opposition to the goals and strategies of the movement; many white Southerners committed their resources to pushing back against what they perceived to be an overly intrusive federal government regulating race relations. Students may read select excerpts from “The Southern Manifesto on Integration,” a 1956 resolution adopted by dozens of senators and congressmen that opposed the integration of schools and the *Brown* decision, which declared: “Without regard to the consent of the governed, outside agitators are threatening immediate and revolutionary changes in our public school systems. If done, this is certain to destroy the system of public education in some of the states.”

Students will likely need a variety of tools (such as a graphic organizer that deconstructs both individual sentences and relevant phrases) to both comprehend the text and understand the coded language that fuels the



argument against integration. Students should also learn about Dr. King’s philosophical and religious dedication to nonviolence by reading select excerpts from primary-source documents such as “Letter from a Birmingham Jail,” his response to a “Call for Unity,” signed by a group of Alabama clergymen. They recognize the leadership of the black churches, female leaders such as Rosa Parks, Ella Baker, and Fannie Lou Hamer, and gay leaders such as Bayard Rustin, all of whom played key roles in shaping the movement. Through the careful selection and analysis of the many primary sources available from the period, students come to understand both the extraordinary courage of ordinary black men, women, and children and the interracial character of the Civil Rights Movement.

One of the hallmark achievements of the Civil Rights Movement in the South was convincing the federal government to protect civil and voting rights. The question **How was the government involved in the Civil Rights Movement?** offers students an opportunity to think about how equality is achieved—through

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grassroots activism and through government action. Students examine the expansion of the role of the federal government as a guarantor of civil rights, especially during the administrations of Presidents Kennedy, Johnson, and Nixon. After President Kennedy's assassination, Congress enacted landmark federal programs in civil rights, education, and social welfare. The Civil Rights Act of 1964, the Voting Rights Act of 1965, and the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 indicated the federal government's commitment to provide the rights of full citizenship to people of all races, ethnicities, religious groups, and sexes.

The findings of President Johnson's Kerner Commission may be analyzed to understand the media perspectives on race relations. Students can then read excerpts of the text from each federal act to understand what the federal government would do and to analyze the new and expanded responsibilities. Teachers may wish to place these pieces of federal legislation in the context of Great Society programs, which aimed to expand the welfare state and provide a broader safety net for vulnerable Americans.

The peak of legislative activity in 1964–65 was accompanied by a shifting ideology, geographic orientation, organizational composition, and form of protest for the movements for equality. Students can revisit the question **What were the goals and strategies of the Civil Rights Movement?** to chart change over time and cause-and-effect. One catalyst for changes in the movement was police violence against African Americans, which contributed to the Los Angeles Watts riot in 1965. Another was the 1965 assassination of Malcolm X, an influential Black Muslim leader who had criticized the Civil Rights Movement for its commitment to nonviolence and integration. In 1966, inspired by Malcolm X, the Black Power movement emerged. Some Black Power advocates demanded change "by any means necessary," promoted Black Nationalism, and espoused plans for racial separatism.

Although the Black Power movement never received the mainstream support that the Civil Rights Movement did, it had enduring social influence in its emphasis on racial pride, its celebration of black culture, and its powerful criticisms of racism. The assassination of Dr. King in 1968 deprived the Civil Rights Movement of its best-known leader, but not its enduring effects on American life. In considering issues such as school busing (*Swann v. Board of Education*, 1971, and *Milliken v. Bradley*, 1974) and affirmative action (*Regents of the University of California v. Bakke*, 1978), students can discuss the continuing controversy between group rights

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to equality of opportunity versus individual rights to equal treatment. More recent Supreme Court decisions that address education for undocumented children (*Plyler v. Doe*, 1982), affirmative action (*Fisher v. University of Texas*, 2013), and the Voting Rights Act (*Shelby County v. Holder*, 2013) provide opportunities for students to consider the influence of the past on the present.

Students should understand the significance of President Obama's election as the first African-American president and be able to place it in the context of the fight, both historical and ongoing, for African-American civil rights. Well-chosen readings heighten students' sensitivity to the issues raised in this unit, such as *The Autobiography of Malcolm X*, Lerone Bennett's *Before the Mayflower: A History of Black America*, Anne Moody's *Coming of Age in Mississippi*, Ralph Ellison's *Invisible Man*, Richard Wright's *Native Son*, and Lorraine Hansberry's *A Raisin in the Sun*.

The advances of the black Civil Rights Movement encouraged other groups—including women, Hispanics and Latinos, American Indians, Asian Americans, Pacific Islanders, LGBT Americans, students, and people with disabilities—to mount their own campaigns for legislative and judicial recognition of their civil equality.

Students can use the question **How did various movements for equality build upon one another?** to identify commonalities in goals, organizational structures, forms of resistance, and members. Students may note major events in the development of these movements and the consequences. Students may study how Cesar Chavez, Dolores Huerta, and the United Farm Workers movement used nonviolent tactics, educated the general public about the working conditions in agriculture, and worked to improve the lives of farmworkers.

Students should understand the central role of immigrants, including Latino Americans and Filipino Americans, in the farm labor movement. This context also fueled the brown, red, and yellow power movements. The manifestos, declarations, and proclamations of the movements challenged the political, economic, and social discrimination faced by their groups. They also sought to combat the consequences of their "second-class citizenship" by engaging in grassroots mobilization. For example, from 1969 through 1971 American Indian activists occupied Alcatraz Island; while in 1972 and 1973, American Indian Movement (AIM) activists took over the Bureau of Indian Affairs building in Washington, D.C., and held a standoff at Wounded Knee, South Dakota.

the 1970s and 1980s, feminists promoted women's health collectives, opened shelters for victims of domestic abuse, fought for greater economic independence, and worked to participate in sports equally with men.

Students consider Supreme Court decisions in the late 1960s and early 1970s that recognized women's rights to birth control (*Griswold v. Connecticut*, 1965) and abortion (*Roe v. Wade*, 1973). Students can debate the Equal Rights Amendment and discuss why it failed to get ratified. Students can also read and discuss selections from the writings of leading feminists and their opponents. Over time, students can trace how, by the 1980s and 1990s, women made serious gains in their access to education, politics, and the workforce, though women continue to be denied equal representation at the very highest ranks.

Students also examine the emergence of a movement for LGBT rights, starting in the 1950s with California-based groups like the Mattachine Society and the Daughters of Bilitis. Throughout the 1950s and early 1960s, these fairly secretive organizations created support networks; secured rights of expression and assembly; and cultivated relationships with clergy, doctors, and legislators to challenge teachings and laws that condemned homosexuality as sinful, sick, and/or criminal. In the 1960s, younger activists, often poorer and sometimes transgender, began to confront police when they raided gay bars and cafes in Los Angeles, San Francisco, and most famously at the Stonewall Inn in New York City in 1969. Organizations such as the Gay Liberation Front and the Gay Activists Alliance called on people in the movement to “come out” as a personal and political act.

Students may consider figures such as Alfred Kinsey, Harry Hay, Jose Sarria, Del Martin and Phyllis Lyon, Frank Kameny, Sylvia Rivera, and Harvey Milk. By the mid-1970s, LGBT mobilization led to successes: the American Psychiatric Association stopped diagnosing homosexuality as a mental illness; 17 states had repealed laws criminalizing gay sexual behavior; 36 cities had passed laws banning antigay discrimination; and gay-identified neighborhoods had emerged in major cities.

Students may consider how a 1958 Supreme Court decision that rejected the U.S. Post Office's refusal to distribute a gay and lesbian magazine through U.S. mails (*One, Inc. v. Olsen*) and a 1967 Supreme Court decision that upheld the exclusion and deportation of gay and lesbian immigrants (*Boutilier v. Immigration*

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and Naturalization Service) relate to more recent decisions, such as the 1986 decision that upheld state sodomy laws (*Bowers v. Hardwick*), the 2003 decision overturning such laws (*Lawrence v. Texas*), 2013 and 2015 decisions on same-sex marriage (*United States v. Windsor*, *Hollingsworth v. Perry*, and *Obergefell v. Hodges*), and the constitutional guarantee of equal protection under the law for transgender individuals, as exemplified through successful claims of employment discrimination including *Glenn v. Brumby*, *Schroer v. Billington*, and the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission's decision in *Macy v. Holder*.

Students can consider the following question: **Did the Civil Rights Movement succeed?** Making a class presentation, composing an essay, or creating a project that addresses this question will encourage students to make a claim based on a variety of pieces of evidence they have collected throughout the unit. They analyze historical examples of movements for equality to support their claims.

In addition to the movements for equality that made the 1960s and early 1970s remarkable for the heightened level of activism, the expansion of the war in Vietnam provoked antiwar protests that reflected and contributed to a deep rift in American society and culture.

Two questions can guide students' investigations of the war in Vietnam: **How was the war in Vietnam similar to and different from other Cold War struggles? How did the war in Vietnam affect movements for equality at home?** After escalation of the war following the Gulf of Tonkin Incident and Resolution, along with Johnson's re-election in 1964, the U.S. military embarked on an air and ground war that aimed to eliminate the communist threat from South Vietnam. Hundreds of thousands of American service members volunteered and were drafted to fight in the war, which government and military leaders portrayed as an extension of broader Cold War struggles.

During the first year of the war, American casualties started to mount, progress seemed elusive, and the ways of achieving success were muddled. In the haze of war, American journalists reported on television what urban warfare and guerrilla fighting entailed; in this context, Americans started to call into question the principles on which the war was fought. By the time of the Tet Offensive and My Lai Massacre in early 1968, American public opinion had turned against the war effort. According to Senator William Fulbright: "We are trying to remake

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students analyze the impact and experience of refugees who fled Southeast Asia after the Vietnam War or Iranians after the Islamic Revolution.

To synthesize these developments, students can address this question: **Why is the United States more diverse now than it was in the middle of the twentieth century?** Students can also explore how the immigrant experience has changed over time by considering the following questions: **How does the life of a new immigrant to the United States today compare with what it was in 1900? How do policies from the second half of the twentieth century compare with those of the early twenty-first century?**

Finally, consideration should be given to the major social and political challenges of contemporary America. Issues inherent in contemporary challenges can be debated, and experts from the community may be invited as speakers. The following questions can guide students' explorations of these varied topics: **In what ways have issues such as education; civil rights for people of color, immigrants, and lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) Americans, and disabled Americans; economic policy; recognition of economic, social and cultural rights; the environment; and the status of women remained unchanged over time? In what ways have they changed?** The growth of the LGBT rights movement, for example, led to the pioneering role of gay politicians such as Elaine Noble, who was elected to the Massachusetts House of Representatives in 1974, and Harvey Milk, elected in 1977 to the San Francisco Board of Supervisors.

Students can learn about how such activism informed the history of the AIDS epidemic in the United States. California students, in particular, can tap local history resources on the epidemic and its relationship to a retreat from some areas of the civil rights, women's liberation, and sexual liberation movements. By talking about the nation's hysteria over AIDS, educators may be able to connect the early response to the epidemic to previous alarmist reactions in American history and the activism generated by them.

Appendix IV: Selected Pages, Alaska Curricula

Alaskan standards are brief, so select local standards were used to aid this case study. Citations and brief excerpts can be found below.

Alaska Department of Education and Early Development. 2021. Alaska Content Standards: History. Available at: https://education.alaska.gov/akstandards/standards/History_edited.pdf

Anchorage School District. n.d.. Social Studies / High School Curriculum: Graduation Requirements. Available at: <https://www.asdk12.org/Page/5451>.

Matanuska-Susitna Borough School District. 2018. High School World History. Available at: <https://www.matsuk12.us/cms/lib/AK01000953/Centricity/domain/105/curr/SS%20HS%20World%20History%20Framework.pdf>

Matanuska-Susitna Borough School District. 2018. High School US History. Available at: <https://www.matsuk12.us/cms/lib/AK01000953/Centricity/domain/105/curr/SS%20HS%20US%20History%20Framework.pdf>

HISTORY

A

A student should understand that history is a record of human experiences that links the past to the present and the future.

A student who meets the content standard should:

- 1) understand chronological frameworks for organizing historical thought and place significant ideas, institutions, people, and events within time sequences;
- 2) know that the interpretation of history may change as new evidence is discovered;
- 3) recognize different theories of history, detect the weakness of broad generalization, and evaluate the debates of historians;
- 4) understand that history relies on the interpretation of evidence;
- 5) understand that history is a narrative told in many voices and expresses various perspectives of historical experience;
- 6) know that cultural elements, including language, literature, the arts, customs, and belief systems, reflect the ideas and attitudes of a specific time and know how the cultural elements influence human interaction;
- 7) understand that history is dynamic and composed of key turning points;
- 8) know that history is a bridge to understanding groups of people and an individual's relationship to society; and
- 9) understand that history is a fundamental connection that unifies all fields of human understanding and endeavor.

B

A student should understand historical themes through factual knowledge of time, places, ideas, institutions, cultures, people, and events.

A student who meets the content standard should:

- 1) comprehend the forces of change and continuity that shape human history through the following persistent organizing themes:
 - a. the development of culture, the emergence of civilizations, and the accomplishments and mistakes of social organizations;
 - b. human communities and their relationships with climate, subsistence base, resources, geography, and technology;
 - c. the origin and impact of ideologies, religions, and institutions upon human societies;
 - d. the consequences of peace and violent conflict to societies and their cultures; and
 - e. major developments in societies as well as changing patterns related to class, ethnicity, race, and gender;

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B *(continued)*

- 2) understand the people and the political, geographic, economic, cultural, social, and environmental events that have shaped the history of the state, the United States, and the world;
- 3) recognize that historical understanding is relevant and valuable in the student's life and for participating in local, state, national, and global communities;
- 4) recognize the importance of time, ideas, institutions, people, places, cultures, and events in understanding large historical patterns; and
- 5) evaluate the influence of context upon historical understanding.

C

A student should develop the skills and processes of historical inquiry.

A student who meets the content standard should:

- 1) use appropriate technology to access, retrieve, organize, and present historical information;
- 2) use historical data from a variety of primary resources, including letters, diaries, oral accounts, archeological sites and artifacts, art, maps, photos, historical sites, documents, and secondary research materials, including almanacs, books, indices, and newspapers;
- 3) apply thinking skills, including classifying, interpreting, analyzing, summarizing, synthesizing, and evaluating, to understand the historical record; and
- 4) use historical perspective to solve problems, make decisions, and understand other traditions.

D

A student should be able to integrate historical knowledge with historical skill to effectively participate as a citizen and as a lifelong learner.

A student who meets the content standard should:

- 1) understand that the student is important in history;
- 2) solve problems by using history to identify issues and problems, generate potential solutions, assess the merits of options, act, and evaluate the effectiveness of actions;
- 3) define a personal position on issues while understanding the historical aspects of the positions and roles assumed by others;
- 4) recognize and demonstrate that various issues may require an understanding of different positions, jobs, and personal roles depending on place, time, and context;
- 5) base personal citizenship action on reasoned historical judgment with recognition of responsibility for self and others; and
- 6) create new approaches to issues by incorporating history with other disciplines, including economics, geography, literature, the arts, science, and technology.

HISTORY

Historical Inquiry

The student demonstrates an understanding of the methods of documenting history by:

AH. HI 1 planning and developing history projects, utilizing research tools such as: interviewing protocols, oral history, historical context, pre-interview research, primary sources, secondary sources, proper citation, corroboration, and cause and effect of historical events. [DOK 4] (H. C1-4)

	PEOPLE, PLACES, ENVIRONMENT	CONSUMPTION, PRODUCTION, DISTRIBUTION	INDIVIDUAL, CITIZENSHIP, GOVERNANCE, POWER	CONTINUITY AND CHANGE
<p>Indigenous Alaskans before western contact (time immemorial–contact)</p> <p>Suggested Topics <i>[not an inclusive list]</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Locations • Social organizations • Cultures • Political traditions • Natural resources • Cultural changes • Archeology • Native oral traditions 	<p>The student demonstrates an understanding of the interaction between people and their physical environment by:</p> <p>AH. PPE 1 comparing and contrasting geographic regions of Alaska. [DOK 2] (G. B4, B8)</p> <p>AH. PPE 2 using texts/sources to analyze the similarities and differences in the cultural attributes (e.g., language, hunting and gathering practices, art, music/dance, beliefs, worldview), movement, interactions, and settlement of Alaska Native peoples. [DOK 3] (G. D1, D4)</p> <p>AH. PPE 3 using texts/sources to analyze the effect of the historical contributions and/or influences of significant individuals, groups and local, regional, statewide, international organizations. [DOK 3] (H. B4)</p>		<p>The student demonstrates an understanding of the historical rights and responsibilities of Alaskans by:</p> <p>AH. ICGP 1 identifying and summarizing the structures, functions, and transformation of various attributes (e.g., leadership, decision-making, social and political organization) of traditional Alaska Native governance. [DOK 2] (GC. A4)</p>	

	PEOPLE, PLACES, ENVIRONMENT	CONSUMPTION, PRODUCTION, DISTRIBUTION	INDIVIDUAL, CITIZENSHIP, GOVERNANCE, POWER	CONTINUITY AND CHANGE
<p>Colonial Era— The Russian period (1741-1867)</p> <p>Suggested Topics <i>[not an inclusive list]</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rationale for European explorations • Epidemics • Utilization of Alaskan resources • Relationships with indigenous peoples • Role of significant leaders (e.g., Katlian, Baranov, Veniaminov, Netsvetov) • Missionary activities • Russian dependence on Alaska Natives • Russia's incentive to sell 	<p>The student demonstrates an understanding of the interaction between people and their physical environment by:</p> <p>AH. PPE 2 using texts/sources to analyze the similarities and differences in the cultural attributes (e.g., language, hunting and gathering practices, art, music/dance, beliefs, worldview), movement, interactions, and settlement of Alaska Native peoples. [DOK 3] (G. D1, D4)</p> <p>AH. PPE 3 using texts/sources to analyze the effect of the historical contributions and/or influences of significant individuals, groups and local, regional, statewide, and/or international organizations. [DOK 3] (H. B4)</p>	<p>The student demonstrates an understanding of the discovery, impact, and role of natural resources by:</p> <p>AH. CPD 1 identifying patterns of growth, transformation, competition, and boom and bust, in response to use of natural resources (e.g., supply and demand of fur, minerals, and whaling). [DOK 2] (G. D1)</p>	<p>The student demonstrates an understanding of the historical rights and responsibilities of Alaskans by:</p> <p>AH. ICGP 2 using texts/sources to analyze the impacts of the relationships between Alaska Natives and Russians (i.e., Russian Orthodox Church, early fur traders, Russian American Companies, enslavement, and Creoles). [DOK 3] (H. B1d)</p>	<p>The student demonstrates an understanding of the chronology of Alaska history by:</p> <p>AH. CC 1 using texts/sources to recognize and explain the interrelationships among Alaska, national, and international events and developments (e.g., international interest, trade, commerce). [DOK 3] (H. B2)</p>

	PEOPLE, PLACES, ENVIRONMENT	CONSUMPTION, PRODUCTION, DISTRIBUTION	INDIVIDUAL, CITIZENSHIP, GOVERNANCE, POWER	CONTINUITY AND CHANGE
<p>Colonial Era The United States Period (1867-1912)</p> <p>Suggested Topics <i>[Not an inclusive list]</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • United States' motives for purchasing Russia's interest in Alaska • Treaty of Cession • Legal status of Alaska Natives under the Commerce Clause and the Marshall Trilogy • Mining Law of 1872 • Organic Act of 1884 • Role of Sheldon Jackson • Resources (e.g., whaling, fur trading, mining, commercial fisheries) • Gold Rush • Nelson Act of 1905 and the dual school system • Creation of National Forests 	<p>The student demonstrates an understanding of the interaction between people and their physical environment by:</p> <p>AH. PPE 3 using texts/sources to analyze the effect of the historical contributions and/or influences of significant individuals or groups and local, regional, statewide, and/or international organizations. [DOK 3] (H. B4)</p>	<p>The student demonstrates an understanding of the discovery, impact, and role of natural resources by:</p> <p>AH. CPD 2 using texts/source to draw conclusions about the role of the federal government in natural resource development and land management (e.g., jurisdiction, authority, agencies, programs, policies). [DOK 3] (GC. F1)</p>	<p>The student demonstrates an understanding of the historical rights and responsibilities of Alaskans by:</p> <p>AH. ICGP 3 explaining and analyzing tribal and western concepts of land ownership and how acting upon those concepts contributes to changes in land use, control, and ownership. [DOK 4] (H. C7, C8)</p> <p>AH. ICGP 4 explaining Alaskans' quest for self-determination (i.e., full rights as U.S. citizens) through the statehood movement. [DOK 1] (GC. C3)</p> <p>AH.ICGP 5 explaining the impacts of military actions (e.g., Naval bombardment of Angoon, Aleut internment, military expeditions) relative to Native communities. [DOK 2] (H. B1)</p> <p>IGCP 6 using texts/sources to analyze how the military population and its activities, including administrative, policing, defense, mapping, communication, and construction, have impacted communities. [DOK 3] (H. B2)</p> <p>AH. ICGP 7 describing the historical basis of federal recognition of tribes, their inherent and delegated powers, the ongoing nature and diversity of tribal governance, and the plenary power of Congress. [DOK 1] (GC. C8)</p>	<p>The student demonstrates an understanding of the chronology of Alaska history by:</p> <p>AH. CC 2 describing how policies and practices of non-natives (e.g., missionaries, miners, Alaska Commercial Company merchants) influenced Alaska Natives. [DOK 2] (H. B4, B5)</p>

Alaska as a Territory (1912-1959)	PEOPLE, PLACES, ENVIRONMENT	CONSUMPTION, PRODUCTION, DISTRIBUTION	INDIVIDUAL, CITIZENSHIP, GOVERNANCE, POWER	
<p>Suggested Topics <i>[Not an inclusive list]</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Territorial Organic Act of 1912 • Native efforts toward civil and land rights (e.g., founding of Alaska Native Brotherhood (ANB), Alaska Native Sisterhood (ANS), and Tanana Chiefs) • Role of significant individuals (e.g., Judge Wickersham, William Paul, Elizabeth Peratrovich, Ernest Gruening) • Infrastructure (e.g., railroad, aviation, roads, ships) • Indian Reorganization Act • World War II and internment of Aleuts and Japanese Americans • Cold War • National Parks and National Forests, resources (e.g., oil, timber, coal) • Constitutional Convention, constitution, and statehood 	<p>The student demonstrates an understanding of the interaction between people and their physical environment by:</p> <p>AH. PPE 4 describing how Alaska's strategic location played an important role in military buildup and explaining the interrelated social and economic impacts. [DOK 2] (G. A5)</p>	<p>The student demonstrates an understanding of the discovery, impact, and role of natural resources by:</p> <p>AH. CPD 3 using texts/sources to draw conclusions about the significance of natural resources (e.g., fisheries, timber, Swanson River oil discovery, "sustained yield" in the Alaska Constitution) in Alaska's development and in the statehood movement. [DOK 3] (G. F1, F4)</p>	<p>The student demonstrates an understanding of the historical rights and responsibilities of Alaskans by:</p> <p>AH. ICGP 4 explaining Alaskans' quest for self-determination (i.e., full rights as U.S. citizens) through the statehood movement. [DOK 1] (GC. C3)</p> <p>AH. ICGP 5 explaining the impacts of military actions relative to Native communities (e.g., Naval bombardment of Angoon, Aleut internment, military expeditions). [DOK 2] (H. B1)</p> <p>AH. ICGP 8 describing how Alaskans, particularly the Native people, challenge the status quo to gain recognition of their civil rights (e.g., appeals to the Russian government, Ward Cove Packing Co. Case, Molly Hootch, anti-discrimination acts, women's suffrage). [DOK 2] (H. B2, GC. B5)</p> <p>AH. ICGP 9 exploring the federal government's influence on settlements in Alaska (e.g., Matanuska Colony, Anchorage, Adak, Tok, Hydraburg) by establishment of post offices, military facilities, schools, courts, and railroads. [DOK 1] (G. G2, H. B1)</p> <p>AH. ICGP 10 identifying the role of Alaska Native individuals and groups in actively proposing and promoting federal legislation</p>	<p>and policies (e.g., William Paul, Tanana Chiefs, ANB, ANS) [DOK 1] (H. A1, B2)</p> <p>AH. ICGP 11 exploring federal policies and legislation (e.g., Alaska Citizenship Act, Tlingit-Haida Jurisdictional Act, Indian Citizenship Act of 1924, Alaska Reorganization Act, ANCSA) that recognized Native rights. [DOK 1] (H. B2)</p>
				CONTINUITY AND CHANGE
				<p>The student demonstrates an understanding of the chronology of Alaska history by:</p> <p>AH. CC 3 describing how the roles and responsibilities in Alaska Native societies have been continuously influenced by changes in technology, economic practices, and social interactions. [DOK 2] (G. D4, H. B1b)</p>

Alaska as a State (1959-present)	PEOPLE, PLACES, ENVIRONMENT	CONSUMPTION, PRODUCTION, DISTRIBUTION	INDIVIDUAL, CITIZENSHIP, GOVERNANCE, POWER	CONTINUITY AND CHANGE
<p>Suggested Topics [Not an inclusive list]</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Role of significant individuals (e.g., Eben Hopson, Howard Rock, Ted Stevens, Katie John) • Controversies of Statehood Act land selections • Disasters (e.g., 1964 Earthquake, 1967 Interior flood, Exxon Valdez oil spill) • Formation of Inuit Circumpolar Conference • Formation of AFN • Development of public education (e.g., Molly Hootch case) • Prudhoe Bay and oil pipeline construction • Permanent Fund • Alaska Native Claims Settlement Act (ANCSA) • Marine Mammal Protection Act 1972 (MMPA) • Alaska National Interest Lands Conservation Act (ANILCA) • Indian Self-Determination Act 1975 • Indian Child Welfare Act 1978 • Arctic National Wildlife Refuge (ANWR) • Tourism • Fiscal issues 	<p>The student demonstrates an understanding of the interaction between people and their physical environment by:</p> <p>AH. PPE 4 describing how Alaska's strategic location played an important role in military buildup and explaining the interrelated social and economic impacts. [DOK 2] (G. A5)</p> <p>AH. PPE 5 comparing and contrasting the differing perspectives between rural and urban areas. [DOK 2] (H. B1b, C. E4)</p> <p>AH. PPE 6 analyzing patterns of movement and settlement. [DOK 2] (H. B4, G. D3)</p> <p>AH. PPE 7 using texts/ sources to explain the political, social, cultural, economic, geographic, and historic characteristics of the student's community or region. [DOK 3] (H. B1b, C. E2, E8)</p>	<p>The student demonstrates an understanding of the discovery, impact, and role of natural resources by:</p> <p>AH. CPD 4 describing the federal government's construction and maintenance of Alaska's infrastructure (e.g., transportation, communication, public health system, education). [DOK 1] (G. D4)</p> <p>AH. CPD 5 using texts/ sources to analyze the multiple perspectives in the continuing debate between conservation and development of resources. [DOK 3] (G. E4, F3)</p> <p>AH. CPD 6 describing the formation of Alaska Native Corporations and their impact on Alaska's economy. [DOK 2] (GC. F9)</p> <p>AH. CPD 7 explaining the creation and implementation of the Permanent Fund and how it has impacted the state. [DOK 2] (GC. F9)</p>	<p>The student demonstrates an understanding of the historical rights and responsibilities of Alaskans by:</p> <p>AH. ICGP 3 explaining and analyzing tribal and western concepts of land ownership and how acting upon those concepts contributes to changes in land use, control, and ownership (e.g., ANCSA, ANILCA). [DOK 4] (H. C7, C8)</p> <p>AH. ICGP 8 describing how Alaskans, particularly the Native people, challenge the status quo to gain recognition of their civil rights (e.g., appeals to the Russian government, Ward Cove Packing Co. Case, Molly Hootch, anti-discrimination acts, women's suffrage). [DOK 2] (H. B2, GC. B5)</p> <p>AH. ICGP 10 identifying the role of Alaska Native individuals and groups in actively proposing and promoting federal legislation and policies (e.g., William Paul, Tanana Chiefs, ANB, ANS) [DOK 1] (H. A1, B2)</p> <p>AH. ICGP 12 using texts/ sources to analyze the evolution of self-government through an examination of organic documents (i.e., Treaty of Cession, Organic Act, Territorial Act, Alaska State Constitution, Statehood Act). [DOK 3] (H. B2, B4)</p>	<p>The student demonstrates an understanding of the chronology of Alaska history by:</p> <p>AH. CC 4 giving correct and incorrect examples to explain subsistence as a way of life. [DOK 2] (H. B1b)</p> <p>AH. CC 5 defining, describing, and illustrating the economic, political, and social characteristics of the major periods, their key turning points (e.g., implementation of Prudhoe Bay pipeline, Molly Hootch case, ANCSA, ANILCA, ANWR, natural and manmade disasters, establishment of Alaska Native Corporations) and how they interrelate. [DOK 4] (H. B2)</p> <p>AH. CC 6 explaining the historical context and the legal foundations (e.g., Alaska Constitution, ANCSA, MMPA, ANILCA, Katie John case) pertinent to subsistence. [DOK 1] (GC. A2, C. A4)</p> <p>AH. CC 7 comparing and contrasting the perspectives of sport, commercial, and subsistence users on policies regarding fish and game management. [DOK 2] (G. E4, F5)</p>

PERFORMANCE STANDARDS (Grade Level Expectations)

Grade	Resources	Status/Textbook
<p>Grade 9</p> <p>Alaska Studies and elective</p> <p>Alaska studies is generally taken in 9th grade.</p> <p>This semester course is required for graduation.</p> <p>Teacher Guides are available to employees only through the District Connection</p> <p>Elective choices may include (dependent on school):</p> <p>Ancient civilizations</p> <p>Global geography</p>	<p>Grade 9</p> <p>Alaska Studies Academic Plans</p> <p>Alaska Studies is an in-depth exploration of the rich geographic and cultural background of the state and its people, from the early native peoples to the Russian era through statehood to the present. This course includes the examination of the geography, history, and political and economic forces that have shaped contemporary Alaska. Content is organized around five themes population, land, resource, governance, and cultural landscape. The course seeks to ensure that students have a strong foundation in the historical and cultural contexts of issues facing the state so they will develop a broad sense of community and strengthen skills that will encourage thoughtful consideration of issues and choices facing Alaska.</p>	<p>Alaska studies adopted 2005</p>
<p>Grade 10</p> <p>World History</p> <p>This is a year-long course and required for graduation</p>	<p>Grade 10</p> <p>This course provides a study of world history. Included in the first semester of the ASD world history curriculum are the geographic regions of Greece, Rome, India, The Far East; China, Japan, Korea, and Africa. Geography, humanities, religions, government, economy, society, science, and technology are some of the themes/perspectives by which these areas of the world will be explored. Included in the second semester are the geographic regions of the Middle East, ancient Americas, Byzantium, and Europe. Geography, humanities, religions, government, economy, society, science, and technology are some of the themes/perspectives by which these areas of the world will be explored.</p>	<p>New curriculum adopted June 2007</p>
<p>Grade 11</p> <p>US History</p> <p>This is a year-long course and required for graduation.</p>	<p>Grade 11</p> <p>This course provides the study of United States history with some integration of world history. Historiography, geography, economics, government, humanities, sociology, religions, philosophy, science, and technology are some of the themes/perspectives by which US history will be examined. The first semester will investigate/explore the American experience through the post WW I era (roaring twenties) and the beginning of the Great Depression. The second semester will investigate/explore the American experience from the Great Depression through contemporary America.</p>	<p>U.S. History adopted 2007</p>

High School World History

Instructional Focus: Semester 1: Broad scope introduction to Early Human Civilizations through Revolutions of the 17 th Century.	
Unit 1-Review of Ancient Civilization	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> How can you use historical tools of investigation to explain the development of early civilizations? 	
Alaska Standards	C3 Framework for Social Studies State Standards
H.A1, H.A2, H.A3, H.A4, H.A5, H.A8, H.A9, H.B3, H.B4, H.B5, H.C1, H.C2, H.C3, H.C4, H.D1, H.D2, H.D3, H.D4, H.D5, H.D6	C3 D2 His.1.9-12, C3 D2.His.2.9-12, C3 D3.1.9-12
Objective	Examples
Students will: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identify, evaluate, and use the methods and tools valued by historians. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Investigate Archeological discoveries and make inferences toward their significance. Review key vocabulary and geographical significance of early civilizations.
Alaska Standards	C3 Framework for Social Studies State Standards
GC.A1, GC.A2, GC.A3, GC.A4, GC.E2, GC.F1, GC.F2, GC.F3, GC.F4, GCF5, GC.G2, GC.G5, GC.G6, GC.G7, H A1, H Ba-d, G.A1, G.A2, G.A3, G.A4, G.A5, G.B1, G.B2, G.B3, G.B4, G.B7, G.B8, G.D1, G.D2, G.D3, G.D4, G.D5, G.E1, G.E2, G.E3, G.E4, G.E5, G.F1, G.F2,	C3 D2.Geo.4.9-12, C3 D2 His.1.9-12, C3 D2.His.2.9-12, C3 D2.His.6.9-12, C3 D2.His.8.9-12, C3 D2.His.9.9-12, C3 D2.His.10.9-12, C3 D2.His.11.9-12, C3 D3.1.9-12
Objective	Examples
Students will: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Review the development of early civilizations in Africa, Asia, and Europe. 	
Ancient Greek & Roman Civilization	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> How do the developments of government in Greece/Rome compare with those of modern government/USA? 	
Alaska Standards	C3 Framework for Social Studies State Standards
GC.A1, GC.A2, GC.A3, GC.A4, GC.E1, GC.E4, H.A1, H.A6, H.A8, H.B1a, c H.B2, H.B4	C3 D2 His.1.9-12, C3 D2.His.2.9-12, C3 D3.1.9-12
Objective	Examples
Students will: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Analyze Athenian Democracy. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Read and analyze the significance of Thermopylae on Greece and Modern Culture. Compare Sparta and Athenian styles of governance and society. Explain the significance of Alexander and the spreading of Greek culture.
Alaska Standards	C3 Framework for Social Studies State Standards
G.F1, GC.A1, GC.A2, GC.A3, GC.A4, GC.C1, GC.C2, GC.D3, GC.E4, GC.E7, H.A1, H.A4, H.A7, H.B1a, b, d, H.B2, H.B4	C3 D2 His.1.9-12, C3 D2.His.2.9-12, C3 D3.1.9-12
Objective	Examples
Students will: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Summarize the conflicts between Greece and the Persians. 	
Alaska Standards	C3 Framework for Social Studies State Standards
G.D1, G.D5, GC.A2, GC.A3, GC.A4, H.A1, H.A6, H.A8, H.B1a, c, H.B2	C3 D2.Civ.6.9-12, C3 D2 His.1.9-12, C3 D2.His.2.9-12, C3 D3.1.9-12
Objective	Examples

Students will: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Determine the value of the Classical Greek drama, literature, and philosophy. 	
Alaska Standards G.B1, GC.A1, GC.A2, GC.A3, GC.A4, GC.C6, GC.C8, GC.E1, GC.E2, GC.E3, GC.E4, GC.E5, H.A1, H.A7, H.B1a, d, H.B2, H.B4	C3 Framework for Social Studies State Standards C3 D2 His.1.9-12, C3 D2.His.2.9-12, C3 D3.1.9-12
Objective	Examples
Students will: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Analyze the establishment, expansion, and evolution of the Hellenistic empire. (e.g. military, science, philosophy) 	
Alaska Standards G.A5, GC.A1, GC.A2, GC.A3, GC.A4, H.A1, H.A2, H.A3, H.A5, H.A6, H.B1a, c	C3 Framework for Social Studies State Standards C3 D2 His.1.9-12, C3 D2.His.2.9-12, C3 D3.1.9-12
Objective	Examples
Students will: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Retell the myth of the founding of Rome. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Read the myth and students rewrite in a modern setting. Comparison of changes between the Republic and Empire of Rome. Investigate and prioritize the theories for the fall of the Western Roman Empire. Investigate the Legacy of the Roman Empire: Ruins, Government, Language/Vocabulary, etc.
Alaska Standards G.A1-5, GC.A1, GC.A2, GC.A3, GC.A4, GC.B2, GC.B5, GC.E1, GC.G2, H.A1, H.A5, H.A6, H.A7, H.B1c, d, H.B2	C3 Framework for Social Studies State Standards C3 D2 His.1.9-12, C3 D2.His.2.9-12, C3 D3.1.9-12
Objective	Examples
Students will: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Examine the characteristics of the Roman Republic vs. the Roman Empire. 	
Alaska Standards G.D5, GC.E1, GC.E7, H.A1, H.A3, H.A7, H.B1a, d	C3 Framework for Social Studies State Standards C3 D2 His.1.9-12, C3 D2.His.2.9-12, C3 D3.1.9-12
Objective	Examples
Students will: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Assess the importance of the Three Punic Wars. 	
Alaska Standards G.E3, GC.A2, GC.A3, GC.A4, GC.B2, H.B1c, H C3	C3 Framework for Social Studies State Standards C3 D2 His.1.9-12, C3 D2.His.2.9-12, C3 D3.1.9-12
Objective	Examples
Students will: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identify the 1st and 2nd Triumvirate and analyze their impact on Rome. 	
Alaska Standards G.D1, G.D5, GC.A2, GC.A3, GC.A4, GC.B8, GC.C2, GC.C7, GC.C8, GC.D3, GC.E1, GC.E2, GC.E3, GC.E4, GC.E5, GC.E6, GC.E7, H.D2	C3 Framework for Social Studies State Standards C3 D2 His.1.9-12, C3 D2.His.2.9-12, C3 D3.1.9-12
Objective	Examples
Students will: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Evaluate the legacy of Rome's legal system. 	
Alaska Standards G.D4, GC.E3, GC.E4, GC.E5, GC.G2, H.A7, H.B4	C3 Framework for Social Studies State Standards C3 D2 His.1.9-12, C3 D2.His.2.9-12, C3 D3.1.9-12
Objective	Examples

Alaska Performance Standards

<p>Historical Inquiry: The student demonstrates an understanding of the methods of documenting history by: AH.HI 1 planning and developing history projects, utilizing research tools such as: interviewing protocols, oral history, historical context, pre-interview research, primary sources, secondary sources, proper citation, corroboration, and cause and effect of historical events.</p>
<p>Indigenous Alaskans Before Western Contact (time immemorial-contact) <i>Suggested Topics (not an inclusive list)</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Locations • Social organizations • Cultures • Political traditions • Natural resources • Cultural changes • Archeology • Native oral traditions
<p>People, Places, Environment</p>
<p><i>The student demonstrates an understanding of the interaction between people and their physical environment by:</i></p>
<p>AH. PPE 1 comparing and contrasting geographic regions of Alaska. AH. PPE 2 using texts/sources to analyze the similarities and differences in the cultural attributes (e.g., language, hunting and gathering practices, art, music/dance, beliefs, worldview), movement, interactions, and settlement of Alaska Native peoples. AH. PPE 3 using texts/sources to analyze the effect of the historical contributions and/or influences of significant individuals, groups and local, regional, statewide, international organizations.</p>
<p>Individual, Citizenship, Governance, Power</p>
<p><i>The student demonstrates an understanding of the historical rights and responsibilities of Alaskans by:</i></p>
<p>AH. ICGP 1 identifying and summarizing the structures, functions, and transformation of various attributes (e.g., leadership, decision-making, social and political organization) of traditional Alaska Native governance.</p>
<p>Colonial Era-The Russian Period (1741-1867) <i>Suggested Topics (not an inclusive list)</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rationale for European explorations • Epidemics • Utilization of Alaskan resources • Relationships with indigenous peoples • Role of significant leaders (e.g., Katlian, Baranov, Veniaminov, Netsvetov) • Missionary activities • Russian dependence on Alaska Natives • Russia's incentive to sell
<p>People, Places, Environment</p>
<p><i>The student demonstrates an understanding of the interaction between people and their physical environment by:</i></p>
<p>AH. PPE 2 using texts/sources to analyze the similarities and differences in the cultural attributes (e.g., language, hunting and gathering practices, art, music/dance, beliefs, worldview), movement, interactions, and settlement of Alaska Native peoples. AH. PPE 3 using texts/sources to analyze the effect of the historical contributions and/or influences of significant individuals, groups and local, regional, statewide, international organizations.</p>
<p>Consumption, Production, Distribution</p>
<p><i>The student demonstrates an understanding of the discovery, impact, and role of natural resources by:</i></p>
<p>AH. CPD 1 identifying patterns of growth, transformation, competition, and boom and bust, in response to use of natural resources (e.g., supply and demand of fur, minerals, and whaling).</p>
<p>Individual, Citizenship, Governance, Power</p>
<p><i>The student demonstrates an understanding of the historical rights and responsibilities of Alaskans by:</i></p>
<p>AH. ICGP 2 using texts/sources to analyze the impacts of the relationships between Alaska Natives and Russians (i.e., Russian Orthodox Church, early fur traders, Russian American Companies, enslavement, and Creoles).</p>

Continuity and Change
<i>The student demonstrates an understanding of the chronology of Alaska history by:</i>
AH. CC 1 using texts/sources to recognize and explain the interrelationships among Alaska, national, and international events and developments (e.g., international interest, trade, commerce).
The Colonial Era-The United States Period (1867-1912) <i>Suggested Topics (Not inclusive list)</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • United States motives for purchasing Russia's interest in Alaska • Treaty of Cession • Legal status of Alaska Natives under the Commerce Clause and the Marshall Trilogy • Mining Law of 1872 • Organic Act of 1884 • Role of Sheldon Jackson • Resources (e.g., whaling, fur trading, mining, commercial fisheries) • Gold Rush • Nelson Act of 1905 and the dual school system • Creation of National Forests
People, Places, Environment
<i>The student demonstrates an understanding of the interaction between people and their physical environment by:</i>
AH. PPE 3 using texts/sources to analyze the effect of the historical contributions and/or influences of significant individuals, groups and local, regional, statewide, international organizations.
Consumption, Production, Distribution
<i>The student demonstrates an understanding of the discovery, impact, and role of natural resources by:</i>
AH. CPD 2 using texts/sources to draw conclusions about the role of the federal government in natural resource development and land management (e.g., jurisdiction, authority, agencies, programs, policies).
Individual, Citizenship, Governance, Power
<i>The student demonstrates an understanding of the historical rights and responsibilities of Alaskans by:</i>
AH. ICGP 3 explaining and analyzing tribal and western concepts of land ownership and how acting upon those concepts contributes to changes in land use, control, and ownership. AH. ICGP 4 explaining Alaskans quest for self-determination (i.e., full rights as U.S. citizens) through the statehood movement. AH. ICGP 5 explaining the impacts of military actions (e.g., Naval bombardment of Angoon, Aleut internment, military expeditions) relative to Native communities. IGCP 6 using texts/sources to analyze how the military population and its activities, including administrative, policing, defense, mapping, communication, and construction, have impacted communities. AH. ICGP 7 describing the historical basis of federal recognition of tribes, their inherent and delegated powers, the ongoing nature and diversity of tribal governance, and the plenary power of Congress.
Continuity and Change
<i>The student demonstrates an understanding of the chronology of Alaska history by:</i>
AH. CC 2 describing how policies and practices of non-natives (e.g., missionaries, miners, Alaska Commercial Company merchants) influenced Alaska Natives.
Alaska as a Territory (1912-1959) <i>Suggested Topics (Not inclusive list)</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Territorial Organic Act of 1912 • Native efforts toward civil and land rights (e.g., founding of Alaska Native Brotherhood (ANB), Alaska Native Sisterhood (ANS), and Tanana Chiefs) • Role of significant individuals (e.g., Judge Wickersham, William Paul, Elizabeth Peratrovich, Ernest Gruening) • Infrastructure (e.g., railroad, aviation, roads, ships) • Indian Reorganization Act • World War II and internment of Aleuts and Japanese Americans • Cold War • National Parks and National Forests, resources (e.g., oil, timber, coal) • Constitutional Convention, constitution, and statehood
People, Places, Environment
<i>The student demonstrates an understanding of the interaction between people and their physical environment by:</i>
AH.PPE 4 describing how Alaska's strategic location played an important role in military buildup and explaining the interrelated social and economic impacts.

Consumption, Production, Distribution
<i>The student demonstrates an understanding of the discovery, impact, and role of natural resources by:</i>
AH.CPD 3 using texts/sources to draw conclusions about the significance of natural resources (e.g., fisheries, timber, Swanson River oil discovery, "sustained yield" in the Alaska Constitution) in Alaska's development and in the statehood movement.
Individual, Citizenship, Governance, Power
<i>The student demonstrates an understanding of the historical rights and responsibilities of Alaskans by:</i>
AH.ICGP 4 explaining Alaskans quest for self-determination (i.e., full rights as U.S. citizens) through the statehood movement. AH.ICGP 5 explaining the impacts of military actions (e.g., Naval bombardment of Angoon, Aleut internment, military expeditions) relative to Native communities. AH.ICGP 8 describing how Alaskans, particularly the Native people, challenge the status quo to gain recognition of their civil rights (e.g., appeals to the Russian government, Ward Cove Packing Co. Case, Molly Hootch, anti-discrimination acts, women's suffrage). AH.ICGP 9 exploring the federal government's influence on settlements in Alaska (e.g., Matanuska Colony, Anchorage, Adak, Tok, Hydaburg) by establishment of post offices, military facilities, schools, courts, and railroads. AH.ICGP 10 identifying the role of Alaska Native individuals and groups in actively proposing and promoting federal legislation and policies (e.g., William Paul, Tanana Chiefs, ANB, ANs). AH.ICGP 11 exploring federal policies and legislation (e.g., Alaska Citizenship Act, Tlingit Haida Jurisdiction Act, Indian Citizenship Act of 1924, Alaska Reorganization Act, ANCSA) that recognized Native rights.
Continuity and Change
<i>The student demonstrates an understanding of the chronology of Alaska history by:</i>
AH.CC 3 describing how the roles and responsibilities in Alaska Native societies have been continuously influenced by changes in technology, economic practices, and social interactions.
Alaska as a State (1959-present) <i>Suggested Topics (Not an inclusive list)</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Role of significant individuals (e.g., Eben Hopson, Howard Rock, Ted Stevens, Katie John) • Controversies of Statehood Act land selections • Disasters (e.g., 1964 Earthquake, 1967 Interior flood, Exxon Valdez oil spill) • Formation of Inuit Circumpolar Conference • Formation of AFN • Development of public education (e.g., Molly Hootch case) • Prudhoe Bay and oil pipeline construction • Permanent Fund • Alaska Native Claims Settlement Act (ANCSA) • Marine Mammal Protection Act 1972 (MMPA) • Alaska National Interest Lands Conservation Act (ANILCA) • Indian Self-Determination Act 1975 • Indian Child Welfare Act 1978 • Arctic National Wildlife Refuge (ANWR) • Tourism • Fiscal issues
People, Places, Environment
<i>The student demonstrates an understanding of the interaction between people and their physical environment by:</i>
AH.PPE 4 describing how Alaska's strategic location played an important role in military buildup and explaining the interrelated social and economic impacts. AH.PPE 5 comparing and contrasting the differing perspectives between rural and urban areas. AH.PPE 6 analyzing patterns of movement and settlement. AH.PPE 7 using texts/sources to explain the political, social, cultural, economic, geographic, and historic characteristics of the student's community or region.
Consumption, Production, Distribution
<i>The student demonstrates an understanding of the discovery, impact, and role of natural resources by:</i>
AH.CPD 4 describing the federal government's construction and maintenance of Alaska's infrastructure (e.g., transportation, communication, public health system, education). AH.CPD 5 using texts/sources to analyze the multiple perspectives in the continuing debate between conservation and development of resources. AH.CPD 6 describing the formation of Alaska Native Corporations and their impact on Alaska's economy. AH.CPD 7 explaining the creation and implementation of the Permanent Fund and how it has impacted the state.
Individual, Citizenship, Governance, Power
<i>The student demonstrates an understanding of the historical rights and responsibilities of Alaskans by:</i>
AH.ICGP 3 explaining and analyzing tribal and western concepts of land ownership and how acting upon those concepts contributes to changes in land use, control, and ownership. AH.ICGP 8 describing how Alaskans, particularly the Native

High School US History

Instructional Focus: Semester 1: Covers the time period of Reconstruction through the Great Depression. Students will be analyzing political, economic and cultural policies, changes and shifts in American society.	
Reconstruction	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What are the political and social dimensions of Reconstruction? • What events ended Reconstruction? 	
Alaska Standards	C3 Framework for Social Studies State Standards
GC.B5, H.A1, H.A7, H.B1e	C3 D2.Civ.13.9-12
Objective	Examples
Students will: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Describe the significance of the 13th, 14th, and 15th Amendments. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Analyze the changes in voting laws, voter registration and turn out. Comparison of Jim Crow Laws and Black Code.
Alaska Standards	C3 Framework for Social Studies State Standards
GC.B3, H.A5, H.B1e	C3 D2.His.16.9-12.
Objective	Examples
Students will: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Evaluate obstacles and resistance to racial equality. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Analyze the changes in voting laws, voter registration and turn out. Comparison of Jim Crow Laws and Black Code • Analyze racial preconceptions in Reconstruction America
Alaska Standards	C3 Framework for Social Studies State Standards
GC.B3, H.A3, H.A8, H.B1c	C3 D4.6.9-12
Objective	Examples
Students will: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Debate the strengths of Lincoln’s vision of reconstruction and Grants versus Congressional reconstruction. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Analyze the changes in voting laws, voter registration and turn out. Comparison of Jim Crow Laws and Black Code. • Create and compare using sketch or chart of each version of Reconstruction.
Alaska Standards	C3 Framework for Social Studies State Standards
G.A5, GC.B5, H.A7, H.D3	C3 D2.Civ.14.9-12, C3 D2.His.1.9-12, C3 D4.8.9-12
Objective	Examples
Students will: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identify how the Compromise of 1877 led to the end of Reconstruction. • Students will evaluate President Grant’s election and the end of Reconstruction 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Analyze the changes in voting laws, voter registration and turn out. Comparison of Jim Crow Laws and Black Code. • Debate Hayes, Grant Presidential Election
Alaska Standards	C3 Framework for Social Studies State Standards
G.B1, GC.F3, GC.G6, H.B1b, e	C3 D2.Eco.12.9-12
Objective	Examples
Students will: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Summarize the changes in the economy and demographics of post Reconstruction America. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Examine the combination of industrial and agricultural economies after Reconstruction. • Chart and assess the impact of the Great Migration.
Native American Policy: Post Reconstruction	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What was the United States policy towards Native Americans? 	
Alaska Standards	C3 Framework for Social Studies State Standards
GC.A3, GC.C8, H.A4, H.C2	C3 D2.Civ.6.9-12, C3 D2.His.5.9-12

Objective	Examples
Students will: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identify America's new policies toward Native Americans after Reconstruction and the Civil War Examine the mission, impact, and history of the BIA. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identify responsibilities of the Bureau of Indian Affairs and its impact on Native American Culture and way of life Identify the impact of the reservation system upon Native Americans, the U.S. Governments and federally recognized Tribal Governments. Investigate why Native Americans were not included in the 13th, 14th, and 15th Amendments with respect to the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution, and the Bill of Rights.
Alaska Standards	C3 Framework for Social Studies State Standards
CS.E5, G.B6, G.B7, G.D4, G.D5	C3 D2.Geo.3.9-12, C3 D2.His.5.9-12
Objective	Examples
Students will: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Debate the creation and impact of the American Indian reservation system. Justify the creation of three types of Federal Reserve Lands. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Classify the three types of Federal Reserve Lands (Military, Public, Indian). Discuss and debate the U.S treaty systems, with American Tribal Governments. Interpret ANCSA and ANILCA legislation in relation to Alaska Native land rights.
Alaska Standards	C3 Framework for Social Studies State Standards
GC.G6, H.B2, H.B4	C3 D4.3.9-12
Objective	Examples
Students will: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Assess the 14th Amendment's impact on Native American life. Examine the Dawes General Allotment Act. Identify effects of privatization of communal reservation lands on Native American Culture. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Write on op-ed on how the 14th Amendment affected Native Americans. Collect and categorize the impacts of the Dawes Act and Westward expansion on Native Americans. Compare and contrast the effects of the U.S. Governments efforts to assimilate Native Americans into U.S. culture. Compare and contrast ANCSA and ANILCA legislation with respect to the Dawes Act.
Making of Modern America	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> What are the important consequences of American industrial growth? How did technological innovations impact society? How did Executive powers expand in the early 20th century? 	
Alaska Standards	C3 Framework for Social Studies State Standards
G.A5, G.D1, GC.B9, GC.G3	C3 D2.His.15.9-12, C3 D4.2.9-12
Objective	Examples
Students will: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Analyze the impact on people and the environment as well as immigration as a result of industrial growth. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identify immigration patterns by national origin. Mini-reports on communication, transportation and other technological advances.
Alaska Standards	C3 Framework for Social Studies State Standards
GC.B2, GC.F7, GC.G6, H.B1e, H.C1	C3 D2.Eco.9.9-12, C3 D2.His.15.9-12, C3 D4.2.9-12
Objectives	Examples
Students will: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identify working conditions in industrialized America. Compile changes to working conditions by organized labor. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Construct a timeline of working condition changes during the industrial revolution. Assemble a list of early developmental benchmarks of labor organizations. Compare and contrast working conditions between union and non-union laborers.

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