

**World History Hybrid Course  
Development  
Process and Product Consortium**

**REVIEW OF RESEARCH AND LITERATURE  
ON WORLD HISTORY TEACHING AND LEARNING, 1995-2010**



**FOR THE MARYLAND DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION**

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## Table of Contents

<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS .....</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>EXECUTIVE SUMMARY .....</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>HISTORY’S ROLE: WHY STUDY HISTORY? .....</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>THE NATURE OF WORLD HISTORY: HOW HAS THE FIELD DEVELOPED?.....</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>TEACHING ABOUT THE WORLD: WHAT ARE EXAMPLES OF CHALLENGES AND CONTROVERSIES IN THE FIELD OF WORLD HISTORY? .....</b>	<b>7</b>
<b>VARIED PATTERNS, STANDARDS, AND FRAMEWORKS FOR WORLD HISTORY: HOW CAN THEY SUPPORT CURRICULUM DESIGN? .....</b>	<b>8</b>
<b>COURSE DESIGN: WHAT ARE WAYS TO ORGANIZE A WORLD HISTORY COURSE?.....</b>	<b>15</b>
<b>WORLD HISTORY AS A WAY OF THINKING: HOW CAN STUDENTS LEARN HOW TO THINK LIKE HISTORIANS?.....</b>	<b>18</b>
<b>WAYS OF THINKING ABOUT WORLD HISTORY: HOW IS THAT KNOWLEDGE USEFUL TO EDUCATORS?.....</b>	<b>21</b>
<b>POSSIBLE STUDENT MISCONCEPTIONS: WHAT ARE TYPICAL INSTRUCTIONAL CHALLENGES? .....</b>	<b>22</b>
<b>EXAMPLES OF RESEARCH AND MODELS: HOW CAN RESEARCH-BASED MODELS SUPPORT PLANNING, INSTRUCTION, AND ASSESSMENT IN WORLD HISTORY? .....</b>	<b>25</b>
<b>INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICES: WHAT PRACTICES AND STRATEGIES SUPPORT LEARNING IN WORLD HISTORY?.....</b>	<b>31</b>
<b>ASSESSMENT OF HISTORY—WHAT KIND OF HISTORICAL UNDERSTANDING IS IMPORTANT TO ASSESS? .....</b>	<b>44</b>
<b>TEACHER EDUCATION AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT: HOW DO WE PREPARE TEACHERS AND SUPPORT THEIR CONTINUED GROWTH AS WORLD HISTORY TEACHERS? .....</b>	<b>49</b>

<b>ONLINE COURSE STANDARDS, DESIGN, AND IMPLEMENTATION: WHAT ARE DESIGNS FOR ONLINE COURSES? .....</b>	<b>54</b>
<b>COMBINATION ONLINE AND FACE-TO-FACE EDUCATION: WHAT IS A BLENDED MODEL? .....</b>	<b>56</b>
<b>CONCLUSION:.....</b>	<b>57</b>
<b>APPENDICES .....</b>	<b>59</b>
Appendix A: National World History Standards for Grades 5-12.....	60
Appendix B: Geography for Life: The National Geography Standards.....	65
Appendix C: Type of World History in State Standards, 2005 .....	67
Appendix D: World History required and Tested by State (2005).....	69
Appendix E: Advanced Placement World History Periods and Themes.....	71
Appendix F: Representation of Dimensions of a Discipline and Levels of Understanding .....	73
Appendix G: Representation of the Teaching for Understanding Framework.....	75
<b>REFERENCES.....</b>	<b>77</b>

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## **EXECUTIVE SUMMARY**

Since the founding of the nation, education has been viewed as the means to insure that successive generations of citizens are knowledgeable, able, and willing to sustain and improve the republic. Knowledge and methods drawn from disciplines such as history support social studies education, K-12, in its mission to develop students who are equipped to make informed and reasoned decisions for the public good as citizens of a culturally diverse, democratic society in an interdependent world. Living in an interdependent world calls for knowledge of world history as a foundation for understanding various peoples of the world and today's ongoing issues.

This review of research and literature, prepared for the Maryland Department of Education, serves as one source of information to support the development of a World History course based on knowledge of background in the field and current best practices. This course will become available to Maryland teachers and students as in-class instruction, as an online course, or as a combination of both, known as blended instruction. This review of literature and research also provides a current view of world history, its organization, controversies, and trends influencing the quality of planning, instruction and assessment. It includes a review of the nature of history, specifically world history, as typically practiced within the curriculum. Representative research provides background from current work that can be used to inform the development, implementation, and assessment of world history in the curriculum.

Major themes in this review include: curriculum patterns, standards, instruction, and assessment; illustrative programs; and teacher education and professional development. The interactions of these themes influence world history instruction and student learning. Latest views on ways to organize world history are explored as well as national curriculum standards in social studies which provide guidelines for the development of K-12 curriculum. National content standards in history—especially in world history—represent consensus views of what content and instruction scholars and professionals assert should be emphasized in high-quality programs. The national standards documents emphasize important themes, knowledge, and processes, and that instruction should engage students in methods that mirror, to the extent possible and appropriate, the ways in which experts in the disciplines develop and share knowledge so that learning is active, purposeful, engaging, and authentic.

National standards have become the foundation of state standards and state assessments of student progress, as well as the basis for some of the national assessments of educational progress. However, it is noted that at a time when the need for alert, informed, and committed citizenship has never been more important to the republic, social studies receives less emphasis and national assessment of world history has been delayed far into the future.

Especially effective practices for planning, instruction, and assessment in social studies are highlighted in the review because of their strong potential to support excellence in teaching and learning. All of the national standards documents assert that effective programs must help students learn important content and processes, beginning in primary school grades and

building competence within each grade, PreK-12. All agree that social studies and the disciplines from which it draws take as their purpose the preparation of capable, involved, globally conscious citizens. In a democratic society, literacy is “basic” (as it is in nearly every type of society), but insufficient, on its own, to foster informed, and active civic participation. In a democratic society much more is required of citizens if they are going to meet the continuing challenge of sustaining and improving the republic and contributing in positive ways as citizens of this nation and members of the global community. Schools have a vital civic mission that is carried out through a clearly indispensable “basic” in the curriculum--the crucial “basic” for a democratic society--social studies, of which world history is a vital part.

## **History’s Role: Why Study History?**

The study of history is crucial in our increasingly diverse and globally interdependent world. Yet, the study of history is, as Sam Wineburg asserts, an unnatural act. He writes:

Coming to know others, whether they live on the other side of the tracks or the other side of the millennium, requires the education of our sensibilities... to go beyond the fleeting moment in human history into which we have been born. History educates (“leads outward” in Latin) in the deepest sense. Of the subjects in the secular curriculum, it is the best at teaching those virtues once reserved for theology—humility in the face of our limited ability to know, and awe in the face of the expanse of human history (2001, pp. 23-24).

Patrick Manning defines world history as:

the story of connections within the global human community. The world historian’s work is to portray the crossing of boundaries and the linking of systems in the human past. The source material ranges in scale from individual family tales to migrations of peoples to narratives encompassing all humanity... It adds to our accumulated knowledge of the past through its focus on connections among historical localities, time periods, and themes of study (2003, p. 3).

World history is a foundation for understanding how humanity has arrived at the present. It provides the foundation needed to move into the future.

## **The Nature of World History: How Has the Field Developed?**

A Western focus has dominated world history courses until more recent times. Not surprising, a great impetus for a more global perspective came during the dawn of the space age, the Cold War period, and the spread of multinational institutions and organizations (Merryfield & Wilson, 2005, p. 15). Manning points to two predominant paths of study, one focused on the rise of great empires (more recently enriched as historians look for global connections across

empires) and another focusing on great quantities of information about change over time outside the traditional bounds of history (2003, p. 4). Teachers began to take a broadened view of world history as early as the 1960s. A non-western emphasis grew in the '70s and '80s, with additional impetus from the founding of the World History Association in 1982, from Ernest Boyer's *Carnegie Report* recommending the inclusion of non-Western history, and from a college board booklet using the study of world civilizations (p. 69).

Since 1900, organizing the field of world history has been influenced by the growth of organizations, institutions, and publications relevant to world history (e.g., the World History Association, *Building a History Curriculum: Guidelines for Teaching History*, the Bradley Commission Report on History in the Schools (1988), the Task Force of the National Commission on Social Studies in the Schools report, "*Charting a Course: Social Studies for the 21<sup>st</sup> Century*," (1989), the American History Association). In addition, there have been calls for expanding area-studies approaches, for the development of thematic approaches, for studies of broader conceptual scope—moving away from any single area of historical specialization, and for the examination of narratives in United States and world history courses for more wide-ranging interpretations that place the United States and Europe in a global context. In general, the emphasis has been on addressing more global issues and connections (Manning, 2003, pp. 79-105).

Global studies became a framework for analysis during the 1990s and received impetus in the late twentieth century from the increasing number and intensity of global connections (p. 163). Scholarly advances in political and economic history, social history, and cultural history since that period, continue to influence the field of world history. In his book, *Navigating World History: Historians Create a Global Past*, Manning describes global studies in world history as interactive studies of wide scope—extending the scope of study to "large geographical regions, wide slices of time, and a broad range of human and natural phenomena" (p. 170).

## **Teaching About the World: What Are Examples of Challenges and Controversies in the Field of World History?**

Organizing knowledge in the field of world history is not without its challenges and controversies. Some critics see introducing content about world history and the historic roots of issues today as crowding an already strained curriculum. Some attack world studies as promoting one-world government or see such studies as unpatriotic—especially critics who believe that students should learn a single, mainstream American point of view. In some communities, "teaching multiple perspectives is seen as subverting unity and nationalism, while in others, this pedagogy is taken for granted as part of students' development of critical inquiry skills" (Merryfield, 2009). Educators are also influenced, and in some cases challenged, by their own experiences, preparation, knowledge, comfort level, cultural diversity, tolerance for ambiguity, and skill at critical thought.

Dunn points to two contrasting world history arenas regarding world history as a school subject. He describes Arena A as including those scholars and educators who believe that the primary emphasis of world history investigation must be about change at large, the planet as a whole. Areas of focus in Arena A include the human species in its changing physical and natural environment; interactions among human societies; patterns of change in world-scale context that cut across and transcend countries, civilizations and societies; and connections among peoples and societies studied as long-term historical processes. The curriculum is organized around large scales of change and issues related to human and cultural development. Arena B has had the most influence on state standards, and is advocated by those who favor curriculum centered on American and European history. In Arena B, the study of the field of world history is described as a way to promote national cohesion and includes multiculturalists who favor addressing cultural diversity, social justice, and international mindedness. The curriculum, as designed in Arena B, generally includes content on Africa, Asia, and Latin America, but is organized region by region (Dunn, 2010, pp. 183-195).

## **Varied Patterns, Standards, and Frameworks for World History: How Can They Support Curriculum Design?**

Clearly, national standards are not the only way to describe disciplines as represented in school subjects within the social studies. However, they do represent a broad K-12 view, since in every case, the processes of developing standards documents included input from scholars and, in most cases, hundreds of educators, professional disciplinarians, teachers, and representatives of national professional organizations.

World history is found within social studies departments in the nation's schools. Standards and position statements from the National Council for the Social Studies have played a key role in providing guidance for curriculum developers across the United States interested in large-view, crosscutting themes which derive from many interrelated disciplines.

The National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS), formed in 1921, has become the largest organization representing social studies educators (nearly 20,000 members in fifty states, Washington, D.C. and seventeen countries of the world). Participating in the standards movement of the '90s, NCSS funded and developed curriculum standards, *Expectations of Excellence: Curriculum Standards for Social Studies*, over a three-year period (1994). These standards are newly revised (to be published in the spring of 2010). However, the new standards continue to highlight ten themes--seven of the themes drawing heavily on a specific discipline, but each also supported by other disciplines. Three additional themes are highly interdisciplinary. Each theme has accompanying performance expectations at early grades, middle grades, and high school. In the newly revised standards, themes identify a framework for planning the purposes, knowledge, processes and forms important to disciplines as they support the development of PreK-12 social studies curriculum. The ten themes are:

- (1) Culture

- (2) Time, Continuity, and Change
- (3) People, Places, and Environments
- (4) Individual Development and Identity
- (5) Individuals, Groups, and Institutions
- (6) Power, Authority, and Governance
- (7) Production, Distribution, and Consumption
- (8) Science, Technology, and Society
- (9) Global Connections, and
- (10) Civic Ideals and Practices

In 1992, the NCSS Board of Directors adopted the following definition of social studies which appears in the standards document:

Social studies is the integrated study of the social sciences and humanities to promote civic competence. Within the school program, social studies provides coordinated, systematic study drawing upon such disciplines as anthropology, archaeology, economics, geography, history, law, philosophy, political science, psychology, religion, and sociology, as well as appropriate content from the humanities, mathematics, and natural sciences. The primary purpose of social studies is to help young people develop the ability to make informed and reasoned decisions for the public good as citizens of a culturally diverse, democratic society in an interdependent world (NCSS, 1994, p. 3 and 2010).

The purpose of social studies is stated as helping students become able to make “informed, reasoned decisions for the public good as citizens of a culturally diverse, democratic society in an interdependent world.” Some have argued that citizenship, as a goal, is too broad to serve as the purpose for social studies. Yet, students who will assume the role of sustaining and improving democratic society must draw on knowledge and the ability to apply methods of inquiry and forms of expression and communication that reflect disciplines such as world history. Thus, the NCSS definition and standards recognize the importance of purposes, knowledge, methods and forms of disciplines, as well as the importance of using disciplines in integrated, interdisciplinary learning to accomplish the civic purposes of social studies. Civic purposes of social studies include developing inquiring and reflective learners who have disciplinary understanding and who are capable of informed, engaged civic participation in the affairs of the nation and world. (See the NCSS Position Statement: *Creating Effective Citizens*, 2001).

In 2001, the National Council for the Social Studies developed the position statement, *Preparing Citizens for a Global Community*. It states:

The National Council for the Social Studies believes that an effective social studies program must include global and international education. Global and international education is important because the day-to-day lives of average citizens around the world are influenced by burgeoning international connections. The human experience is an increasingly globalized phenomenon in which people are constantly being influenced by transnational, cross-cultural, multicultural and multiethnic interactions... Global education and international education are complementary approaches with different emphases. The integration of both perspectives is imperative for students to develop the skills, knowledge and attitudes needed for responsible participation in a democratic society and in a global community in the twenty-first century. International studies focuses on the in-depth study of a specific area or region of the world to develop knowledge and understanding of another culture. A global perspective is attentive to the interconnectedness of the human and natural environment and the interrelated nature of events, problems or ideas. An important characteristic of global studies is the analysis of problems, issues, or ideas from a perspective that deals with the nature of change and interdependence.

Clearly, world history helps to highlight international and global connections across time and space.

In 1994, the *National Standards for History* were developed to highlight both content and historical thinking standards (National Center for History in the Schools, Revised in 1996). *The National Standards for History* contains the national voluntary history standards for grades K-4 and for United States history, grades 5-12, and World History, grades 5-12 (See Appendix A: National World History Standards for Grade 5-12). Even though they are voluntary, the standards provide guidance in planning history curriculum and assessments. The result of a four-year process involving broad participation by historians, educators, parents, members of professional organizations, and others, the history standards document was originally published in 1994. The document was revised in 1996 to address critiques.<sup>i</sup> The standards provide several purposes for the study of history in the curriculum, K-12:

Without history, a society shares no common memory of where it has been, of what its core values are, or of what decisions of the past account for present circumstances. Without history, one cannot undertake any sensible inquiry into the political, social, or moral issues in society. And without historical knowledge and the inquiry it supports, one cannot move to the informed, discriminating citizenship essential to effective participation in the democratic process of governance and the fulfillment for all our citizens of the nation's democratic ideals. ... These learnings directly contribute to the

education of the public citizen, but they uniquely contribute to nurturing the private individual as well (National Center for History in the Schools, 1996, p. 1).

The history standards address what historical knowledge and historical methods are important for students to learn. Instruction is based on standards that define what students should know about the history of families, their communities, states, nation and the world, as well as thinking skills that enable students to:

differentiate past, present, and future time; raise questions; seek and evaluate evidence; compare and analyze historical stories, illustrations, and records from the past; interpret the historical record; and construct historical narratives of their own (p. 2).

The standards select nine eras for study.

- Era 1: The Beginnings of Human Society
- Era 2: Early Civilizations and the Emergence of Pastoral Peoples, 4000-1000 BCE
- Era 3: Classical Traditions, Major Religions, and Giant Empires, 1000 BCE-300CE
- Era 4: Expanding Zones of Exchange and Encounter, 300-1000 CE
- Era 5: Intensified Hemispheric Interactions 1000-1500 CE
- Era 6: The Emergence of the First Global Age, 1450-1770
- Era 7: An Age of Revolutions, 1750-1914
- Era 8: A Half-Century of Crisis and Achievement 1900-1945
- Era 9: The 20<sup>th</sup> Century Since 1945: Promises and Paradoxes

The World history standards outline four widely used approaches for teaching: comparative civilizations, civilizations in global context, interregional history, and thematic history. (See Appendix A: World History Standards for Grades 5-12 for a listing of standards associated with each era of world history).

Dimensions of Historical Thinking are also listed in the World History standards as:

- chronological thinking—identifying the temporal sequence in which events occurred
- historical comprehension—listening to and reading historical narratives with understanding; being able to describe the past through the eyes of those who were there as revealed through art, literature, artifacts, records, etc.
- historical analysis and interpretation—comparing and contrasting from the past to the present; different perspectives; historical and literary representations of the past
- historical research capabilities—being able to develop historical questions from documents, artifacts, photos, accounts, visits to sites; to acquire information

related to sources; and to construct a historical narrative or story related to evidence

- historical issue-analysis and decision-making—identifying problems from the past; analyzing various points of view; evaluating alternative proposals for dealing with problems and analyzing decisions in terms of their consequences (pp. 6-7).

The thinking that historians do to reconstruct the past is highlighted in the standards to suggest that these same processes become part of instruction. Students need experience in practicing the modes of thought of historians as they attempt to understand the past.

Policy issues addressed in the standards influence the implementation of the standards at all grade levels. Issues include: providing adequate time, establishing high expectations for all students, determining what constitutes successful achievement, and promoting equity of opportunities and resources for all students in a course of study that begins in kindergarten and includes three years of United States history and three years of world history from middle school through high school (pp. 12, 57).

Geography is important in the understanding of world history. The National Geography Standards are focused around the following major areas:

- The world in spatial terms
- Places and regions
- Physical systems
- Human systems
- Environment and society
- The uses of geography (See Appendix B: Geography for Life: The National Geography Standards and <http://www.ncge.org/i4a/pages/index.cfm?pageid=3314>).

Even though standards seek to provide focus and represent a broad, consensus view of fields, standards alone are not sufficient to improve teaching and learning. Other factors include :

- the extent to which national standards are incorporated into state standards;
- whether the sometimes segregated content and skills within national and state standards are reconfigured into district scope and sequence curriculum for meaningful planning—with suggestions for new kinds of instruction and assessments;
- whether standards receive the kinds of support in materials and ongoing professional development that enable educators to implement them;
- whether accountability measures are based on standards;
- whether the assessments are high-stakes tests that are linked to promotion or graduation;

- whether standards-based assessments are designed to move beyond measures of factual recall;
- whether the most important learning is only that which is quantifiable;
- whether costs are justifiable; and
- whether time is devoted to teaching what standards recommend, etc.

Researchers have pointed to other influences on curriculum decisions. History is written in varied forms: specific forms linked to specific purposes that influence instructional decisions of teachers. Views about the issue of what type of history is of value in schools have often divided along the lines of “heritage history” or discipline-based history and sometimes along lines of history written as narrative, presented in primary sources, or written as exposition. However, history takes many forms. Leinhardt points out that many types of instructional explanations of history are offered by teachers, written in textbooks, or even generated by groups of students. One type of instructional explanation involves an event-focused and narrative structure. Other instructional explanations in history are presented in narrative form, but are temporal-causal—action packed narratives of events with actors, purposes, and motives in narrative chains of causes and consequences. At times, however, historical instruction involves expository explanation of socio-political structures (e.g., descriptions of the development over time of such systems as the judicial and economic systems). Another form that history takes is based on themes (e.g., power, wealth, leadership, citizenship, etc.) that cut through events, institutions, and time, sometimes the focus of instruction in culminating lessons. History is also characterized by metasystems (e.g., analysis of specific events or structures, synthesis of many events or structures, often based on a theme) that call for instruction featuring hypothesis posing, perspective taking, and interpretation. Leinhardt’s analysis is an exploration of forms related to purposes of history and concludes: “History is not only about events and circumstances but also about what we make of them” (2001, pp. 338, 342-343). Other forms used by historians and appropriate for students include historical essays, written accounts of the past, speeches, and media presentations. While these accounts are based on research, they call for interpretation.

Wineburg (2001) raises a related point about what we make of history. He comments on the inability of historians to ever completely know past persons and events as well as through the eyes of people who were there. He advises that the goal of historical study should instead lead us “to know what we cannot see, to acquaint us with the congenital blurriness of our vision” (p. 11). He continues:

The argument I make pivots on a tension that underlies every encounter with the past: the tension between the familiar and the strange, between feelings of proximity to and feelings of distance from the people we seek to understand. Neither of these poles does full justice to history's complexity, and veering to one side or the other only dulls history's jagged edges and leaves us with cliché and caricature. Furthermore, I claim that the essence of achieving mature

historical thought rests precisely on our ability to navigate the jagged landscape of history, to traverse the terrain that lies between the poles of familiarity with and distance from the past (p. 5).

Weinburg states that historical encounters call for historical thinking. He writes:

Historical thinking requires us to reconcile two contradictory positions: first, that our established modes of thinking are an inheritance that cannot be sloughed off; second, that if we make no attempt to slough them off, we are doomed to a mind-numbing presentism that reads the present onto the past (p. 12).

Barton and Levstik find the dichotomous labeling of history as “heritage” or history as “disciplinary practice” too simplistic. Instead, they describe four “stances,” or perspectives of history as it operates in society, perspectives widespread in schools (p. 9). The researchers point out the role of various stances in terms of what they perceive to be the most important overarching purpose of history: its contribution to democratic citizenship. They define democratic citizenship as “citizenship that is participatory, pluralist, and deliberative” (2004, p. 40). The stances, interrelated, but not at all times compatible, have strengths and drawbacks, and while each may contribute to democratic citizenship, they tend to contribute in differing degrees to varied purposes of history.

- The *analytical stance* refers to instances in which students are asked to analyze some element of the past, but this stance includes three distinct purposes for doing so: understanding causes and consequences, developing generalizations, or learning how accounts are created.
- Similarly, the *identification stance*, one of the most commonly practiced uses of history (p. 64), includes all those times when students are asked to identify with some element of the past. Such identification can be guided by three different purposes: creating a sense of individual or familial roots; identification with the nation or other groups through stories of origins and development over time (see also Brophy, 1999); or accepting the past as a ‘warrant’ or ‘charter’ for contemporary society, legitimizing or criticizing contemporary affairs in terms of the past (Barton & Levstik, 2004, p. 8, 57). This stance is less focused on democratic participation, consideration of the common good, and identification with the larger society because students are affirming that their own lives in some ways mirror the past (pp. 45, 56-58).
- The *moral stance* asks students to “remember, admire, and condemn people and events in the past for the purpose of considering the issue of ‘justice’ (what justice is, how it may be achieved)-- what should or should not have happened in history as it relates to the common good in studying such topics as the Civil Rights Movement, the end of apartheid, slavery, or the Holocaust” (p. 7, 92).

- The *exhibition stance* involves personal fulfillment: history as hobbies, leisure activities based on historical interest, and may include less positive displays of knowledge for self-promotion. The exhibition stance is also related to accountability, evidence that students have learned material, which is not as related to participatory democracy-- the goal proposed as most important by Barton and Levstik. Likewise, the exhibition stance does not necessarily call for judgment. It may, however, involve using what is learned in service to others. For example, students creating displays of the past or written accounts of different aspects of the past for each other (See also VanSledright, 2002, pp. 53-77), for younger students, or the community, to inform the judgment of others or help people to better understand others (Barton & Levstik, pp. 119-120).

The stances described above are not mutually exclusive. However, the stances vary in the ways in which they contribute to the overarching goal of democratic citizenship in an interdependent world (p. 10).

The standards, research positions, and accounts presented above provide a view of the purposes, knowledge, methods and forms employed by historians and considered by scholars and educators as important for students to understand and practice through instruction in history. Frameworks and broader views of history are helpful in indicating what the curriculum might include, what a sequence of courses might be, and what broad configurations curriculum should include across a span of years. However, from state to state, the standards related to world history differ and textbooks vary in their organization (although most world history textbooks are large, dense, and filled with details). How, then, might a world history course be organized?

## **Course Design: What Are Ways to Organize A World History Course?**

Consensus exists that world history is an important part of the curriculum and that it is a growing emphasis within schools across the nation (Bain & Shreiner, 2005, p. 248). However, one of the major challenges faced by teachers is how to organize the world history curriculum-- possibly the most complex of all curriculum areas. Should the approach be based on chronology, themes, periods, case studies, cultural comparisons, patterns of change, important events, people, civilizations? Should its foundations be interregional patterns, relationships and connections across time and space, local and national connections to global questions that cut across time and space, patterns of similarity and difference, big ideas, or connections to other disciplines? Should the structure and organization of the curriculum be some defensible combination of these approaches?

Even if teachers were secure in the purposes for studying world history and had identified important elements of its content knowledge, course coherence based on choices that develop from sound criteria is yet another obstacle (Bain and Harris, 2009, p. 35). Historians and others offer descriptions and, in some cases, recommendations, about how the World History course might be organized. Four patterns, described below, are currently employed, but are not necessarily mutually exclusive:

1. **World Civilizations Plus**—based on a narrative of the development of Western civilization as central (generally about 70% of World History courses, but in AP World History courses about 30% of the course), this pattern is most predominant in state standards documents across the nation (Bain & Shreiner, 2005, p. 246). The dispute within this approach is how to add cultures and areas of the world to the story of Western Civilizations and whether to integrate them or treat them as separate entities (e.g., unit or course on Africa, Latin America, etc.). Merryfield and Wilson point out that this approach is familiar to teachers and supported by materials (e.g., from the National Center for History in the Schools and from the Stanford Program on International and Cross-Cultural Education - SPICE) but is generally not comparative and can leave Eurocentrism unchallenged, (2005, pp. 7071). Since world history is about the “big picture,” it necessarily demands that events and eras be viewed from multiple perspectives including not only the powerful, but also those less powerful (pp. 80-81). Martin suggests that world history specialists consider themselves as specialists in the use of “wide-angle historical lenses (2005). Lintvedt asserts that World History is overtaking Western Civilization in high schools and universities (2009).
2. **Social Studies World History**—developed around broad themes such as: Time, Continuity, and Change; People, Places, and Environment; and Culture, Global Connections, this framework is also widely used in the nation’s schools. The approach is valuable for emphasizing intellectual processes associated with history and framing large ideas; however, the challenge is that specific historical content is largely the decision of state or local curriculum designers urged to draw on content standards in specific disciplines. Thus, there is much variance across the nation because course designers do not emphasize the same elements (Bain & Shreiner, 2005, p. 246).

The two remaining approaches are less developed and currently less implemented across the country, although growing in popularity:

3. **Geographic or Regional World History**—attending to major change over time in different regions (sometimes organized as area studies such as Africa, East Asia, etc.). No state exclusively embraces this approach (Bain & Shreiner, 2005 p. 247; See Appendix C: Type of World History in State Standards, 2005; See also Appendix D: World History Required and Tested by State. These appendices are included in this review with permission from the author, Robert Bain).

In some cases, a “universal patterns” organization is used when teaching particular cultures (e.g., based on comparing similarities and differences using a topic like revolutions that feature China, Cuba, France, Iran, Mexico, Russia, U.S., and Haiti as case studies). Merryfield and Wilson point out that a strength of this approach is using recurring patterns and case studies to highlight universals, but they cite as a disadvantage the lack of teacher background in cultures beyond Europe (2005, p. 72).

**4. Global World History**—based on synthesis and comparative study across regions and civilizations. Use of the global World History pattern for curriculum has been increasing. This pattern sometimes assumes the form of universal patterns discovered through study of engaging historical questions and calls upon students to compare differing political, economic, and social systems. The emphasis is on “big picture” patterns, although there are fewer materials and examples available to educators (Merryfield and Wilson, 2005, p. 71). The new Advanced Placement World History course incorporates this approach, as well as aspects of some of the other curriculum patterns described above (Bain & Shreiner, 2005, p. 248). The Advanced Placement course in world history, designed in 2002, states as its purpose: “to develop greater understanding of the evolution of global processes and contacts in interaction with different types of human societies” (College Board, Advanced Placement, World History at [http://www.collegeboard.com/student/testing/ap/sub\\_worldhist.html?worldhist](http://www.collegeboard.com/student/testing/ap/sub_worldhist.html?worldhist)). For detail about the organization of the course periods, themes, and habits of mind see Appendix E: Advanced Placement World History Period and Themes.

World historian, Patrick Manning, writes:

World history...is an array of approaches to the past rather than a single formula for explaining our history. It is an umbrella of historical themes and methods, unified by the focus on connections across boundaries, but allowing for diverse and even conflicting approaches and interpretations (Manning, 2003, cited in Dunn, 2010, p. 184).

If teachers decide on a structure for a course such as one of those described above, they must also determine the major turning points--the key ideas--around which to organize a course which is particularly difficult to address in world history.

Working with teachers over a span of many years as a world history teacher and a Ph.D. in history, Bain describes a workshop exercise he has conducted with educators. Teachers are asked to write a five-minute history of the United States, Europe, then the world. The first two histories are written without hesitation because of the “big pictures” teachers hold of the United States and the West that can serve as the framework for details. However, teachers

struggle over where to begin the story of world history, what to include, how to

incorporate the stories of different regions, what constitutes the major turning points, and typically confess a lack of knowledge for certain eras or regions of the world. The result? Compared to what they create in U.S. or western history, their history of the world is in pieces (Bain & Harris, 2009, p. 34).

Without “big pictures” themselves, how can educators be expected to help students understand the field of world history? While years of experience do not seem to be related to success in this task, professional development experiences that help teachers think of ways to structure world history do relate to success (Bain & Harris, 2009, p. 34). An example of a source that can help educators build a “big picture” of world history’s turning points is *This Fleeting World: A Short History of Humanity* by David Christian. In ninety-two pages, Christian provides a sweeping overview of world history (2008).

Several patterns described above address the issue of “big pictures,” but because they are different patterns, they do not necessarily agree, and they frame the big pictures differently. Bain suggests transforming topics and objectives into historical questions or problems to help students understand history as puzzles and “unsolved mysteries” faced by historians (2005, pp. 181-182). Broad, connecting questions that address the statements provided by objectives and standards and that link learning across units can provide larger frames for historical knowledge and processes and add cohesion to history courses.

## **World History as a Way of Thinking: How Can Students Learn How to Think Like Historians?**

Too often, history students and history teachers work with the end products of historical thinking—textbooks and monographs (Bain, 2000). Historians who specialize in world history, in addition to addressing large-scale issues and connections, also think in ways that are unique to the field. For example, the questions they ask are broad-based, wide-ranging questions that place events and issues in a global context. In addition,

those who specialize in world history are exposed to numerous models that offer guidance on such issues as thinking about several different historical variables (such as multiple places) at once, using relationships and connections as units of analysis, breaking down complex processes into interrelated component parts, connecting the local to the global and vice versa, and developing new categories and models of analysis. The intellectual possession of a conceptual toolbox customized for building answers to complex global questions is another defining intellectual feature of both good world history research and teaching (Martin, 2005).

Maryfield and Wilson remind us that all students should develop the habits of mind for studying world history:

seeing global patterns over time and space and connecting the local to the global; comparing within and among societies; and develop the ability to assess claims of universal standards while remaining aware of human commonalities and differences and taking into account historical context(2005, pp. 73-74).

Several websites offer lessons and links based on large themes, eras, and modes of historical thinking in the field of world history:

*World History for Us All* is an ambitious site based on collaboration among researchers, historians, and educators and developed by San Diego State University in cooperation with the National Center for History in the Schools. The site models a way of thinking current among many world historians that supports integrative world history that permits students to investigate the global past from its beginnings to today without leaving out major periods or world regions. The web-based curriculum addresses nine major eras, three essential questions, and seven themes. The focus is on the idea that humankind as a whole has a history based on a unified chronology. Examples of curriculum units emphasize historical thinking and support educators as they help students learn how to explore the past at varying scales of time and space. Based on recent historical research, the curriculum models how to connect specific subject matter to larger historical patterns (World History for Us All at <http://worldhistoryforusall.sdsu.edu/default.htm>).

*World History Matters*, a collaboration between The Center for History and New Media and George Mason University, provides resources on teaching and learning, research and tools, and a focus on collecting and exhibiting (<http://worldhistorymatters.org/>). The site serves as a portal site that links to history sources such as Women in World History; Gulag: Many Days, Many Lives; Imagining the French Revolution; Children and Youth in History; Making the History of 1989; and Liberty, Equality, Fraternity: Exploring the French Revolution. Features include models of historical thinking which include scholarly reviews of online primary source archives, along with comments on the teaching potential of various sources. Guides developed by leading world history scholars help educators unpack the evidence in primary sources. Multimedia case studies that model strategies for interpreting particular types of primary sources and case studies written by high school and college teachers which discuss planning and implementation in teaching a particular primary source are also provided (Center for History and New Media at <http://chnm.gmu.edu/worldhistorysources/index.html>).

The World History Association website features sections on teaching and research, and also provides links to organizations and to sites that focus on high school world history and world history texts. Its section on Teaching World History in Secondary School links to *H-World* featuring syllabi, bibliographies and teaching materials, as well as to *World History Connected*,

an electronic journal focused on current thinking about the teaching of world history (See <http://www.thewha.org/index.php>).

The World History Network website, established with a grant from the U.S. National Endowment for the Humanities, features in its research section links to recent journals and is searchable for previous months. The listings provide insight into the issues and debates currently under discussion in the field of world history. The site also provides teaching resources and links to other world history organizations, as well as *Dataverse*, a source of world history data (See <http://www.worldhistorynetwork.org/index.php>).

*EdSitement*, sponsored by the National Endowment for the Humanities, provides multiple entries for world history eras and areas of the world ([http://edsitement.neh.gov/tab\\_lesson.asp](http://edsitement.neh.gov/tab_lesson.asp)). Lessons focus on important content, often call for historical thinking within the objectives, and provide opportunities for comparisons across time and space.

*History Matters* is a website focused on key topics in U.S. history, but models how to teach students to critically read primary sources, as well as how to both critique and construct historical narratives. The site features material on why historical thinking matters, teacher materials and strategies, as well as student investigations (See <http://historicalthinkingmatters.org/>).

The Advanced Placement World History Course, growing in influence, presents a combination of several aspects of the four approaches mentioned above. The course also provides a strong focus on qualities of historical thinking (For detail, see Appendix E: Advanced Placement World History Periods, Themes, and Qualities of Historical Thinking). AP World History “highlights the nature of changes in global frameworks and their causes and consequences, as well as comparisons among major societies” (College Board, 2009). The course models the use of large topics to focus the student of world history on a global scale.

Historian Peter Stearns advises:

The key, always, is first to identify the big changes—the small number of really big, crosscutting changes—that divide one major world history time period from another. This done, one can turn to concomitant continuities, subdivisions of change, regional variations—but with a sense of the larger picture firmly in mind (Stearns, 2009, p. 40).

In developing his own course in world history at the undergraduate level, Stearns focuses on knowledge needed by educated people in contemporary society and the development of global perspective, but he also provides learning experiences to develop students’ ability to think like an historian—assessing change and causation and comparing different social patterns (2000, p. 430).

## Ways of Thinking about World History: How Is that Knowledge Useful to Educators?

Bain suggests that teachers need to have “big pictures” of both the world and how students think about the world. One challenge for teachers is to construct frameworks for thinking about world history that are large enough, but do not cause students to get lost in the details. Educators must be able to answer questions about what to include and exclude based on developing “meaningful, nested connections among events ranging across various time periods and located in different geographic space” (2009, p. 6). This involves being able to move beyond traditional “containers” for content, such as the concepts of nation-state or continent, to new, larger containers such as, “Afro-Eurasia” or the “Atlantic World,” that are capable of holding more historical events or changes.

According to Merryfield, educators also need to become increasingly aware of the importance of perspective consciousness (realizing that everyone does not share the same perspective), moving away from Eurocentric courses to include contrapuntal knowledge, voices and experiences, and moving from colonial centered to global thinking and knowledge construction. Understanding the personal contexts from which students view their world is important in these efforts. African-American or Latino students may enter classrooms with a clear understanding of global systems because they understand more about the uses and misuses of power and influence than more protected and privileged students less exposed to viewpoints different from their own. Having a “double consciousness” means being able to look at oneself through the eyes of others--seeing oneself from the mainstreams as well as the margins (2009, pp.224-226). The use of multiple perspectives, alternative histories, and contrasting experiences can help students begin to critically examine their own historical perspective. Teachers need to help students examine the assumptions on which the history they study are based and look for signs of a legacy of imperialistic and colonial perspectives (often related to categories created during the Cold War era) through the study of varied literature and histories (2009, pp. 219-223).

The integration of cross-cultural experiences (e.g., having students work with university students from various cultures in understanding how globalization is affecting various cultures) is an important aid to moving the center of study from exclusive focus on Eurocentric learning to include all world regions as viewed from the perspectives of diverse people in those regions.

A global perspective develops from gaining:

- (1) knowledge of the interconnectedness of the world and the complexity of its peoples

- (2) experiences living with people different from oneself and whose views may not be represented in mainstream academic knowledge (Merryfield, 2009, p. 224), as well as creating narratives about those experiences (2009, p. 230-231) and
- (3) perceptual skills in perspective consciousness, open-mindedness, and resistance to chauvinism and stereotyping (Merryfield, 2001, pp. 278-286).

## **Possible Student Misconceptions: What Are Typical Instructional Challenges?**

It is important for educators to realize the ways that adolescents typically view world history—for example how adolescents typically view historical change, scale, and perception. Research indicates that adolescent students tend to believe that personal agency is the driving cause behind change in history rather than seeing a role for larger impersonal structures such as economic, political or global explanations. While historians take into account human agency and other constructs, many students view history as “the sum of the actions of each and every individual” (Hallden, 1997, p. 207 cited in Bain, 2010). Disregard of likely adolescent preconceptions and propensities to focus causation in personal terms means that misconceptions go unchallenged and limit students’ understanding of larger, more abstract agents of change (Bain, p. 13).

Lee points out that as historians consider causes of large-scale events (e.g., the Industrial Revolution, American westward expansion), the actions of people are considered as only part of the explanation. Students may have incomplete concepts of time and change, their conceptions being grounded in much shorter spans than are prevalent in the study of world history (2005, pp. 31-70). The *World History for Us All* website provides films such as the *Power of Ten* (<http://www.pwersof10.com/>) or the *Seven Minute History of the World* (<http://worldhistoryforall.sdsu.edu/>) that can support instruction to help students note shifting levels of scale and the resulting changes in perspective important in understanding world history. More research is needed about how students of world history make comparisons, identify relationships, and pursue historical questions at different temporal-spatial scales (Bain, 2010, p. 14).

Lee reports that students may also see all change as positive and progressive. They may not realize that people in the past did not share our way of looking at the world. Students may believe that what historians are able to say about the past is always solely based on “eyewitnesses,” and that history is based on “true” reports. They do not recognize that history is based on evidence and inference. They may not see that “stories order and make sense of the past as representations of the past, but they do not reproduce it” (2005, p. 60). Even when students have fairly sophisticated political and economic concepts, they may find it difficult to transfer those concepts from one historical case to another. Students may mistake the idea of multiple perspectives as proving that nothing can be known about the past, rather than

realizing that among varied accounts, there are ways that historians validate and corroborate accounts to build tenable interpretations (2005, pp. 31-70).

Many students tend to see history as “truth” to be learned from the past (Lee, 2005, pp. 3) rather than a problem space to be entered into with a questioning mind and historical procedures to support evidence-based interpretations from multiple and varied sources. Thus, the nature of history must be problematized for students—moving “beyond reproducing the conclusions of others to understanding how people produced those conclusions, while considering the limitations and strengths of various interpretations” (Bain, 2005, p. 185).

In a review of the work of researchers, Grant identifies several possible misconceptions and examples of faulty-thinking characteristic of students.

- Students often do not see the purpose of history.
- Narratives that students construct may confuse facts about the people, places, and events.
- Narratives written by students tend to be from one perspective only.
- Students tend not to know how to use multiple sources available to them.
- Students tend to focus on the impact of lessons from the past rather than relating the past to their own lives or with broad historical trends (Grant, 2003, pp. 101- 102).

By reading initial journal entries about the nature of history written by his high school World History students, Bain determined that many believe “the past is filled with facts, historians retrieve those facts, students memorize the facts and somehow this improves the present” (2000, p. 337). Students also find it difficult to “put themselves in another’s shoes and look at history through the worldview of previous periods (2005, p. 183).

The use of evidence to support claims appears to be another area of instructional challenge. Consider several levels of understanding evidence along a continuum. At one end of the continuum, students see no problems of evidence or interpretation and believe that the teacher or the textbook provides “true” historical information. At the other end of the continuum, representing higher levels of understanding, students note the importance of evidence, recognize that sources may be biased or incomplete, and realize that history involves interpretations and reconstructions of the past as tested against evidence. Even high school and university students are generally on the less reflective end of the continuum (Wineburg, 2001, pp. 8-10; Yeager & Davis, 1995, pp. 1-8). Barton (1997) recommends that continual and explicit focus on the use of evidence, especially on historical issues that continue to be significant in society, should help students connect conclusions to the evidence that supports them.

In a study that compared the reading of primary sources by historians and by a bright high school student, Wineburg (2001, pp. 7-10) notes the challenge for students to break out of preconceived, present-oriented thinking. The student, a fluent reader, had no questions of the

source, saw no new dimensions, and retained existing beliefs that shaped the reading to fit what he already believed he knew (p. 9).

Wineburg, Mosborg, and Porat (2001) describe historical understandings and misunderstandings of high school students related to their views about the Viet Nam War. Findings point to the strength of media images and the need to broaden limited conceptions and misconceptions arising from media that are often resistant to change.<sup>ii</sup>

VanSledright, also supported by other researchers, has identified several factors that make instruction in history a challenge:

- recognizing the complexity of cognitive acts required choosing what to investigate and developing a rationale, locating evidence, classifying and categorizing evidence as to primary or secondary source, corroborating evidence from multiple sources, “filling in the blanks” when evidence does not exist to tie important elements surrounding an event together, and avoiding imposing one’s own assumptions and perspectives on past events (VanSledright, 2001)
- moving beyond the misconception that students will be interested in voluminous texts that present history as a report of the past as it was, and misconceptions that students do not have the intellectual capacity for history until high school (VanSledright, 2001; Smith & Niemi, 2001, 18-42; Barton & Levstik, 2004, pp. 12-17)
- determining a position on the debates within the field of history; for example, the role of sources and the extent to which interpretation may involve conjectural logic
- determining what history should emphasize in schools---history as indisputable as uncovered by historians and presented as fact in textbooks, or the result of historical interpretations—open to further interpretation, or some combination of these. Lowenthal (1998) points out that “the historian, however blinkered and presentist and self-deceived, seeks to convey a past consensually known, open to inspection and proof, continually revised and eroded as time and hindsight outdate its truths” (Lowenthal, p. xi, cited in VanSledright, p. 11).

Additional issues that interact to complicate the teaching of history include: the depth of subject-matter knowledge required (especially knowledge of the processes employed in historical investigation), the complexity of planning to teach history well, and the pedagogical dilemmas that arise during teaching. Teachers are also meeting increased numbers of diverse and special-needs students in fiscally pressed, resource-challenged schools—especially schools in urban areas (VanSledright, 2002, p. 14).

Students filter, construct, and reconstruct the information they hear about history and do not always learn what educators believe they teach (Wineburg and Wilson, 1991). Knowing about students’ assumptions, misconceptions, and dispositions, as well as the instructional challenges facing teachers, can lead them to make more informed decisions about curriculum, instruction, and assessment.

Given these instructional challenges, what research findings and models will assist educators in planning, instructing, and assessing world history?

## **Examples of Research and Models: How Can Research-Based Models Support Planning, Instruction, and Assessment in World History?**

Some of the research findings and models described below are more general in nature, but highly applicable to world history teaching and learning as related to planning, instruction, and assessment.

**Authentic Intellectual Accomplishment:** The work of Newmann and his associates (1995) reports on a five-year study of one hundred-thirty classrooms located in twenty-three public schools (elementary, middle, and high schools) in sixteen states. Researchers used a common set of criteria to identify what conditions of school restructuring would promote high-quality student achievement in mathematics and social studies. Authentic experiences, of interest to these researchers, are defined as those experiences that connect learning to the world beyond the classroom. Their vision of authentic intellectual accomplishment establishes criteria by which to judge the intellectual quality of authentic assessment tasks, authentic instruction, and authentic student performances. The criteria cross discipline lines. Criteria prove instructive for social studies education by supporting the development of analysis, “higher-order thinking,” and the development and application of knowledge by engaging students in disciplined inquiry based in “authentic” experiences. Three areas—construction of knowledge, disciplined inquiry, and performances that have meaning beyond success in school—form the foundation for criteria used to assess the intellectual quality of teaching and learning. The qualities of authentic intellectual accomplishment are summarized as follows.

- Construction of knowledge refers to enabling students to produce knowledge in original form. Knowledge is constructed by means of a pedagogical emphasis on analysis and higher-order thinking and through student tasks such as organizing information, considering alternatives, and examining multiple perspectives. In constructing knowledge, students use their abilities to analyze, synthesize, evaluate, and interpret.
- Disciplined inquiry requires using prior knowledge to build in-depth understanding through pedagogy aimed at addressing disciplinary concepts—concepts that are central ideas of a topic or discipline. Disciplined-based methods of inquiry build deep knowledge and engage students in substantive conversation. Such conversations lead to shared understandings and are often expressed in elaborated written communications. Elaborated writing is rich in detail, contains explanations or conclusions, includes multiple perspectives, and provides qualifications and support for arguments. Students are able to

understand and/or use ideas, theories, and principles from social disciplines and civic life to interpret concrete information or events.

- Value beyond the school involves confronting problems in the world beyond the classroom. Pedagogy is aimed at helping students connect substantive knowledge to public issues or personal experiences. This standard involves student tasks that go beyond the usual assessment, to demonstrate understanding by using knowledge as it is applied in the world beyond the classroom. Applications may include communicating ideas, sharing a product, or influencing others. The “value beyond the school” standard was not applied in the study above by Newmann and associates.

Findings from the study indicate that few of the classrooms observed were meeting the highest levels on the proposed criteria for authentic achievement, tasks, instruction, and student performances. However, authentic pedagogy improved authentic academic performance for students at all grade levels and contributed to student achievement on conventional tests (p. 58). Thus, the study which links teaching and learning reveals that it is possible to implement authentic instruction with reasonable equity and that considering gender, race, ethnicity, and socio-economic factors, all experienced reasonably equitable benefits (pp. 69-70).

In an earlier stage of the study, Onosko, an associate of Newmann, analyzed teachers across dimensions of teaching, focusing on higher-order thinking, and found that high-scoring teachers presented fewer topics, discussed topics in a more coherent manner, posed challenges and questions for students, and were more likely to share their own reasoning about such challenges. Carefully considering student reasons and explanations during lessons, these teachers exposed students to competing views and frequently used Socratic dialogue (asking probing questions to encourage reflective thought and discussion). During classes students took notes, participated in discussion, and relied more on primary sources. (1990, pp. 443-461).

A more recent study by Kahne and associates (building on previous research and applying the rubrics developed by Wehlage, Newmann, and Secada, 1996) assesses student opportunities to engage in higher-order thinking and disciplined inquiry. Kahne, et al., also used newly-developed rubrics to assess the opportunities students have to engage in three additional areas significant in developing students’ civic capacities: (1) experiencing democracy as a way of life, (2) fostering students’ respect for understanding of individuals and groups with differing values, beliefs, and practices, and (3) enabling students to identify social problems, their causes, and possible solutions. Kahne and associates found that students do not have sufficient opportunities to learn in these significant areas (Kahne, et al., 2000, p. 315. See discussion of Kahne, et al., in the section V of this review, which is devoted to political science—civics/government).

**Models of Teaching as Models of Learning:** Several models of teaching have special significance for social studies. The basic premise of the “models of teaching” concept as set forth by Joyce & Weil with Calhoun, is that there are a variety of teaching models that

contribute to cognitive and social learning--models that students can learn and apply into adulthood. A major premise of the "models" approach is that the particular choice of a model, or combination of models, for an instructional experience depends on the learning goal, the content and processes to be learned, and the unique needs of the learners. A few examples of research-based models especially significant for social studies instruction include: inductive models (collecting, organizing, manipulating, and using data to derive generalizations), group investigation and cooperative learning, concept attainment, inquiry, use of advance organizers to provide an overview of what is to be learned, direct instruction, simulations, role-playing, jurisprudential inquiry (use of case studies, especially as described by Donald Oliver and James Shaver), and exploring perspectives about issues through Socratic discussion (discussion that builds understanding through reflective questions) (Joyce & Weil with Calhoun, 2000).

### **Teaching about Controversial Issues via Historical Background and from Multiple**

**Perspectives:** Issue analysis and deliberation occur appropriately across disciplines within social studies and are often grounded and related to world issues, in addition to having a clear relationship to the civic purposes of social studies--arriving at informed decisions for the common good. NCSS has supported the *National Issues Forum* (NIF) model of deliberation as one effective approach in teaching and learning related to controversial issues. The NIF model involves weighing the pros and cons of at least three perspectives about an issue to reduce polarization of opinion, considering the consequences if each one of the various perspectives were to prevail, and identifying any common ground that may emerge as the result of thoughtful discussion and deliberation of various perspectives. National Issues Forums are conducted in communities and schools across the nation—making it an authentic model of "public work" (Mathews & McAfee, 2003; See also *National Issues Forums* <http://www.nifi.org/> and Public Agenda (<http://www.publicagenda.org/>), a site featuring many issues guides designed to consider multiple perspectives about national issues, many of which have implications for world issues and thus, world history. Another model, *Choices for the 21<sup>st</sup> Century*, is an educational program of the Watson Institute for International Studies at Brown University. The program provides curriculum units focused on a range of policy option, presenting multiple perspectives and competing interpretations that help students make connections between historical events and contemporary global issues (See <http://www.choices.edu/index.cfm>).

**Dimensions and Levels of Understanding a Discipline:** Harvard researchers, Mansilla and Gardner (1998), , provide a framework based on the review of detailed accounts of disciplinary experts (especially in history and biology), philosophers of the disciplines (e.g., Schwab, Kuhn, and others), philosophers of more broadly-based knowledge (e.g., Heller, Phenix, Schwab, and others), and cognitive psychologists (e.g. Seixas, Wineburg, and others, cited in Mansilla and Gardner, pp. 171-172). *The Dimensions of Understanding Framework* identifies four dimensions of disciplines: purposes, knowledge, methods, and forms. Disciplinary expertise is , Problems, and Possibilities. W. E. Ross (ed), New Yorkf the discipline along each of the dimensions—purposes, knowledge, methods, and forms—aspects of a discipline that experts value in their work and which can serve as the basis for instructional goals crafted by teachers.

- Expertise in the **purposes** dimension centers on recognizing and appreciating the value and uses of knowledge from the discipline—the value of the discipline as viewed by experts within the discipline and the value of the discipline for students.
- The **knowledge** dimension involves the mastery and flexible use of theories, principles, and concepts in a discipline.
- **Methods** refers to the processes of inquiry used to develop knowledge that builds on previous knowledge in the discipline and the agreed upon public criteria to which knowledge development is held in validating new knowledge.
- **Forms** are the means by which findings are expressed and communicated by experts. Forms include speeches, essays, presentations, etc. and are used, as closely as is age appropriate, by students in their products and performances.

The dimensions framework provides a rich and complex view of the potential for various aspects of disciplinary teaching and learning. The framework helps teachers to use the dimensions to develop learning goals and experiences for students that mirror as closely as possible those of disciplinary experts (See Appendix F; Representation of *The Dimensions of Understanding Framework*.)

Descriptions of levels of student progress toward understanding each dimension of a discipline supports educators in recognizing the level of understanding students are demonstrating in a specific product of student work. Levels that may be observed in student performances of understanding include:

- naïve level (disengaged from learning)
- novice level (beginning to engage because of external motivations such as the desires of parents or grades)
- apprentice level (with support, beginning to work within the dimensions of a discipline out of interest and recognition of value of the discipline)
- master level (flexibly and spontaneously applying the dimensions for the creation of knowledge).

The dimensions provide a much broader view of the potential of disciplines as they might be taught in school, while the levels provide a way to view student work as performances of understanding to consider where a student needs to improve and how to support movement towards disciplinary understanding (Boix-Mansilla & Gardner, 1998, pp. 161-196).

Disciplinary competence is important. The relationship of social studies to disciplinary purposes, knowledge, methods and forms, such as those related to world history, is clear in the NCSS curriculum standards. Social studies programs help students construct a knowledge base and attitudes drawn from academic disciplines as specialized ways of viewing reality. “Each discipline begins from a specific perspective and applies ‘unique processes [and rules] for

knowing' to the study of reality...The point is that discipline-based knowledge, processes, and attitudes are fully utilized within social studies programs" (1994, p. 4).

Researchers Whitson and Stanley view the understanding of disciplinary capabilities as "aspects of practical competence," that enable people to deal thoughtfully and knowledgeably with the world (1996, p. 330). Mansilla, Miller, and Gardner (2000) explore the rich and varied perspectives provided by different disciplines serving to clarify a specific topic in multidisciplinary teaching that can scaffold students toward interdisciplinary learning--learning that emphasizes the use of knowledge, is careful in its treatment of each discipline involved (maintaining the integrity of each), and involves appropriate interaction between disciplines (pp. 25-26, 33). The researchers argue that education aimed at deep forms of understanding can make use of both disciplinary and interdisciplinary perspectives (p. 17).

**Teaching for Understanding:** The fundamental goal important to educators is that students learn beyond superficial levels to levels of deep understanding--the ability to apply knowledge and processes in many and varied contexts. Thus, *The Teaching for Understanding Framework* (TfU Framework) takes a "performance view" of understanding—observing students as they demonstrate flexible use of knowledge and processes when their understanding is put to work beyond rote and routine (Perkins, 1998, pp. 41-57). This second framework, developed by Harvard researchers working with exceptional teachers in various disciplines over a five-year period, had as its purposes to identify qualities of understanding and to analyze the process of learning to teach for understanding (Wiske, 1998, pp. 6-7). Applicable across disciplines within the social studies, as well as other areas of the curriculum, the TfU Framework focuses educators on designing teaching and learning to support students as they develop understanding. Teachers plan instruction around a generative topic, a topic that is central to a discipline and that addresses important understanding goals. The goals identified are both long-term goals, known as 'throughlines,' that identify major learning for a year or semester, as well as unit-level goals written as statements or questions. The framework makes explicit the connections among significant content, instruction, and performances of understanding, all focused specifically on accomplishing the learning goals. Performances of understanding become more complex throughout a unit and build on each other to allow both teachers and students to assess ongoing and culminating progress in attaining the goals of understanding (Wiske, 1998, pp. 61-88; See also Appendix G: Representation of *The Teaching for Understanding Framework*).<sup>iii</sup>

Examples of instruction based on a "performance" view of learning may be found on the Maryland State Department of Education web site (Model Lessons—Social Studies) at [http://www.mdk12.org/instruction/curriculum/social\\_studies/performance\\_based/tcpt\\_socstds.html](http://www.mdk12.org/instruction/curriculum/social_studies/performance_based/tcpt_socstds.html).

The NCSS curriculum standards (1994, 2010) provide a framework which recognizes that the themes and expectations described in the document, when implemented in instruction founded on research-based principles of teaching and learning, are more likely to lead to civic

efficacy. Civic efficacy is expressed in a position statement by NCSS as the ability and willingness to engage in civic participation.

Teaching social studies powerfully and authentically begins with a deep knowledge and understanding of the subject and its unique goals. Social studies programs prepare students to identify, understand, and work to solve the challenges facing our diverse nation in an increasingly interdependent world (National Council for the Social Studies, 2008, p. 1).

The NCSS position statement identifies qualities of effective teaching and learning (*NCSS Position Statement: A Vision of Powerful Teaching and Learning in the Social Studies: Building Social Understanding and Civic Efficacy*, 2008). Instruction, as described in the position statement, is also supported by other research. Teaching and learning are effective when they are:

- meaningful--connected to networks of knowledge, skills, beliefs, and attitudes students find useful in and out of school, significant content developed with appropriate breadth and depth, based on reflective planning, implementation, and assessment (See also Shaver, 1995, pp. 146, 151);
- integrative--within and across the curriculum in learning experiences that require students to apply knowledge, skills, and beliefs, and put values into action (See also Hahn, et al., 1996); using disciplines to offer specific views of the world; making connections between subjects in multidisciplinary ways and employing two or more disciplines in interdisciplinary studies;
- value-based--considering multiple perspectives, weighing ethical dimensions, and consequences of decisions for the common good in considering controversial issues; developing reasoned positions consistent with democratic values based on an awareness of cultural dimensions and social responsibility (See also Shaver, 1995, pp. 147, 153; Mathews & McAfee, 2003, pp. 1-30; Hess, 2000);
- challenging--addressing purposes, reaching for meaningful goals, pursuing knowledge through inquiry, etc. (See also Shaver, 1995, pp. 150-151); and
- active--developing understanding, building knowledge, and using skills in authentic applications closely resembling the use of knowledge and skills in the world beyond the classroom (See Shaver, 1995, p. 148, 157, 158).

Based on these engaging qualities, social studies instruction, and by implication world history instruction, leads to memorable learning.

# Instructional Practices: What Practices and Strategies Support Learning in World History?

## The Role of the Teacher

An issue in considering the roles of teacher and student is whether a teacher should be “knowledge giver” so that students can “receive” knowledge, or “facilitator” so that students can “construct” understanding. Findings propose that a combination of these roles is appropriate according to specific learning goals.

Grant observed two teachers (one for one year and one for two years) who were teaching in a middle- to upper-middle class suburban district. One teacher was an African-American woman who had taught for five years and the other a Caucasian man who had taught in middle school for 13 years and taught high school for one year. While they were both teaching U.S. history, the observations from these case studies are instructive about the relationship of teacher instruction to student views of world history. The study is especially interesting given that two teachers in the same school, governed by the same norms, each prepare their students for the New York Regents test, yet they make very different decisions about their role as teacher.

Grant describes the role of the teacher along a continuum from “knowledge giving” to “facilitation.” The knowledge giver typically perceives knowledge as consisting of “facts arrived at objectively.”

Knowledge givers believe that students come into their class with little or confused knowledge, think that independent thought is dependent upon accumulating much information, and perceive teaching as passing on historical information (2003, p. 30-31).

Grant further clarifies reasons why some educators resort to over-reliance on giving knowledge to students:

“Too much content, too little time, and too many tests lead many teachers to conclude that giving students knowledge in bite-sized bits is the only reasonable approach (p. 32). Knowledge givers believe that unless the information “comes from them or the textbook, students cannot possibly know it” (p. 32).

By contrast, facilitating teachers generally believe that historical knowledge is a human construction. Facilitating teachers find the past complex, uncertain, and revisable. History, then, involves interpretations of the past. While they regard factual information as significant, they see learning as complex, interpretative, influenced by prior knowledge, beliefs, experiences, and learning environments. Learners are thought of as “active meaning makers” who are building and continuously refining their own understanding (p. 33). Thus, their instructional

strategies engage students in challenging tasks that support students in meaning making—although the meaning constructed may not be identical from student to student.

Grant examined the question: do instructional stances (i.e., facilitator, knowledge-giving) matter in terms of what students understand about history? Factors such as family, media, out of school experiences, etc. influence student learning; however, the teacher's practices and students' views about history correlate the most closely to understanding.

In observing two teachers that typify the “fact giver” and “facilitator” roles in instruction and interviewing students from each class, Grant found that students from both classes held positive views of history, but differed in what they believed “counts” in history. For students from the class in which the teacher was fact-giver who couched history largely in lecture accounts of the large narrative of history, what counted was “facts about which there are no arguments,” and understanding history, a chronicle of past events, means knowing the facts. Students from the class in which the teacher facilitated learning through varied activities (i.e., reading, listing, viewing, interacting in a range of instructional settings) viewed history as complex, tentative, and including facts which are open to multiple and often varied interpretations. These students made more nuanced, sophisticated judgments when interviewed than did students from the fact-giver's class and saw the impact of the past on the present, as well as viewing history as relevant to their own lives (p. 60-69). Students from both classes seemed to understand the idea of multiple perspectives, but students from the class taught by the facilitating teacher were sensitive to the actions of historical figures and related perspectives to historical context (p.76).

Teachers, in spite of very different approaches to teaching, may have much in common. Wilson and Wineburg observed two high school history teachers—one playing a dominant role in class, the other taking a more facilitative approach—and found that they shared many common attributes. Each considered history as both fact and interpretation, both were life-long students of history themselves, both used the textbook as an intellectual companion to class work rather than “master,” and both had a repertoire of strategies which they used for different topics and purposes (Wineburg, 2001, p. 155-172). Effective teaching in history may take different forms, but in view of Grant's research, it does seem to make a difference in what students think about history (Grant, p. 76).

A recent international study of civic education may inform instruction in other classrooms, as well. The study, by the International Education Consortium, was based on surveys of 90,000 fourteen year olds from twenty-eight countries. Researchers analyzed civic knowledge, attitudes, and processes (Torney-Purta, et.al. 2001). In a more recent study using the international data, Torney-Purta and Wilkenfeld focused exclusively on data from the 2,811 fourteen year-olds who were from the United States (2009). They looked at the relationship between the type of instruction received in civic education and the emphasis on 21<sup>st</sup> Century competencies.

Twenty-first Century competencies include the following:

- basic skills in reading and mathematics
- skills in interpreting information (sometimes called critical thinking or problem solving) and including literacy in understanding information and opinions presented in the media
- knowledge of the economic system
- global awareness
- support for the activities associated with good citizenship (including responsibilities such as obeying the law and voting)
- skills in working with others (such as the readiness and ability to clearly express opinions, collaborative group skills, and the ability to work in culturally diverse teams)
- the ability to be productive (including a sense of personal responsibility to work hard, efficaciously, and ethically)
- information and communications technology (ICT) literacy
- creativity and innovation (Kay, 2009).

The types of instruction analyzed in the Torney-Purta and Wilkenfeld study included:

- lecture focus predominating in instruction
- interactive focus predominating
- both lecture and interactive focus
- neither of these types of instruction predominating (as set in open classroom settings where discourse was encouraged)
- traditional settings characterized by learning from the textbook, memorizing facts and dates, and note taking.

Findings indicate that:

interactive classrooms where teachers and students are encouraged to express, respect, and understand different sides of social issues are beneficial in developing adolescents' 21<sup>st</sup> Century skills and competencies. The approach found in traditional civic education classrooms, characterized by lecture and a focus on content, also shows positive effects, especially when combined with interactive discussion. In fact, to foster most 21<sup>st</sup> Century competencies, a combination of these two kinds of learning experiences is most positive for students... An open classroom climate in which issues are discussed and individuals' opinions respected is an essential part of this combination (Torney-Purta & Wilkenfeld, p. 29).

Torney-Purta and Wilkenfeld also point to the founding document of the Campaign for the Civic Mission of Schools, *The Civic Mission of Schools Report*, which outlines six instructional practices found to be beneficial for student learning. The first two have special significance for

world history: “providing content-specific instruction and incorporating discussion of local, national, and international issues” (Campaign for the Civic Mission of Schools. 2005).

Recognizing the importance of knowledge about the world, both past and present, is one important step in supporting world history instruction. In *How Students Learn History, Mathematics, and Science in the Classroom*, the National Research Council points to three well-established principles of learning:

1. Students come to the classroom with preconceptions about how the world works. If their initial understanding is not engaged, they may fail to grasp the new concepts and information, or they may learn them for the purposes of a test, but revert to their preconceptions outside the classroom.
2. To develop competence in an area of inquiry, students must (a) have a deep foundation of factual knowledge, (b) understand facts and ideas in the context of a conceptual framework, and (c) organize knowledge in ways that facilitate retrieval and application.
3. A ‘metacognitive’ approach to instruction can help students take control of their own learning by defining learning goals and monitoring their progress in achieving them (Donovan, M. S. and Bransford, J.D., 2005, pp. 1-2).

The Research Council further identifies four lenses drawn from research that can serve as a framework for thinking about teaching and learning and the design of classroom and school environments:

1. the learner-centered lens which encourages attention to preconceptions and begins instruction with what students think and know
2. the knowledge-centered lens that focuses on what is to be taught, why it is taught, and what mastery looks like
3. the assessment-centered lens that emphasizes the need to provide frequent opportunities to make students’ thinking and learning visible as a guide for both the teacher and the student in learning and instruction, and
4. the community-centered lens that encourages a culture of questioning, respect, and risk taking (pp. 12-13).

An example of supportive strategies as applied in one classroom illustrates the flow of strategic teaching in world history. Bain (2000) proposes strategies to assist students in attaining disciplinary competence. He believes that informal journal writing can help students “think on paper” and explore connections, as well as develop speculations. In a strategy he describes as “writing to read,” he asks students to write their own thoughts about what they are reading. He has students develop dialogues, as historians do, to promote exchanges among students regarding their work. At times, students are asked to assume the role of “doubter,” “believer,” or “friendly critic.” Students engage in metacognitive writing to explore their own thinking

about historical topics. Just as historians share their views at conferences, Bain's students read short entries—all students reading consecutively and without comment--and then the class looks for patterns (pp. 340-343).

Bain acknowledges widespread criticism of the omniscient tone that students assume teachers and textbooks have in history classrooms. He poses these questions: how can we encourage students to raise disciplined suspicions of the typical sources of scholastic authority, and what might we learn about history instruction situated within the realm of historical inquiry as a means of confronting classroom authority of text and teacher? (Bain, 2006).

Certainty about the authority of text and/or the teacher as conveyer of knowledge undermines a view of instruction grounded in inquiry. However, inquiry is at the heart of the discipline of history. The use of primary sources to engage students in historical inquiry has been an alternative to the textbook in many classes; but, what might be ways to encourage students to analyze and question conventional textbooks (one source among many) as a stimulant for inquiry as well? Because of students' inclination to see textbooks as authoritative, Bain not only worked to sharpen students' analytical skills, but also to change the "ritualized interactions" of students with "authority"-- of textbooks and of the teacher. The course was centered in helping students comprehend key content and developing their understanding of history as a "way of knowing" by helping them carefully consider the nature of historical arguments and claims. Bain merged historical processes with facts and concepts to create "stances and procedures that served as the 'touchstone' whereby we could distinguish what we are entitled to believe from what we are entitled to doubt" (p. 2090).

Bain, with 25 years as a history teacher and a doctorate in history, reports a case study of instruction of a unit with his 76 high school World History students in three heterogeneously grouped diverse classes. Prior to the unit described below as a case study, Bain began the course with a unit that "problematized" history as a school subject and way of knowing focusing on questions, such as how is it possible for someone living in the present to study and accurately report on the past? One way that Bain suggests to introduce students to the problem of creating and using historical accounts is to have them write an account of an event they all witnessed and then discuss the variance in students' choice of facts, details, stories, and perspectives. However, merely introducing students to noting differing facts, evidence, and interpretations is not enough to insure that these distinctions will become a regular part of students' thinking without continuing practice throughout the year (Bain, 2005, p. 187-188). The unit also included a focus on evidence and construction of historical accounts considering significance and corroboration—all equally important in elevating student perceptions of history as more than simply reporting facts and all worthy of practice throughout the year.

A second unit centered around the problem of representing the world in the 14<sup>th</sup> century by means of a "virtual" tour of the world in 1300 CE. Even though students asked historical questions about evidence and significance, read primary sources (sourcing, corroborating, attributing, and using counter facts to construct reasoned arguments), developed rubrics for

determining significance (lasting effects), created significance posters to build the case for why something was significant, created their own accounts from multiple sources, and participated in web conferences across the three classes, Bain noted that the authority of the textbook and his interpretations as the teacher remained mostly unchallenged by the students. Students did not see themselves as expert enough to take a substantive and critical stance toward these authoritative sources.

In the third unit, to change the level of knowledge students would bring to the textbook and teacher interpretations, Bain increased the level of historical expertise of the students with a study of the plague and an historical question about the impact of pandemics in the 14<sup>th</sup> century. The goal was to create an account of the plague supported by evidence that addressed the question. The unit for this study included 40 primary sources mainly with a European flavor (e.g., woodcuts, papal bulls, parish records, stained-glass windows, official documents), as well as a few secondary sources, but not the textbook (which no student voluntarily consulted). It also included data compiled by historians about population estimates, mortality rates, and economic factors such as fluctuations in prices and labor. Students had access to hard copies and electronic copies of sources on a website created by Bain. Electronic conferences across all three classes, idea journals, notebooks, small group discussion, emails, etc. were part of this instruction. Students analyzed and weighted sources, corroborated evidence, assessed how sources supported, contested, or extended their understanding and wrote a paper using evidentiary support.

Next, Bain assigned reading the textbook account of the plague, but students found nothing in the text to question. Bain asked students to write a letter to the authors of the textbook assessing their representation of the plague as effective and defending their claim. The assignment caused students to draw on their own expertise and view the text as *one* account rather than *the* account to be accepted. Through class discussions, the students noted the textbook's reliance on insufficient, misleading or inaccurate facts; treatments of events in isolation; lack of supporting documentation; absence of the human story; and prevalence of a Eurocentric bias—each student referencing at least two of these criticisms in their letter (p. 2098).

Because they used so many sources, students failed to question Bain's selection of certain sources over others (especially the Eurocentric flavor of the sources), thus establishing parameters of the problem space that shaped the study for the students. Bain asked the students to reflect on their criticism of the textbook for its Eurocentric bent by asking what evidence they could provide for how people living in China or Northern Africa or the Muslim world responded to the plague. The discussion revealed that same bias in the primary sources the students had used to write their account.

Bain points out that teachers can create “history-considerate” learning environments for “doing” history (building interpretations through fragmented evidence from primary sources from the past), but still must consider the challenge that “ritualized interactions” with the

authority of the textbook and teacher also present. Too often teachers and textbooks represent to students definitive and completed accounts.

Meeting the challenge of ritualized interactions with textbooks rests, Bain asserts, on helping students gain enough expertise to recognize what knowledge authors collapsed, excluded, or omitted. In the study referenced above, because of heightened expertise, students were able to analyze the sources selected and also recognize the influence of source choices on the view of historical events. Bain continued throughout the remainder of the course to highlight the historiography within units and discuss the choices he made and the problems he faced as an historian in developing the course. He did not find that such an approach increased student cynicism or relativism, but rather, it increased their critical sensibility about accounts, their ability to discern some as more or less credible, and their respect for the use of multiple and diverse sources. Bain concludes:

Developing the students' authority to hold and express honest and informed interpretations, to fairly evaluate and criticize their own and others' views, and to reason toward new ideas may be history education's most difficult and complicated instructional task. There are few challenges more worthy of our efforts (p. 2107; See also Beck, et al., 1997; Bain 2005).

To further illustrate, see another example of Bain's building a unit-level problem—accounting for the “flat earth” theory, probing student thinking on the problem, and making it visible by requiring that they document their understanding and explain the evidence for their interpretations of both primary and recent scholarly secondary sources (Bain, 2005, pp. 189-199). As students experience this unit, it becomes clear that the false dichotomy between facts and interpretations and content and process break down. Bain writes:

How can students learn about the accounts of the past—the growth of the flat-earth story, for example—without studying the knowledge and ideas of the fourteenth and fifteenth century Europeans, the features of the waning Middle Ages, the emerging renaissance, tensions between the orthodoxy of the church and new scientific ideas, or the new mercantile impulses that promulgated reasonable risks in the name of profit (p. 198).

Thus, in the examples provided, Bain argues for:

- transforming topics and objectives into historical problems
- problematizing history to help students see history as puzzles, questions, and interpretive accounts rather than fixed and accurate descriptions of events
- using historical questions to guide instruction over the entire course's individual units (See also Throughlines (course-long goals) and Understanding Goals (unit-level goals) in Appendix G: The Teaching for Understanding Framework)

- creating a “history-considerate” learning environment where the tools and processes of history can be used by students engaged in genuine historical inquiry
- building a history-specific culture through the patterns of interactions and instructional tasks
- supporting students over time to engage in historical inquiry.

An additional strategy employed by Bain illustrates many of these points. Students worked in small groups on a particular type of historical question and used thinking needed to investigate an historical text. Some students were asked to focus on the creator of the source and serve as “sourcers” of the text. Some students were asked to focus on intended audience and other features of context and serve as “contextualizers.” Other students were asked to compare this source to other sources as “corroborators.” Still others might focus on reading strategies such as confusing language, definitions, or summarizing key points. This approach helped shift the student perspective of the source away from seeing it as authoritative (2005, p. 206). Textbooks and lectures are then viewed as examples of supports for learning and as historical accounts rather than as definitive.

The aim of all Bain’s strategies is to have students experience a different kind of history instruction that begins with them and is undertaken in more expansive ways and for broader purposes than are typical.

Historical study asks students to consider what they know, how they know it, and how confidently or tentatively they are “entitled” to hold their views...A disciplined study of history promotes exactly the type of reasoned thought our students deserve to have and democratic societies so desperately need (Bain, 2005, p. 210).

The following strategies are not specific to world history instruction; however, the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory draws on the meta-analyses of research on effective strategies for improving teaching and learning from Marzano, Pickering, and Pollock. The work of these authors, *Classroom Instruction That Works*, highlights the use of research-based strategies believed to be effective across disciplines (Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 2005, at <http://www.netc.org/focus/strategies/>). The following strategies have been determined to have a positive impact on student achievement:

- **Thematic Instruction**--Students reach deeper understandings from thematic, interdisciplinary instruction. Themes provide a way of understanding new concepts and serve as mental organizing schemes. (This strategy is also congruent with the support by researchers such as Merryfield and Wilson, 2005, as well as Bain and Shreiner, 2005, for emphasizing the more expansive view of world history--the “big picture.”) Identifying

a large theme that can serve as “conceptual glue” for learners also engages prior knowledge. Themes are helpful in building links within and across subjects and to contexts beyond the classroom. Examples of additional resources provided at the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory site include the following:

- Bank Street College has identified six domains to describe fundamental aspects of teaching practice and provide a framework for analyzing teaching called Action-Oriented Inquiry. <http://www.bankstreet.edu/tne/domains.html>
- Susan Kovalik has developed the Integrated Thematic Instruction (ITI) model for teaching with themes. She also shares research in this area. <http://www.kovalik.com/ic.htm> <http://www.kovalik.com/extsummaries.htm>
- **Identifying Similarities and Differences**--Learning to classify and discern differences and similarities prepares students for employing metaphor, analogy, and higher-order thinking skills. This strategy helps students to see patterns, make connections, and develop metaphors and analogies. Students recall information they know and overlay a known pattern onto an unknown pattern to search for similarities and differences. Achievement is significantly enhanced when this strategy is combined with non-linguistic representation (Chen, 1999). Having students create graphic organizers is one suggestion provided at this site.
  - Even though the following source is aimed at science, it provides an outline of a model for teaching with analogy (See Herr, N., *The Sourcebook for Teaching Science* at <http://www.csun.edu/~vceed002/ref/analogy/analogy.htm>).
- **Summarizing and Note Taking**--Effective summarizing requires analysis that leads to increased understanding. Students can benefit from taking notes in both linguistic and visual forms. Summarizing and note taking help students to identify the underlying structure of information. For example, summarizing a reading assignment is more effective when completed within summary frames which typically include a series of questions the teacher provides to direct student attention to specific content (Marzano, Pickering, & Pollock, 2001). Summarizing often requires that the learner synthesize information, which involves analyzing, identifying key concepts, and recognizing extraneous information. Note taking needs to be taught so that the focus is on elements of meaning which are important and memorable. One method is through teacher notes that serve as models (Marzano et al, 2001). Students also benefit from using their notes as documentation of their learning. Notes may be in both linguistic and non-linguistic forms such as webs, sketches, schematics, etc. Additional resources listed at this site are:
  - The Virginia Tech Division of Student Affairs which provides a list of note-taking skills. <http://www.ucc.vt.edu/stdysk/notetake.html>
  - The Academic Resource Center at Sweet Briar College which also provides note-taking suggestions. <http://www.arc.sbc.edu/notes.html>
- **Reinforcing Effort**--Student attitudes and beliefs have a significant effect on success in school. Achievement can increase when teachers show the connection between effort and success. Research makes clear the relationship between effort and achievement.

Richhart, holding a dispositional view of thinking, states that the quality of people's thinking is related as much to their attitudes, motivations, commitments, and habits of mind as to their ability (Perkins and Ritchhart in Dai and Sternberg, 2004, p. 352).

- Support for the dispositional view of thinking is the focus of thinking routines found online. Educators use the routines to elevate the level of student thought and classroom responses (See Visible Thinking Project, Harvard, at [http://pzweb.harvard.edu/vt/VisibleThinking\\_html\\_files/VisibleThinking1.html](http://pzweb.harvard.edu/vt/VisibleThinking_html_files/VisibleThinking1.html) and Thinking Routines at [http://pzweb.harvard.edu/vt/VisibleThinking\\_html\\_files/03\\_ThinkingRoutines/03a\\_ThinkingRoutines.html](http://pzweb.harvard.edu/vt/VisibleThinking_html_files/03_ThinkingRoutines/03a_ThinkingRoutines.html)). Thinking routines are categorized as core routines, understanding routines, fairness routines, truth routines, and creativity routines. (See also Richhart & Perkins, 2009).
- Practices suggested by the Northwest Regional Laboratory teach students the relationship between effort and achievement and provide specific positive feedback when genuine achievement is noted. An additional resource suggested by the regional lab has been developed by Dr. Mel Levine.
  - Dr. Levine provides All Kinds of Minds --a website resource for educators. He shares ideas for recognizing efforts of students, and how to support learning differences. <http://www.allkindsofminds.org/activity.aspx?id=12>
- **Homework and Practice**--Homework can increase student understanding when assignments provide the opportunities needed to practice and apply new learning. Bempechat states that homework assignments provide the time and experience students need to develop study habits that support learning (2004). Homework needs to match learning goals that are clear to students (e.g., skills mastery, deepening understanding of a concept, preparing for the next lesson). An additional resource available from the Northwest Regional Laboratory is *Increasing Student Engagement and Motivation: From Time-on-Task to Homework* at <http://www.nwrel.org/request/oct00/index.html>. This publication includes a synthesis of research.
- **Nonlinguistic Representation**--We store knowledge in two forms: linguistic and nonlinguistic. The more students use both systems, the better they are able to think about and recall knowledge. Nonlinguistic representations of thinking include concept maps, idea webs, dramatizations, and computer simulations (as a tool for exploring and experimenting with learning in visual modes). By using both linguistic and nonlinguistic ways of acquiring and storing knowledge, students are more able to think about and recall what they have learned (Marzano, Pickering, & Pollock, 2001). The Northwest Regional Laboratory suggests scaffolding student learning as nonlinguistic representations are introduced and gradually removing the scaffolds so that students eventually develop and use nonlinguistic representations independently.
- **Cooperative Grouping**--Grouping can promote student learning and build interpersonal skills when done wisely and when support structures are in place. Students work together to accomplish shared goals and experience positive interdependence. They

have established processes for communication, decision making, conflict resolution, and time management (Johnson & Johnson, 1999). The Regional Lab also suggests that practice, monitoring, and organizational tools such as learning journals help promote successful learning in cooperative groups. The additional resource suggested at the regional lab website is:

- The Cooperative Learning Center is a research and training center housed at the University of Minnesota focusing on how students should interact with each other effectively. There you will find articles, research, a newsletter, and other resources. The research team of Roger T. Johnson and David W. Johnson will also answer questions sent by teachers about cooperative learning, and past answers can be found in their Q & A section. <http://www.co-operation.org/>
- **Setting Objectives**--Teachers communicate learning goals to students every day. If students focus on those goals, they can improve their chances of successfully meeting them. However, the goals need to be sufficiently broad so as not to narrow the learning focus too specifically. The Northwest Regional Lab suggests that students have a role in setting learning goals as a way of supporting student ownership of learning and recommends the following websites which support these ideas:
  - The North Central Regional Educational Laboratory publishes an online resource entitled Pathways to School Improvement. "Pathways" synthesizes research, policy, and best practice on issues critical to educators engaged in school improvement. See *Critical Issues: Working Toward Student Self-Direction and Personal Efficacy as Educational Goals*.  
<http://www.ncrel.org/sdrs/areas/issues/students/learning/lr200.htm>
- **Providing Feedback**--Criteria for success and specific, timely feedback can help increase students' understanding and improve learning. Use cooperative groupings to help students stimulate, refine thinking, and offer one another feedback meant to improve the work in progress. The use of rubrics for offering feedback is helpful—especially if students have had a role in helping to develop the rubric. Asking students to continue working on a task until it is completed and accurate (until the standard is met) enhances student achievement (Marzano, Pickering, & Pollock, 2001). The Northwest Regional Lab suggests that feedback is most effective when it points to ways to improve work or correct errors. Two websites provided by the lab are:
  - RubiStar is a free online tool that teachers can use to make and save rubrics. Developed by the High Plains Regional Technology in Education Consortium, RubiStar includes a tutorial for new users and a feature that enables teachers to analyze student data and identify areas for focusing additional instruction. (Available at <http://www.rubistar.org/>).
  - The National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning has published an article, *The Instructional Conversation: Teaching and Learning in Social Activity*. The authors, Tharp and Gillimore, discuss the use of modeling, providing feedback, contingency management, directing, questioning, explaining, and task structuring in classroom activity settings. (Available at

[http://www.eric.ed.gov:80/ERICWebPortal/custom/portlets/recordDetails/detailmini.jsp? nfpb=true& &ERICExtSearch\\_SearchValue\\_0=ED341254&ERICExtSearch](http://www.eric.ed.gov:80/ERICWebPortal/custom/portlets/recordDetails/detailmini.jsp?nfpb=true&&ERICExtSearch_SearchValue_0=ED341254&ERICExtSearch)).

- **Generating and Testing Hypotheses**--Generating hypotheses and applying knowledge when testing hypotheses requires careful orchestration of experience, but increases learning. Asking good research questions, developing hypotheses and predictions, conducting investigative research, making observations, and analyzing and communicating results deepen student understanding. Scaffolding for investigation is helpful. Communicating results in linguistic and nonlinguistic forms can help students see patterns and relationships. (See also *Maryland Department of Education: How do You Use Historical Investigations in Social Studies Instruction?* Available at [http://www.mdk12.org/instruction/curriculum/social\\_studies/instruction.html](http://www.mdk12.org/instruction/curriculum/social_studies/instruction.html)).
- **Simulations and Games**--Technology tools add authenticity to the learning experience. In addition, the more students use multiple systems of representing knowledge, the better they are able to think about and recall what they have learned (Marzano, Pickering, & Pollock, 2001). Providing opportunities for students to visualize and model what they are learning enhances understanding. Serious games aimed at educational goals are also increasingly available (For examples, see *You Are Here Western Civilization/World History Simulations* at [http://www.wadsworth.com/history\\_d/special\\_features/ext/westciv\\_sims/](http://www.wadsworth.com/history_d/special_features/ext/westciv_sims/)).
- **Cues, Questions, and Advance Organizers**--Students' readiness for learning is increased with cues and questions that connect new ideas to existing knowledge. Asking higher-level questions, allowing wait time for student responses, and using advance organizers enhance understanding. Resources suggested by the Northwest Regional Laboratory include:
  - The Northeast Texas Consortium provides a resource for developing advance organizers, especially for distance learning. <http://www.netnet.org/instructors/design/goalsobjectives/advance.htm>
  - The North Central Regional Educational Laboratory publishes *Pathways to School Improvement*, which include critical issues. *Building on Prior Knowledge and Meaningful Student Contexts/Cultures* is a resource discussing the use of advance organizers. <http://www.ncrel.org/sdrs/areas/issues/students/learning/lr100.htm>

Marzano presents the case for the importance of deliberately building academic background knowledge based on

the ability to process and store information and on the number and frequency of academically oriented experiences... It is the interaction of students' information-processing abilities and their access to academically oriented experiences, then, that produces their academic background knowledge. Differences in these factors create differences in their academic background

knowledge and, consequently, differences in their academic achievement (Marzano, 2004, p. 4-5).

Poverty and low socioeconomic circumstances inhibit the building of academic background and academic achievement. However, schools can provide academically- enriching experiences--both direct experiences out of school (e.g., field trips, museum visits, mentoring, etc.) and indirect in-school experiences that increase the variety and depth of background knowledge linked to academic success.

Marzano bases his suggestions on six research-based principles for building academic background through experiences that can be facilitated in school:

1. Background knowledge is stored in bimodal memory packets—linguistic and nonlinguistic forms. Thus, attempts to build academic background knowledge should involve experiences that enhance both linguistic representations of the target information as well as imagery.
2. The process of storing experiences in permanent memory, the repository of our background knowledge, can be enhanced. When a learner is exposed to knowledge multiple times, detail is added and elaboration occurs by making associations and new connections. Information is then more likely to move to permanent memory.
3. Background knowledge is multidimensional and its value is contextual, thus, adding to background knowledge must be done subject by subject.
4. Even surface-level background knowledge is useful—(e.g., terminology of a specific topic and its meaning), greatly enhancing comprehension and understanding.
5. Background knowledge manifests itself as vocabulary knowledge. Words are labels for “packets of knowledge” stored in permanent memory. Research suggests that teaching vocabulary is synonymous with teaching background knowledge.
6. Virtual experiences such as reading, viewing educational media, and language interaction (talking, listening to others) build academic background (2004, pp.17-41).

Marzano recommends a six step approach to direct vocabulary instruction which includes the following:

1. description, explanation, or example by the teacher
2. a restatement of the explanation in students’ own words
3. creation by students of a nonlinguistic representation of the term
4. periodic exposure to terms through comparing, classifying, generating metaphors and analogies--using the terms, revisiting the non-linguistic

representations, and focusing on roots and affixes to deepen vocabulary knowledge

5. periodic discussion of terms among students
6. involving students in word games that increase motivation and enthusiasm (pp. 91-103).

Lists of words of specific significance in World History are identified for levels 3 (grades 6-8) and 4 (grades 9-12), as derived from 28 standards documents. Examples from level 3 include: Buddhist beliefs, feudalism, Hellenistic period, Persia, Torah, unification of Germany, and West Asia... A few examples from level 4 are aboriginal population, Black Death, European manorial system, Machiavelli, Slavic world, Western hegemony... (pp. 171-176).

## **Assessment of History—What Kind of Historical Understanding is Important to Assess?**

Formative assessments provide ongoing feedback for both educators and students to document progress throughout units of instruction. Summative assessments, coming at the end of major assignments or units, provide indicators of levels of achievement for students and teachers. Some assessments can be used both in formative stages and as culminating assessments.

Seixas (1996) identifies six elements of historical understanding, all worthy of assessment:

1. significance
2. complexity, epistemology
3. evidence (separating warranted belief from unwarranted and on what grounds)
4. continuity and change (progress and decline)
5. empathy and moral judgment (understanding those who made decisions in history), and
6. historical agency (consequences of historical actors' actions)

### **Formative Assessments**

Authentic assessments as described by Newmann and associates at the University of Wisconsin, are based on these criteria:

- student construction of knowledge (i.e., engaging in higher order thinking in analyzing, synthesizing, evaluating data)
- disciplined inquiry (i.e., using methods similar to historians)
- value beyond the classroom (i.e., related to the application of knowledge and skills to issues and problems in the world beyond classroom walls).

These criteria guide instruction, student performances, and assessment. The University of Minnesota discusses the work of Newmann and colleagues in authentic assessment that

engages higher order thinking, the consideration of alternatives, engagement in disciplinary content processes, elaborated written communication, and engagement in problems or issues students might encounter outside of school. (See an example of such an assessment at <http://www.cehd.umn.edu/CAREI/Reports/pedagogy/tasks/introduction-acknow.html>).

Bain highlights the importance of gaining an understanding of what students believe about history as they enter a course (e.g., by asking them to write about what history is and what is its purpose). He uses this information in planning the course and considers it a baseline from which to assess changes in attitudes and assumptions when asking students to write on the same questions at the end of the course (Bain, 2000, pp. 337-347).

One example of a focus on multiple types of assessment is CSSAP, the Comprehensive Social Studies Assessment Project (Czara, 1999 and 2004) which in 2002 was reconstituted as Social Studies Assessment Curriculum and Instruction (SSACI). Five states collaborated in the States Consortium on Assessing Student Standards project (SCASS) over a three-year period to begin developing social studies assessments. Growing out of that project, a multi-year effort at supporting multiple forms of assessment was initiated in 1997. CSSAP involved 23 states in the development of assessments for upper-elementary, middle, and high school students. The CSSAP project is based on major themes drawn from social studies, history, civics, geography, and economics standards.

The SSACI project developed a full array of assessments which are available only to member states. However, the plan for comprehensive assessment, which includes many types of assessments, is instructive to those planning assessment programs. The SSACI assessments involve high-level thinking processes that are engaged by means of constructed responses (lengthier written responses), and a performance element (requiring student applications of knowledge and skills in products and presentations). In addition to multiple-choice items, short answer, extended constructed responses and performances tasks were designed to take between two and four weeks to complete. A portfolio assessment system was also developed, along with scoring rubrics for feedback and assessment to encourage collecting student work over the long term. Teachers and discipline-specific academic experts worked together to reflect authentic instruction in the assessment activities (authentic instruction mirrors applications that take place in the world beyond the classroom). The Maryland State Department of Education provides examples of model lessons from the SSACI project with performance tasks in history (See especially *Comparing Cultures*, *The Three Gorges Dam*, and *Challenges Facing the CIS*, available at [http://www.mdk12.org/instruction/curriculum/social\\_studies/performance\\_based/tcpt\\_socstds.html](http://www.mdk12.org/instruction/curriculum/social_studies/performance_based/tcpt_socstds.html)).

Models of types of assessments other than standardized tests include performance assessments and links to both standards and classroom instruction from in Maryland (See < [http://www.mdk12.org/instruction/curriculum/social\\_studies/index.html](http://www.mdk12.org/instruction/curriculum/social_studies/index.html)>) The Maryland

Project for high school assessment in government includes the extensive use of primary documents.

The *Document Based Questions Project* in New York has developed two courses on creating and using Document Based Questions (DBQ). The courses may be found at <http://www.emsc.nysed.gov/ciai/dbq/one.html> and <http://www.emsc.nysed.gov/ciai/dbq/two.html>. DBQ are effective in assessing the ability of students to work with multiple perspectives on social studies issues (as represented in six to eight primary documents). Students are asked to respond to questions in an essay. Examples are provided at these sites and linked to the New York Social Studies Standards.

### **An Illustrative Program that Provides for Assessment**

*National History Day* is a year-long program based on an annual theme for students in grades 6-12. The theme for 2010 is *Dialogue, Debate, Diplomacy: Successes, Failures and Consequences*. Two million people are engaged each year from nearly every state. With initial support from the National Endowment for the Humanities and offered for over twenty-five years, *History Day* encourages historical inquiry and the interpretation of historical sources leading to one of several types of presentations (dramatic performances, imaginative exhibits, multimedia documentaries, and research papers). The presentations, evaluated using criteria shared with students to guide preparation, are judged at the local and state level to determine which will advance to a national contest held in June. The use of rubrics to guide both development of student work across a variety of disciplinary forms (performances, documentary, exhibits, and papers), and evaluation of that work, makes the project a model for sustained inquiry and assessment alternatives that extends beyond multiple-choice assessments. Teacher workshops and institutes are held as support for educators in implementing history as inquiry. Hundreds of people--based at colleges and universities, historical agencies, and educational organizations--support *History Day* events in their areas. The program is sponsored by organizations and institutions which include: the Institute for Museum and Library Services, the University of Maryland and other universities, Annenberg/CPB, National Constitution Center, the Organization of American Historians, and the American Historical Association (National History Day, 2009). The Maryland Humanities Council sponsors *Maryland History Day*, which is held at the University of Maryland, College Park. (See <http://www.nationalhistoryday.org/>)

Preliminary findings from an assessment of History Day under way in 2009-2010

suggest a positive link between grades and performance on standardized tests and NHD participation. A comparison of GPAs and social studies, reading, and writing assessment to years of participation showed an upward trend or higher levels of performance with each year of participation... National History Day students appear to be out-performing their peers. Early results seem to indicate NHD students achieved higher scores on standardized tests in all subject areas than their counterparts (National History Day, Preliminary Findings from a Study, 2009-2010).

## Summative Assessments

Summative assessment of world history has its own challenges; however, as plans are considered for the development of a world history assessment by the National Assessment of Educational Progress [NAEP Grade 12 scheduled for 2018], Bain raises a series of questions that designers of assessments face, whether at the national level or at the classroom level.

How do we balance factual knowledge with conceptual understanding and application of historical processes? How do we assess knowledge in use rather than just knowledge recall? How much of the exam should rely on multiple choice questions? Or the analysis of documents? Or engage students in struggling with large problems of historiography within and across time and space? How much previous knowledge should we expect students to use when analyzing documents? How much should we expect the exam to assess students' capacity to reason historically using new data on unfamiliar issues?

The problem for NAEP framework assessment designers is that the goal of assessing what is taught in schools is complicated by the fact that no curriculum pattern is predominant and endorsed by consensus across the nation. One course of action would be to design a NAEP assessment based on areas of overlap among the patterns and narrowing to possibly the 20<sup>th</sup> and 21<sup>st</sup> centuries (2005, pp. 241-271). Another alternative, given the fact that the NAEP tests are to assess what "is taught" rather than to recommend curriculum, is to wait for trends to develop into a pattern that emerges as the dominant leader.

The National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) does not yet offer assessment of world history. Such an assessment is scheduled for the assessment cycle beginning in 2018 (<http://nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard/worldhistory/>). Even though no NAEP examination exists for world history, analysis of the 1994 U.S. NAEP U.S. history results have implications for world history. These findings indicate that, "although several factors correlate with higher test scores, the strongest relate to the nature of classroom instruction. In particular, higher test scores correlate with student reports [on questionnaires] of instruction that include complex writing tasks, in-depth reading [meaning from sources outside the textbook], extensive student discussion, and learning tools such as outside speakers, film, and computers" (Smith and Niemi, 2001, pp.18-42).

The Advanced Placement course description for World History presents assessment as follows:

Every part of the AP World History Exam assesses habits of mind as well as content. For example, in the multiple-choice section, maps, graphs, artwork, and quotations may be used to judge students' ability to assess primary data, while other questions focus on evaluating arguments, handling diversity of interpretation, making comparisons among societies, drawing generalizations, and understanding historical context. In Part A of the essay section of the exam,

the document-based question (DBQ) focuses on assessing students' ability to construct arguments, use primary documents, analyze point of view and context, and understand global context. The remaining essay questions in Parts B and C focus on global patterns over time and space, with emphasis on processes of continuity and change (Part B) and on comparisons within and among societies (Part C) (College Board, Advanced Placement Course Description, p. 11).

The Advanced Placement Test in World History, offered for the first time in 2002, drew the largest first time subscription for an AP test in the Educational Testing Service's history, 20,955, ([http://www.collegeboard.com/prod\\_downloads/student/testing/ap/sumrpts/2002/pdf/national\\_2002.pdf](http://www.collegeboard.com/prod_downloads/student/testing/ap/sumrpts/2002/pdf/national_2002.pdf)) and has grown with each subsequent testing (Bain & Shreiner, 2005, p. 241). In May of 2009, the grade distribution report indicated that 143,426 students had taken the examination ([http://apcentral.collegeboard.com/apc/public/repository/ap09\\_WorldHistory\\_GradeDistributions.pdf](http://apcentral.collegeboard.com/apc/public/repository/ap09_WorldHistory_GradeDistributions.pdf)). In World History, 50% scored three or higher. Professional development for teachers of AP courses is available. (See The College Board for information and data regarding the AP program <http://professionals.collegeboard.com/educator>). Taking the AP examination correlates highest with future college academic performance, after high school grades (Mathews, 2004, p. A07 and Mathews, 2007).

States have created their own tests, some of which contain material to assess high school history; however, Grant argues that state-level tests are "one influence among many on teachers' practice and that tests therefore represent, at best, an 'uncertain' lever of change" (Grant, et al., 2002, 232-255, and Grant 2001, pp. 398-426, cited in Barton & Levstik, 2004, p. 117).

The use of multiple assessments of different types, as described in the CSSAP/SSACI project, is desirable, but not typical of the measures used for accountability purposes. Evidence suggests that American students are not as much under-tested as "mis-tested," since widespread testing currently features vast amounts of breadth and almost no depth as the norm (Steiner, 1999, p. 249). No Child Left Behind (NCLB) has focused on reducing the achievement gap, as indicated by state standards and standardized tests that differ greatly from state to state--some states setting rigorous standards, others sacrificing standards to show achievement gains. The NCLB legislation has been shown to have a strong influence on teacher decisions to shift the emphasis and instructional time to those areas tested by states (Maryland Humanities Council, 2003, p. 2, 2003, VonZastrow & Janc, 2004).

# Teacher Education and Professional Development: How Do We Prepare Teachers and Support their Continued Growth as World History Teachers?

The NCSS curriculum standards are designed to guide the development of K-12 social studies programs across the nation. Influence of the standards is also found in the pre-service and in-service education of teachers (1994, revised standards to be published in 2010). At the pre-service level, the NCSS standards serve as the foundation of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) recommendations for teacher certification in social studies. The standards are of two types: (1) Subject Matter Standards, the main focus of the NCSS Teacher Standards document, which outlines in detail the content that social studies teachers should know and the skills and dispositions they should possess in order to teach social studies appropriately as they seek initial state licensure, and (2) Pedagogical Standards which outline briefly the pedagogical knowledge, skills, and dispositions for general teacher effectiveness. The Subject Matter Standards are of two types, both of which are to be used to assess the knowledge and competence of individuals seeking licensure or certification to teach social studies or any of the disciplines within social studies: (1) thematic standards which draw on the NCSS document *Expectations of Excellence: Curriculum Standards for Social Studies* (1994), as well as the newly revised standards scheduled for publication in 2010, and (2) discipline-based national standards for history. As evidenced by the major emphasis on content in the standards related for teachers and teacher preparation, NCSS recognizes the importance of what teachers should know and be able to teach in terms of subject matter (NCSS, 2002, Available at [http://www.socialstudies.org/standards/teacher\\_standards](http://www.socialstudies.org/standards/teacher_standards)).

Beginning teachers, or experienced teachers seeking ongoing professional development, find extensive support at the NCSS web site featuring information relevant to the profession and the classroom, in addition to offering opportunities for continued learning and growth through conferences, institutes, and publications < <http://www.socialstudies.org/>>.

## Visual Models of Good Practice for Teachers

While educators are aware of many excellent teaching practices, models of how good teaching is actually implemented are helpful. The National History Education Clearinghouse provides searchable content (world history topics included), video examples of best practices highlighting discussion, primary source analysis, historical thinking, roleplaying, teaching with textbooks; searchable database of state standards; ask a master teacher; issues and research; and links to online professional development (National History Education Clearinghouse at <http://teachinghistory.org/>).

Annenberg/CPB provides professional development programming for teachers available at <http://www.learner.org/>. Videos (or DVDs) of classroom teaching with accompanying websites are available in the *Social Studies in Action, K-12* series. *Bridging World History* includes 26 half-hour multimedia programs with a course guide and web site aimed at high school and college

educators. The Annenberg/CPB programs examine global patterns through time, seeing history as an integrated whole both chronologically and thematically. The site includes over 1000 primary source documents and artifacts, articles from the *Journal of World History*, and interviews with leading historians.

Another helpful Annenberg/CPB series is *Out of the Past*—a video instructional series on archeology for high school, college, and adult classes. The series explores connections between past civilizations and modern societies in Central and North America, Africa, Europe, and the Middle East.

### **Teacher Training for World History**

Schneider (2006, cited in Cogan & Grossman, 2009) reported on a study of more than 500 teacher and university respondents. About half had met a general education requirement of one or more non-U.S. courses. Less than one-third recalled any international or comparative modules in their courses, two-thirds reported that certification and standards requirements do not reflect increasing globalization, and less than one fourth had been required to take any course oriented toward regions other than North America.

Bain and Harris report that world history is the fastest growing subject in the social studies; all state standards include it, 60% of the states require it for graduation, and the number of students taking AP World History ranks it as the seventh most taken AP tests. Despite these findings, the supply of well-trained world history teachers has not kept pace. “Preparing skilled and knowledgeable world history teachers has become history’s most pressing educational challenge” (2009, p.33).

Many teachers of history are not history majors, and fewer have had many courses in world history. “World History seems like an impossible course to those who are accustomed to teaching with some kind of overarching narrative” (Cohen, 2009, p. 37). Bain and Harris (2009) suggest that teachers of history be required to have majored in history and that perhaps half of the course work should be in world history (p. 35).

In suggesting possible solutions for strengthening teacher education, Bain and Harris offer that the Teaching American History Grant Program sponsored by Congress could be extended to world history to strengthen content knowledge. However, teachers may know the details of world history content, yet not be able make connections that bring details together around large questions or issues. Thus, they recommend more course work in world history by instructors who share their own ways of thinking to build coherence in content knowledge combined with additional courses that enlist teachers in making comparisons, identifying relationships, and framing historical questions at different temporal-spatial scales—local, national, world (2009, pp. 34-36).

A 2000 case analysis, completed at Arizona State University by Education and History Methods Professor Nancy S. Hass, found that many of the college seniors training to be social studies teachers, “do not have a strong background in accessing information, writing annotated

bibliography, analyzing historical data, citing and differentiating primary and secondary sources, etc.” She found that the training (in the National History Day method described above in the summative assessment section of this review) is very important. The study found that

teaching the techniques suggested by National History Day are excellent vehicles for teaching to the standards. National History Day promotes teaching in-depth versus just skimming the surface of the subject. Again, teachers benefit from participating in National History Day during their preservice education so that they have the tools to guide their own students in meaningful learning (Haas, 2000).

What teachers know about the discipline of history and how historians inquire into the past is important if teachers are to design meaningful and memorable instruction for their students. However, recent research indicates that disciplinary knowledge and competence are not the only factors operating in instructional decisions of teachers (VanSledright, 2004; Wineburg & Wilson, 1991). It seems reasonable that teachers need a deep understanding of the discipline of history as an interpretative discipline and how to translate that understanding into meaningful decisions about classroom instruction. In fact, there is little hope that teachers will locate primary sources, implement inquiry, and engage students in historical interpretation if they do not have knowledge of the discipline of history. However, VanSledright observed a teacher with sixteen years of experience who had just completed a doctorate in history and was well versed in disciplinary knowledge, yet he found little carry-over of her deep disciplinary understanding in her own instruction of students (cited in Barton & Levstik, 2004, p. 248-249). VanSledright states, “by itself, the possession of deep and current subject-matter knowledge arrayed with rich pedagogical experience provides no promise of unproblematic translation to the high school classroom.” Researchers suggest that what teachers actually teach may be shaped by their beliefs about students and curriculum mandates (Barton & Levstik, p. 249).

### **Professional Development in World History**

Barton and Levstik report on factors influencing teachers, their view of history, and the role of professional development. Two overriding conditions appear to dictate actual classroom decisions: the expectations that teachers will “cover” the required curriculum and that they will maintain classroom control (Barton & Levstik, 2003 and 2004, p. 252). However, many elementary, middle, and high school teachers across the nation are committed instead to a strongly held, well-articulated sense of purpose. It is that sense of purpose that serves to establish the goals for their instructional practice with students, practice that deviates from coverage and classroom control. Examples of guiding purposes include: providing a sense of the strong narrative of history as portrayed in most significant historical knowledge, or becoming familiar with diverse perspectives and using evidence to construct supported interpretations, or focusing on a discipline and how it works (pp. 254-258). Barton and Levstik propose this compelling purpose: “Students should learn history to contribute to a

participatory, pluralistic, democracy” (2004, p. 259). They assert that this purpose moves instruction beyond “covering” curriculum and maintaining control.

Preparing students to make reasoned judgments cannot be accomplished by telling them what to think; preparing them to move beyond their own perspective cannot be accomplished by demanding reproduction of consensual narrative of the national past; and preparing them to take part in collaborative discourse about the common good cannot be accomplished by tightly-controlled, teacher-centered instruction. These goals can only be achieved when students take part in meaningful and relevant historical inquiries, examine a variety of evidence, consider multiple viewpoints, and develop conclusions that are defended and negotiated with others...[To accomplish this] teachers will need the tools teacher educators can provide, such as methods for finding and using primary sources, developing inquiry projects, managing discussion, and so on [pedagogical content knowledge]... Teachers will use this knowledge when it helps them achieve their goals (p. 260).

These teacher-educators see the role of professional development as helping teachers continue to improve throughout their professional lives. They believe that a strong sense of purpose is important to the decisions teachers make. A strong sense of purpose influences the types of opportunities to learn that teachers provide for students. The *History Day* project described above is an example of a program that sets a high standard for professional development for teachers as they engage their students in “doing” history. The program provides materials, such as rubrics, that support teachers in implementing this model of sustained inquiry learning.

Returning to the importance to teachers understanding “big pictures” in world history and the varied scale to use in serving as frameworks for organizing world history curriculum, Harris discovered that the ability of ten teachers, some veteran teachers and others just preparing to teach, to sort a seemingly random stack of historical events and explain the basis for sorting in meaningful connections was not dependent upon teaching experience nor the number of courses taken. Rather, the difference favored those who had participated in meaningful professional development focused on teaching and learning world history on a global scale (Bain & Harris, 2009, p. 34). Harris found that the teachers “were better equipped to make connections across historical events if they had both knowledge of events and an understanding of how to make cross-cultural or causal connections over hundreds or even thousands of years” (p. 34).

Avery also points out that professional development experiences must focus on the relationships among curriculum, instruction, and assessment. The quality of instruction influences students’ performance. Thus, professional development should focus on supporting teachers as they learn how to create authentic learning environments—environments in which students construct knowledge through disciplined inquiry that has value beyond the classroom.

Students construct knowledge when they synthesize, evaluate, or analyze data in ways that require more than mere memorization or replication. They engage in disciplined inquiry when they use methods and skills similar to those of the academician or professional, such as the ethnographic methods used by anthropologists or the search for verification and triangulation by historians. And finally, instruction and assessment are more meaningful to students when they reflect or simulate problems, issues, or situations one might encounter in the world outside the classroom (Avery, 1999).

For examples of authentic assessments in world studies, see <http://www.cehd.umn.edu/CAREI/Reports/pedagogy/tasks/introduction-acknow.html>.

Beginning in 2001, CSSAP, now SSACI (Social Studies Assessment, Curriculum, and Instruction), focused on professional development training for member states using project materials which illustrate the connections among standards, curriculum, instruction, and assessment. The modules demonstrate areas important to emphasize in professional development such as alignment of instruction and assessment; formative assessments to check for student understanding as work progresses; content, concepts, themes, and topics presented through different media; and student learning supported through a variety of instructional strategies and discipline-based practices. Summative assessments are also important evidence of student understanding that require applications of knowledge and processes. Likewise, the philosophy of the project reflects the importance of a variety of assessments to provide a more complete view of student achievement, and the assessments are generally designed not only to assess, but to lead to new learning for students, as well.

RESEARCH-based professional development for member states address areas important for any who are planning professional development:

- Teaching to the Standards
- Teaching for Understanding
- Dimensions of Learning
- Aligning Instruction and Assessment
- Best Practices in Social Studies Instruction
- Integration of Reading and Writing Skills into the Teaching of Social Studies
- Teaching to the 21<sup>st</sup> Century Skills
- Brain Research Theory
- Analyzing Student Work

## Online Course Standards, Design, and Implementation: What Are Designs for Online Courses?

The Maryland Department of Education recognizes that the World History course, and other courses, may be an in-class experience, an online experience, or an experience that blends both modes of course delivery. The material below may be helpful in considering online and blended models.

The North American Council for Online Learning (NACOL) provides *National Standards for Quality Online Teaching*. Guidelines are available for online teaching and instructional design based on a review of the literature on existing online teaching standards and a research survey by NACOL members. As a result of the research review, NACOL endorsed the work of the Southern Regional Education Board Standards for Quality Online Teaching and Online Evaluation for State Virtual Schools as a comprehensive set of criteria already in use in sixteen states. NACOL added two additional standards from the Ohio Department of Education's Ohio Standards for the Teaching Profession and the Electronic Classroom of Tomorrow's Teacher Evaluation Rubric (See excerpts below and all of the standards at <http://www.inacol.org/research/nationalstandards/NACOL%20Standards%20Quality%20Online%20Teaching.pdf>).

A checklist of teacher competencies needed includes the following:

- A. The teacher meets the professional teaching standards established by a state-licensing agency, or the teacher has academic credentials in the field in which he or she is teaching.
- B. The teacher has the prerequisite technology skills to teach online.
- C. The teacher plans, designs and incorporates strategies to encourage active learning, interaction, participation and collaboration in the online environment.
- D. The teacher provides online leadership in a manner that promotes student success through regular feedback, prompt response, and clear expectations.
- E. The teacher models, guides and encourages legal, ethical, safe and healthy behavior related to technology use.
- F. The teacher has experienced online learning from the perspective of a student.
- G. The teacher understands and is responsive to students with special needs in the online classroom.
- H. The teacher demonstrates competencies in creating and implementing assessments in online learning environments in ways that assure validity and reliability of instruments and procedures.

- I. The teacher develops and delivers assessments, projects, and assignments that meet standards-based learning goals and assesses learning progress by measuring student achievement of learning goals.
- J. The teacher demonstrates competencies in using data and findings from assessments and other data sources to modify instructional methods and content and to guide student learning.
- K. The teacher demonstrates frequent and effective strategies that enable both teacher and students to complete self- and pre-assessments.
- L. The teacher collaborates with colleagues.
- M. Instructional Design  
The teacher:
  - arranges media and content to help students transfer knowledge most effectively in the online environment
  - demonstrates the ability to modify and add content and assessment using an online Learning Management System
  - incorporates multimedia and visual resources into an online module
  - demonstrates the ability to effectively use and incorporate subject-specific and developmentally appropriate software in an online learning module
  - creates assignments, projects and assessments that are aligned with students' different visual, auditory and hands-on ways of learning, and
  - arranges media and content to help transfer knowledge most effectively in the online environment.

iNACOL, the International Association for K-12 Online Learning, provides a Research Committee Issues Brief: "Examining Communication and Interaction in Online Teaching" (2009 available at <http://www.inacol.org/research/nationalstandards/NACOL%20Standards%20Quality%20Online%20Teaching.pdf>). The brief provides sections on guidance from literature on K-12 online teaching, practices and policies for communication and interaction in online teaching and learning, and characteristics of online teaching.

The report states that distance-learning research indicates that instructor-learner interaction is the most important ingredient in students' success, and that this interaction may involve emails, phone conversations, collaborative tools such as threaded discussions, and synchronous chats involving a highly responsive instructor. A section of the report summarizes findings from eighty-one surveyed schools and indicates the importance of having policies and communicating them to stakeholders. A final section highlights characteristics of the teaching and learning process (with examples drawn from the United States and Canada) addressing:

- primary methods of delivery (mainly asynchronous with a few blending synchronous technology or face-to-face meetings)
- course content development (often happening at the school level or by means of content vendors)
- pacing (generally congruent with the school calendar and often with suggested pacing guides)
- role of the instructor (at the school level most instructors facilitate instruction using the school's synchronous and/or asynchronous technology, provide tutoring to students, lead discussion, and evaluate student activities)
- communication (most schools using course discussion forums and email for student-teacher communication, many requiring an asynchronous text-based form of communication, and some school requiring phone or other synchronous communication)
- teacher requirements (most schools require teachers to have a minimum amount of teaching experience and online teaching preparation).

## **Combination Online and Face-to-Face Education: What Is a Blended Model?**

The North American Council for Online Learning provides six papers in their Promising Practices in Online Learning series, one of which is *Blended Learning: The Convergence of Online and Face-to-Face Education* (2008, available at [http://www.inacol.org/research/promisingpractices/NACOL\\_PP-BlendedLearning-lr.pdf](http://www.inacol.org/research/promisingpractices/NACOL_PP-BlendedLearning-lr.pdf)). The report points to increasing access and equity afforded by online learning and records that thirty states and more than half of the U.S. school districts offer online courses with more than 40% of middle and high school students expressing interest in taking an online course (p. 2).

Online learning may be either distance learning (in which the instructor and student are separated) or blended (that combines elements of online and face-to-face learning). The NACOL paper predicts that blended learning (or hybrid learning as it is sometimes referred to), promises to become a predominant model of the future (p. 2). Dziuban, Hartman, and Moskal (2004) describe the following characteristics of blended learning:

- A shift from lecture to student-centered instruction in which students become active and interactive learners (this shift should apply to the entire course, including face-to-face contact sessions);
- Increases in interaction between student-instructor, student-student, student-content, and student-outside resources; and
- Integrated formative and summative assessment mechanisms for students and instructor.

The report continues with examples from various district and state programs and concludes with the following key lessons learned:

- There are several types of blended models.
- Blended learning requires new methods of instruction, content development, and professional development.
- When using both fully online and blended courses, content will need to be readily accessible to support both types of instruction. Text-based content will be less effective than animation, video, simulations and other engaging and illustrative content. Teachers will need easy access to online content to keep the flow of classroom instruction moving.
- The online portion of the course will require a management system to organize content and facilitate communication.
- Researchers will need to take into account the many and varied models in attempting to quantify effects (p. 14).

## **Conclusion:**

While many of the findings in this review of literature and research bear directly on world history, all of the material supports educational philosophy, design, content, instruction, assessment, and delivery of a high quality world history program. Examples of key findings from the books, articles, and documents reviewed include the following:

- World history takes as one central goal developing globally-informed citizens.
- Standards have broadened the idea of what is possible for students to “know” and be able to “do” beyond traditional limits.
- New scholarship has broadened the view of productive ways to organize world history even further—especially around big ideas and large scale time and space.
- Supporting secondary students in reading a variety of texts, including primary sources and information texts, leads to greater achievement.
- Instructional time devoted to social studies learning makes a difference in student understanding and achievement—the more time and the more focused the instruction, the more students learn.
- Focusing on fewer topics for in-depth study leads to greater understanding.
- Increasing the opportunity for applications of higher-order thinking and deliberation of multiple perspectives associated with issues is related to higher student achievement.
- Acknowledging student preconceptions, misconceptions, attitudes and beliefs regarding history is an important step in developing meaningful instructional approaches.
- Instruction that actively engages students, builds on prior knowledge, and requires authentic applications is motivating and increases understanding.

- Professional development that supports teachers in increasing their content knowledge, as well as their ability to apply that knowledge in instruction for students, benefits both teachers and students.
- A variety of types of assessment, occurring as ongoing assessment during learning, as well as assessment at the conclusion of units, improves student work and provides a more complete view of student understanding.

If students are to make informed decisions and participate in meaningful ways as members of the global community, world history has an active and crucial role to play.

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<sup>i</sup> See Lynne V. Cheney, “The End of History,” *Wall Street Journal*, 20 Oct. 1994, A 26(W), A 22 (E) citing well-known people and events not mentioned in the history standards and those less well-known mentioned too prominently, in her view. See also Lawrence W. Levine’s *The Opening of the American Mind: Cannons, Culture, and History* (Beacon press, 1996) for a discussion of the new contributions to arguments over historical scholarship in this century and the role of multicultural history.

<sup>ii</sup> Brophy (1999, p. 40) comments on the strength of media in forming images of Native Americans among students in grades K-5, VanSledright (2002, p. 63) discusses the strength of an image of Pocahontas from the Disney film as a possible influence on fifth grade students, and Wineburg, Mosborg, and Porat (2001) report that the strongest images of the Vietnam War that high school students mentioned in interviews that were part of their study were derived from the movie “Forrest Gump.”

<sup>ii</sup> Both the DoU and TfU frameworks have been incorporated into three NCSS Summer Institutes in the past few years. Learning to use the TfU Framework is facilitated by a variety of online courses available at WIDEWorld at the Harvard Graduate School of Education, <http://wideworld.pz.harvard.edu/>

## **Appendices**

Appendix A: National World History Standards for Grades 5-12

Appendix B: Geography for Life: The National Geography Standards

Appendix C: Type of World History in State Standards, 2005

Appendix D: World History Required and Tested by State

Appendix E: Advanced Placement World History Periods and Themes

Appendix F: Representation of Dimensions of a Discipline and Levels of Understanding

Appendix G: Representation of the Teaching for Understanding Framework

## **Appendix A: National World History Standards for Grades 5-12**

(Available at <http://www.sscnet.ucla.edu/nchs/standards/world-standards5-12.html>)

### Approaches to World History

These guidelines call for a minimum of three years of World History instruction between grades 5 and 12. They also advocate courses that are genuinely global in scope. The Standards set forth in this chapter are intended as a guide and resource for schools in developing or improving World History courses. They are not meant to serve as a prescribed syllabus or day-to-day course outline. Teachers may wish to explore a number of different conceptual and organizational approaches to curriculum design. How much time should be devoted to particular periods, regions, or historical issues? What subject matter should be emphasized and what topics excluded? What is the proper balance between generalization and detail? Different teachers and schools will arrive at different answers to these questions. The Standards presented here are compatible with and will support a variety of curricular frameworks. Among possible approaches, four are perhaps most widely used:

**Comparative civilizations.** This approach invites students to investigate the histories of major civilizations one after another. A single civilization may be studied over a relatively long period of time, and ideas and institutions of different civilizations may be compared. This framework emphasizes continuities within cultural traditions rather than historical connections between civilizations or wider global developments.

**Civilizations in global context.** This conceptualization strikes a balance between the study of particular civilizations and attention to developments resulting from interactions among societies. This approach may also emphasize contacts between urban civilizations and non-urban peoples such as pastoral nomads. Students are likely to investigate the major civilized traditions in less detail than in the comparative civilizations model but will devote relatively more time to studying the varieties of historical experience world-wide.

**Interregional history.** Teachers have been experimenting with this model in recent years. Here students focus their study on broad patterns of change that may transcend the boundaries of nations or civilizations. Students investigate in comparative perspective events occurring in different parts of the world at the same time, as well as developments that involve peoples of different languages and cultural traditions in shared experience. This approach includes study of particular societies and civilizations, but gives special attention to larger fields of human interaction, such as the Indian Ocean basin, the “Pacific rim,” or even the world as a whole. In comparison with the other two models, this one puts less emphasis on long-term development of ideas and institutions within civilizations and more on large-scale forces of social, cultural, and economic change.

**Thematic history.** Here students identify and explore particular historical issues or problems over determined periods of time. For example, one unit of study might be concerned with

urbanization in different societies from ancient to modern times, a second with slavery through the ages, and a third with nationalism in modern times. This approach allows students to explore a single issue in great depth, often one that has contemporary relevance. Teachers may want to consider, however, the hazards of separating or isolating particular phenomena from the wider historical context of the times. A useful compromise may be to choose a range of themes for emphasis but then weave them into chronological study based on one of the other three models.

### **A Note on Terminology**

These standards employ certain terms that may be unfamiliar to some readers. Southwest Asia is used to designate the area commonly referred to as the Middle East, that is, the region extending from the eastern coast of the Mediterranean Sea to Afghanistan, including Turkey and the Arabian Peninsula. Middle East is used only in certain standards pertaining to the 20th century. The term Afro-Eurasia appears occasionally to express the geographical context of historical developments that embrace both Africa and Eurasia. The secular designations BCE (before the Common Era) and CE (in the Common Era) are used throughout the Standards in place of BC and AD. This change in no way alters the conventional Gregorian calendar.

### **Era 1 The Beginnings of Human Society**

**Standard 1** The biological and cultural processes that gave rise to the earliest human communities

**Standard 2** The processes that led to the emergence of agricultural societies around the world

### **Era 2 Early Civilizations and the Emergence of Pastoral Peoples, 4000-1000 BCE**

**Standard 1** The major characteristics of civilization and how civilizations emerged in Mesopotamia, Egypt, and the Indus valley

**Standard 2** How agrarian societies spread and new states emerged in the third and second millennia BCE

**Standard 3** The political, social, and cultural consequences of population movements and militarization in Eurasia in the second millennium BCE

**Standard 4** Major trends in Eurasia and Africa from 4000-1000 BCE

### **Era 3 Classical Traditions, Major Religions, and Giant Empires, 1000 BCE-300 CE**

**Standard 1** Innovation and change from 1000-600 BCE: horses, ships, iron, and monotheistic faith

**Standard 2** The emergence of Aegean civilization and how interrelations developed among peoples of the eastern Mediterranean and Southwest Asia, 600-200 BCE

**Standard 3** How major religions and large-scale empires arose in the Mediterranean basin, China, and India, 500 BCE-300 CE

**Standard 4** The development of early agrarian civilizations in Mesoamerica

**Standard 5** Major global trends from 1000 BCE-300 CE

### **Era 4 Expanding Zones of Exchange and Encounter, 300-1000 CE**

**Standard 1** Imperial crises and their aftermath, 300-700 CE

**Standard 2** Causes and consequences of the rise of Islamic civilization in the 7th-10th centuries

**Standard 3** Major developments in East Asia and Southeast Asia in the era of the Tang dynasty, 600-900 CE

**Standard 4** The search for political, social, and cultural redefinition in Europe, 500-1000 CE

**Standard 5** The development of agricultural societies and new states in tropical Africa and Oceania

**Standard 6:** The rise of centers of civilization in Mesoamerica and Andean South America in the first millennium CE

**Standard 7:** Major global trends from 300-1000 CE

### **Era 5 Intensified Hemispheric Interactions 1000-1500 CE**

**Standard 1:** The maturing of an interregional system of communication, trade, and cultural exchange in an era of Chinese economic power and Islamic expansion

**Standard 2:** The redefining of European society and culture, 1000-1300 CE

**Standard 3:** The rise of the Mongol empire and its consequences for Eurasian peoples, 1200-1350

**Standard 4:** The growth of states, towns, and trade in Sub-Saharan Africa between the 11th and 15th centuries

**Standard 5:** Patterns of crisis and recovery in Afro-Eurasia, 1300-1450

**Standard 6:** The expansion of states and civilizations in the Americas, 1000-1500

**Standard 7:** Major global trends from 1000-1500 CE

## **Era 6 The Emergence of the First Global Age, 1450-1770**

**Standard 1:** How the transoceanic interlinking of all major regions of the world from 1450-1600 led to global transformations

**Standard 2:** How European society experienced political, economic, and cultural transformations in an age of global intercommunication, 1450-1750

**Standard 3:** How large territorial empires dominated much of Eurasia between the 16th and 18th centuries

**Standard 4:** Economic, political, and cultural interrelations among peoples of Africa, Europe, and the Americas, 1500-1750

**Standard 5:** Transformations in Asian societies in the era of European expansion

**Standard 6:** Major global trends from 1450-1770

## **Era 7 An Age of Revolutions, 1750-1914**

**Standard 1** The causes and consequences of political revolutions in the late 18th and early 19th centuries

**Standard 2:** The causes and consequences of the agricultural and industrial revolutions, 1700-1850

**Standard 3:** The transformation of Eurasian societies in an era of global trade and rising European power, 1750-1870

**Standard 4:** Patterns of nationalism, state-building, and social reform in Europe and the Americas, 1830-1914

**Standard 5:** Patterns of global change in the era of Western military and economic domination, 1800-1914

**Standard 6:** Major global trends from 1750-1914

## **Era 8 A Half-Century of Crisis and Achievement 1900-1945**

**Standard 1:** Reform, revolution, and social change in the world economy of the early century

**Standard 2:** The causes and global consequences of World War I

**Standard 3:** The search for peace and stability in the 1920s and 1930s

**Standard 4:** The causes and global consequences of World War II

**Standard 5:** Major global trends from 1900 to the end of World War II

## **Era 9 The 20th Century Since 1945: Promises and Paradoxes**

**Standard 1:** How post-World War II reconstruction occurred, new international power relations took shape, and colonial empires broke up

**Standard 2:** The search for community, stability, and peace in an interdependent world

**Standard 3:** Major global trends since World War II

## **World History Across the Eras**

Students engaged in activities of the kinds just considered will draw upon skills in the following five interconnected dimensions of historical thinking:

1. Chronological Thinking
2. Historical Comprehension
3. Historical Analysis and Interpretation
4. Historical Research Capabilities
5. Historical Issues-Analysis and Decision-Making

National Center for History in the Schools. *National Standards for History*. Los Angeles, CA: Author, 1996, available at <http://nchs.ucla.edu/standards/era2-5-12.html>.

## **Appendix B: Geography for Life: The National Geography Standards**

Available at <http://www.ncge.org/publications/tutorial/standards/>.

The Geography standards bear relationship with content and processes relevant to world history. The site includes examples, details on each standard, and sample questions from the National Geography Challenge 1996.

Geography Education Standards Project (1994) in *Geography for Life* offers the following six elements and eighteen standards:

### **THE WORLD IN SPATIAL TERMS:**

STANDARD 1: How to use maps and other geographic representations, tools, and technologies to acquire, process, and report information.

STANDARD 2: How to use mental maps to organize information about people, places, and environments.

STANDARD 3: How to analyze the spatial organization of people, places, and environments on Earth's surface.

### **PLACES AND REGIONS:**

STANDARD 4: The physical and human characteristics of places.

STANDARD 5: That people create regions to interpret Earth's complexity.

STANDARD 6: How culture and experience influence people's perception of places and regions.

### **PHYSICAL SYSTEMS:**

STANDARD 7: The physical processes that shape the patterns of Earth's surface.

STANDARD 8: The characteristics and spatial distribution of ecosystems on Earth's surface.

### **HUMAN SYSTEMS:**

STANDARD 9: The characteristics, distribution, and migration of human populations on Earth's surface.

STANDARD 10: The characteristics, distributions, and complexity of Earth's cultural mosaics.

STANDARD 11: The patterns and networks of economic interdependence on Earth's surface.

STANDARD 12: The process, patterns, and functions of human settlement.

STANDARD 13: How forces of cooperation and conflict among people influence the division and control of Earth's surface.

**ENVIRONMENT AND SOCIETY:**

STANDARD 14: How human actions modify the physical environment.

STANDARD 15: How physical systems affect human systems.

STANDARD 16: The changes that occur in the meaning, use, distribution, and importance of resources.

**THE USES OF GEOGRAPHY:**

STANDARD 17: How to apply geography to interpret the past.

STANDARD 18: How to apply geography to interpret the present and plan for the future.

### Appendix C: Type of World History in State Standards, 2005

State	Social Studies History	Western Civ. Plus	Geographic/ Regional History	Global History
Alabama		X		
Alaska	X			
Arizona		X		
Arkansas	X			
California		X		
Colorado	X			
Connecticut	X			
Delaware		X		
Dist. of Col.		X		
Florida	X			
Georgia		X		
Hawaii	X			
Idaho	X			
Illinois		X		
Indiana		X		
Iowa <sup>29</sup>				
Kansas		X		
Kentucky		X		
Louisiana	X			
Maine	X			
Maryland		X		
Mass. <sup>30</sup>		X	X	
Michigan	X			
Minnesota	X			X
Mississippi <sup>31</sup>	X			
Missouri		X		
Montana	X			
Nebraska		X		
Nevada <sup>32</sup>		X		
New Hamp.		X		
New Jersey		X		
New Mexico		X		
New York <sup>33</sup>			X	X
N. Carolina <sup>34</sup>	X	X		
N. Dakota	X			
Ohio		X		
Oklahoma		X		
Oregon		X		
Pennsylvania <sup>35</sup>				X
Rhode Island <sup>36</sup>				X

S. Carolina <sup>37</sup>	X	X		
S. Dakota		X		
Tennessee		X		
Texas		X		
Utah			X	X
Vermont		X		
Virginia		X		
Washington <sup>38</sup>	X			X
West Virginia	X			
Wisconsin	X			
Wyoming	X			

28. In classifying state standards, we looked for evidence of the salient features of the Social Studies, Western Civilization Plus, Regional/Geographic, and Global World History patterns within the state documents. Often, a state organized its standards using one pattern, but provided another document suggesting a second pattern. In such cases, we checked off two columns in this chart. In trying to decide when to classify a state as Western Civilization Plus or Global World History, we used three criteria: (1) Evidence of the Western Civilization narrative and chronological structure; (2) Percentage of content inside and outside of Europe; (3) Evidence of trans-regional and comparative benchmarks.

29. Iowa did not have state standards in history or social studies. Chapter 12 of the Iowa Administrative Code, 12.8 (1) (c) (2) states, “The board shall adopt clear, rigorous, and challenging content standards and benchmarks in reading, mathematics, and science to guide the learning of students from the date of school entrance until high school graduation. Standards and benchmarks may be adopted for other curriculum areas defined in 281—Chapter 12, Division V” (emphasis added). That section of the Iowa code says that social studies instruction “shall include citizenship education, history, and the social sciences. Instruction shall encompass the history of the United States and the history and cultures of other peoples and nations including the analysis of persons, events, issues, and historical evidence reflecting time, change, and cause and effect.”

30. Massachusetts organizes their standards both chronologically and regionally, lending to our geographic/regional label. At the same time, on the emphasis appears to be on Western Civilization as teachers are asked to prioritize events and ideas in world history that have contributed to American democracy.

31. The Mississippi standards are clearly social studies, though the sample lesson plans imply western civilization focus. We did not see sample lesson plans, however, as adequate reason to assign a western civilization plus label.

32. Nevada provided *content* materials for the standards that we used for this designation..

33. The content guidelines in the New York standards have elements of a geographic/regional approach because they suggest that teachers and students should look at the history and geography of world regions separately.

34. While the North Carolina reflects the NCSS pattern, they also provide specific objectives for world history with heavy stress on western civilization. The introduction to the world history standards states that these standards concentrate on “civilizations that have shaped the development of the United States.”

35. Pennsylvania’s standards show social studies influence, but the state also provides a world history guide that we evaluated as reflecting the Global World History pattern.

36. Rhode Island provides standards outlines, rather than a state-wide curricular model. In its guide, Rhode Island used the outline of the National Standards for World History, which is the reason we categorized their standards as Global World History.

37. Within its social studies framework, South Carolina provided specific content that reflected the Western Civilization Plus pattern.

38. Washington’s standards are clearly Social Studies. However, the state recently created a framework for world history that utilized a modified Global World History pattern to organize the other standard

## Appendix D: World History required and Tested by State (2005)

(Included in this paper with author, Robert Bain's, permission 12/7/09; Found in Bain & Shreiner, 2005, pp. 255-257 ).

State	World History Required?	World History Tested?
Alabama*	Yes	No
Alaska*	No	No
Arizona	Yes	No
Arkansas	Yes	No
California	Yes	Yes (10 <sup>th</sup> grade)
Colorado	No (decided by districts)	No
Connecticut	No	No
Delaware	No	In part (some world history content on the Delaware Student Testing Program)
District of Columbia	Yes	No
Florida*	Yes	No
Georgia	Yes (but may also take world geography. For college prep diploma, students must take world history)	Yes
Hawaii	No	No
Idaho	No	No
Illinois	No	In part (some world history standards are tested on the Prairie State tests)
Indiana*	Not by the state but by most districts. If students plan to attend college in Indiana they must take world history as a Core 40 requirement.	No (except for students seeking a Core 40 diploma who opt to take the end of course assessment)
Iowa	Determined by district	No
Kansas*	Not by the state, but by most districts	In part (On 11 <sup>th</sup> grade SS exam)
Kentucky*	Not by the state, but by most districts	In part (On 11 <sup>th</sup> grade SS exam)
Louisiana	Students must take world history, world geography, or western civilization for standard & regents diploma.	In part (20 <sup>th</sup> century world history content is on the Graduation Exit Examination, which is given in grade 11)
Maine	No	In part (Tested on Maine Educational Assessment social studies component in 11th grade)
Maryland	Yes	Yes
Massachusetts	Yes	No
Michigan	No	No (although it is stated that students should have some knowledge of world history)
Minnesota	Yes	No
Mississippi*	No	No
Missouri	No	No
Montana	No	No
Nebraska*	No	No
Nevada*	No	No (not at the state level but some districts have developed common assessments)
New Hampshire	No	In part (there is some world history

		content on social studies test in 10 <sup>th</sup> grade)
New Jersey	No	No
New Mexico*	Yes	Yes
New York	Yes	Yes
North Carolina	Yes	In part (social studies is tested but it is not quite clear whether or not world history content is included)
North Dakota	No	No
Ohio	No	In part as the Ohio Graduation Test contains some world history content.
Oklahoma	No (though students have option to use world history to meet elective)	No
Oregon*	No (there is not a required course but students should be given information in a course that meets world history content standards)	Yes
Pennsylvania*	Schools must offer classes that include world history standards	No (no statewide assessment in world history, but local districts must devise assessments to determine if students are reaching a proficient level in knowledge and application of the state standards)
Rhode Island	Requirements set by local districts	No
South Carolina*	No	No
South Dakota	No	No
Tennessee	No (though students have option to meet social studies requirement)	No
Texas	Yes	Yes
Utah*	Yes (10th grade)	No
Vermont	No	No
Virginia	Yes	Yes
Washington*	No (Class is not required but students should meet world history content standards by the end of 10th or 11th grade)	No (local districts determine assessments)
West Virginia	Yes (Students entering grade 9 in the school year 2004-2005 must meet World Studies to 1900 requirement)	No (West Virginia does not test social studies past 8th grade)
Wisconsin*	Yes	Yes (10th grade)
Wyoming*	No (not by the state—locally controlled)	No

\*Some information confirmed via email and telephone contact with members of the U.S. Department of Education. The chart is included in this report with the permission of author Robert Bain from "The Dilemmas of a National Assessment in World History: World Historians and the 12th Grade NAEP." World History Connected 3.3 (2006)

## **Appendix E: Advanced Placement World History Periods and Themes**

### **Chronological Boundaries of the Course**

The course has as its chronological frame the period from approximately 8000 B.C.E\* to the present, with the period 8000 B.C.E. to 600 C.E. serving as the foundation for the balance of the course.

An outline of the periodization with associated percentages for suggested course content is listed below.

- Foundations: circa 8000 B.C.E.–600 C.E. 19–20% (6 weeks)
- 600C.E.–1450 22% (7 weeks)
- 1450–1750 19–20% (6 weeks)
- 1750–1914 1914–the present 19–20% (6 weeks)

### **Themes**

The AP World History course requires students to engage with the dynamics of continuity and change across the historical periods that are included in the course. Students should be taught to analyze the processes and causes involved in these continuities and changes. In order to do so, students and teachers should focus on FIVE overarching themes which serve throughout the course as unifying threads, helping students to put what is particular about each period or society into a larger framework. The themes also provide ways to make comparisons over time and facilitate cross-period questions. Each theme should receive approximately equal attention over the course of the year.

#### 1. Interaction between humans and the environment

- Demography and disease
- Migration
- Patterns of settlement
- Technology

#### 2. Development and interaction of cultures

- Religions
- Belief systems, philosophies, and ideologies
- Science and technology
- The arts and architecture

\*This program uses the designation B.C.E. (before the common era) and C.E. (common era); these labels correspond to B.C. (before Christ) and A.D. (anno Domini).

#### 3. State-building, expansion, and conflict

- Political structures and forms of governance
- Empires
- Nations and nationalism
- Revolts and revolutions
- Regional, transregional, and global structures and organizations

#### 4. Creation, expansion, and interaction of economic systems

- Agricultural and pastoral production

- Trade and commerce
- Labor systems
- Industrialization
- Capitalism and socialism

#### 5. Development and transformation of social structures

- Gender roles and relations
- Family and kinship
- Racial and ethnic constructions
- Social and economic classes

### **Habits of Mind**

The AP World History course addresses habits of mind in two categories: (1) those addressed by any rigorous history course, and (2) those addressed by a world history course.

#### **Four habits of mind are in the first category:**

- Constructing and evaluating arguments: using evidence to make plausible arguments
- Using documents and other primary data: developing the skills necessary to analyze point of view and context, and to understand and interpret information
- Assessing continuity and change over time and over different world regions
- Understanding diversity of interpretations through analysis of context, point of view, and frame of reference

#### **Five habits of mind are in the second category:**

- Seeing global patterns and processes over time and space while connecting local developments to global ones
- Comparing within and among societies, including comparing societies' reactions to global processes
- Considering human commonalities and differences
- Exploring claims of universal standards in relation to culturally-diverse ideas
- Exploring the persistent relevance of world history to contemporary developments

Every part of the AP World History Exam assesses habits of mind as well as content. For example, in the multiple-choice section, maps, graphs, artwork, and quotations may be used to judge students' ability to assess primary data, while other questions focus on evaluating arguments, handling diversity of interpretation, making comparisons among societies, drawing generalizations, and understanding historical context. In Part A of the essay section of the exam, the document-based question (DBQ) focuses on assessing students' ability to construct arguments, use primary documents, analyze point of view and context, and understand global context. The remaining essay questions in Parts B and C focus on global patterns over time and space, with emphasis on processes of continuity and change (Part B) and on comparisons within and among societies (Part C).

College Board, Advance Placement World History Course Description

(<http://apcentral.collegeboard.com/apc/public/repository/ap-world-history-course-description.pdf>) pp. 6-7; 10-11.

## Appendix F: Representation of Dimensions of a Discipline and Levels of Understanding

(Adapted from *Teaching for Understanding*, ed. Martha Stone Wiske, pp 183-196, 1998) Dimensions of disciplines are along the top (purposes, knowledge, methods, and forms). Levels of Understanding are identified in column one (master, apprentice, novice, naïve). All descriptions are greatly abbreviated for the purpose of this representation.

	FORMS	PURPOSES	KNOWLEDGE	METHODS
<b>MASTER</b>  -flexibility -clarity -accuracy -critical/creative thinker -use of criteria, evidence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>search for questions &amp; purposes that guide inquiry &amp; see relevance to their own lives; question the purpose &amp; construction of knowledge</li> <li>form positions &amp; recognize other perspectives</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>disciplinary theories &amp; concepts prevail &amp; students recognize the value of disciplinary knowledge</li> <li>highly-organized networks of concepts &amp; perspectives within a discipline</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>knowledge is humanly constructed, rationally arguable, discipline-driven, and provisional</li> <li>able to doubt and be self-critical</li> <li>use multiple methods to build discipline</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>rich performances of understanding; flexible, expressive across genres</li> <li>novel &amp; original</li> <li>a clear, personal style or voice may emerge</li> <li>spontaneously aware of rules of a genre or type of performance; audience</li> <li>use of evidence to support ideas</li> </ul>
<b>APPRENTICE</b>  -with support... -needs scaffolding -begins to use what is learned -begins to move beyond external motivations for learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>with support, can use essential questions of a domain and see relevance of what they learn in school</li> <li>with support, can examine consequences of holding a position</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>disciplinary theories &amp; concepts prevail along with some intuitions</li> <li>networks of ideas &amp; perspectives are linked with disciplines, though some gaps exist</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>with support, students can be self-critical or skeptical about their own ideas &amp; those of others</li> <li>rehearsed criteria may be used</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>performances of understanding show some flexibility &amp; expressiveness within a specific genre or type of performance</li> <li>uses written forms, graphs, maps, drawings...</li> </ul>
<b>NOVICE</b>  -mechanical -learning is for school only -importance of external authority	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>aware of questions in a domain but unable to use or uses mechanically</li> <li>see the uses of knowledge as tied to school</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>fragments of discipline-based knowledge mixed with intuitions</li> <li>state simple or rehearsed connections between concepts &amp; ideas</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>knowledge is information; the use of knowledge is to back up one's own ideas</li> <li>no skepticism about knowledge</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>forms are ritualistically followed as prompted</li> <li>tend to use only one symbol system to express learning</li> </ul>

<p><b>NAÏVE</b></p> <p>-not interested in academic learning</p> <p>-pre-engaged</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• little awareness or interest in the purposes of knowledge</li> <li>• dependence on authority sees no point to learning</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• disciplinary concepts missing; beliefs are intuitive</li> <li>• Examples &amp; generalizations are undifferentiated; parts of knowledge undistinguished</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• the world is comprehensible without disciplines</li> <li>• trial &amp; error is the only method used for building knowledge; no criteria used</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• genres to show knowledge are irrelevant</li> <li>• no communicative or aesthetic intention is apparent</li> </ul>
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## **Appendix G: Representation of the Teaching for Understanding Framework**

(Adapted from The Teaching for Understanding Guide, T. Blythe and Associates, 1998)

### **Planning, Implementing, Reflecting, and Discussing a Unit of Instruction**

**Course** \_\_\_\_\_ **Grade:** \_\_\_\_ **Approximate Length:** \_\_\_\_

**Last Unit:** \_\_\_\_\_ **Current Unit:** \_\_\_\_\_ **Next Unit:** \_\_\_\_\_

- 1) **Throughlines:** (List the **throughlines** that have been selected for the year/semester. How do the throughlines support disciplinary learning?) (3-5 throughlines that can highlight content, processes, or dispositions)
- 2) **Generative Topic** (What is the generative topic for this unit? \_\_\_\_\_)  
(Select or work with students to select a generative topic/powerful concept that is the specific focus of this unit--a concept central to one or more academic disciplines. For example: revolution, power, peace, leadership, authority--topics with great potential for connections to other disciplines and to students' lives. The purpose is to engage as many students as possible in an initial instructional experience around the generative topic as the unit begins.)
- 3) **Unit goals:** (What are unit goals that support both the generative topic and one or more of the throughlines?)  
(3 or four goals)
- 4) **Performances of Understanding:** (What will students do day by day to demonstrate they are learning unit goals? How do lesson activities and projects build toward more encompassing "performances of understanding" to support important disciplinary learning captured in unit goals and long-term throughlines?)
- 5) **Ongoing Assessment (Formal/Informal):** (How will you assess student learning reflected in student performances of understanding as the unit progresses? (e.g., As students carry out performances of understanding, what questions will you ask in class, how will assignments reflect learning of major unit goals, what rubrics will help students more carefully craft projects/presentations and assess them, what opportunities will students have to reflect on their work and think about how it addresses unit goals and throughlines, what opportunities will students have to refine and redo assignments based on feedback from peers and from you?)
- 6) **End of Unit Assessments (Formal/Informal):** (What varied assessments will you use to encourage students to extend, apply, and connect what they have learned in this unit to previous units and to other disciplines?) Examples are provided below of varied end-of-unit

assessments. Using many types of assessments provides a more complete picture of learning.

Move beyond exclusive use of objective and written formats to measure breadth of learning such as stimulus material (maps, charts, brief readings, speeches, excerpts from a document, poems, drawings, objects or models, etc., followed by paper/pencil objective questions that call for the use of facts in analysis, interpretation, or evaluation; brief constructed answer; brief written responses; Extended answer- essay; research paper; to culminating performances of understanding.

**CULMINATING PERFORMANCES of UNDERSTANDING**—student demonstrations of understanding that draw from and build on the unit performances in culminating forms that call on students to use knowledge and processes in new contexts. For example:

Major course projects; presentations; additions to an on-going portfolio; an assessment of the students' own construction that demonstrates understanding goals.

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