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SCHOOL LIFE ON THE MISSISSIPPI:
AN INQUIRY INTO THE IMPACT OF THE LOUISIANA
REFORM MOVEMENT RELATED TO STANDARDS IN WORLD
HISTORY INSTRUCTION IN THREE SECONDARY SCHOOL
SETTINGS

A Dissertation
Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
Louisiana State University and
Agricultural and Mechanical College
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
in

The Department of Curriculum and Instruction

by
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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to explore the impact of standards on the instruction of world history in three secondary school settings. Contact with the Department of Education of the State of Louisiana found that the implementation of standards had only begun in 1997. After a grace period for implementation, the inaugural testing of the accountability system for these standards occurred in the spring of 2000. Therefore, this study became an exploratory investigation into the use of standards as they impact world history instruction.

The first research question was designed to assist the researcher in exploring the influence that the standards exerted on classroom instruction in world history. The second question examined the use of various teaching techniques. The final question addressed how the use of materials and resources, particularly technology, impacted instruction in world history at three secondary school settings.

Because of the critical nature of this issue, many prominent educators have taken the time to write articles including Kenneth Jackson of Columbia University and the chair of the Bradley Commission, Diane Ravitch, Assistant Secretary of Education under President Bush, and Arthur Schlesinger, Jr., the Pulitzer Prize winning historian and biographer.

This study revealed three areas that needed to be addressed, and the first two areas resulted from communication problems. The three points were:

- Greater teacher input in the process of text selection.
- Improved teacher involvement in the development and upgrading of technology plans.
The need for a set of accurate assessment procedures to determine whether the information being taught in world history correlates with national and state standards.
Chapter 1
Introduction

The earliest indication of the need for reform in social studies instruction came in 1989 when several of my high school history students expressed views that were distinctly different from mine. This was unsettling since my viewpoint agreed with the majority of historians. Further investigation revealed that many of these students held different positions, but not because of their sophisticated view of history but because they were misinformed. In a discussion with the vice-principal, I suggested that revisionism must be pervasive throughout secondary schools, at least in the social studies area. He laughed and showed me a quote from the Spanish philosopher Santayana:

Progress, far from consisting in change, depends on retentiveness. When change is absolute there remains no being to improve and no direction is set for possible improvement: and when experience is not retained as among savages, infancy is perpetual. Those who cannot remember the past are condemned to repeat it. (Santayana, 1953, p. 82)

With the wisdom of Solomon, he said, “teach history and correct errors as you find them, as a magnet high school we draw students from all over the parish and from any number of social studies programs, employing both certified and uncertified teachers, and therefore different ideas.”

Several years later, a professor who had taught me in Balkan and Eastern European history courses related this anecdote about change. It seemed that one great mid western state university opted to change its format of teaching the basic first-year western civilization course. This university held the opinion that its incoming students had been grounded in the correct names, dates, and places in high school and so did not need the traditional lecture-style course. It introduced a seminar-style course covering

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the salient points of Western Civilization in an attempt to avoid redundancy. This innovation proved to be somewhat embarrassing when a member of the history faculty who had been assigned a seminar on 20th-century changes in Germany, spent his first class meeting quelling an argument among the students as to which came first, World War I or Martin Luther. On the recommendation of the history faculty, the university returned to the traditional course.

A recent example of the lack of history knowledge of college students was illustrated in several newspapers this year in an article by the Associated Press under the headline “Survey finds history a mystery to 80 per cent of Students.” This article reported that 443 of 556 college seniors, from some of this country’s most prestigious schools such as Harvard, Brown and Princeton, who were given a 34 question high school American History examination, either failed or marginally passed. (See Appendix A for further information.)

These three examples highlight the concerns about history education, especially at the secondary level. This study emanated from a concern for history education, and the need for reforms and the impact that these reforms are having on instruction at the secondary level.

**The Educational Environment**

The current atmosphere for educational reform first emerged with the presidential election of 1984. One of the first official voices to express concern about American schools in the 1980’s originated from the presidential administration of Ronald Reagan. Indeed, this administration severely criticized public education. This dissatisfaction with public education at the highest levels provided the motivation for
reform efforts such as the Bradley Commission. The Bradley Commission on History in Schools was created in 1987, funded by the foundation of Lynde and Henry Bradley and chaired by the distinguished Mellon Professor of History and Social Sciences at Columbia University, Kenneth T. Jackson. Jackson, along with sixteen other members, gave input on reforming history education in its curriculum and teaching forms. As stated by the chair, the Commission's two most important goals were:

- to explore the conditions that contribute to, or impede, the effective teaching of history in American schools, kindergarten through grade 12.
- to make recommendations on the curricular role of history, and on how all of those concerned—teachers, university professors, publishers, and boards of education—may improve the teaching of history as the core of social studies in schools. (Gagnon, 1989, p. 18)

This Commission developed a number of important initiatives and ideas that were reflected by the platforms of the major political parties in the next presidential election which came less than a year after the Commission was formed.

Following the inauguration of President George Bush, the work of the Bradley Commission influenced reforms in a majority of the fifty states. Still and all, unlike other nations whose education systems are controlled by centralized national ministries of education...the United States, with its 15,000 local school districts, fifty state boards of education (plus the District of Columbia), and the federal Department of Education, educational change is a messy affair. (Ravitch, 1995, p. 2)

With education reform in the forefront, many groups and organizations had ideas for the new president. As a result, one such group, the National Council for History Education (NCHE), pushed for a dialogue on educational reform among state and national leaders, leading to President Bush and the nation's governors agreeing to set national educational goals. At a meeting in early 1989 these officials affirmed these goals, and in early 1990
the national goals for the year 2000 were created and promulgated. (Ravitch, 1993, p. 9)

In 1990, as it appeared that the reform movement was gaining momentum, a crisis in foreign affairs put it aside.

Bush's education initiatives, later referred to as America 2000, had successfully avoided dilution in the face of such momentous events as the destruction of the Berlin Wall in 1989 and the fall of communism in Europe that same year. But in August 1990, Iraq's army invaded its oil-rich, but small neighbor, Kuwait. The United States immediately started building a coalition among its Western European, Asian friends and most of the Arab states to undo Iraq's successful attack. This coalition was able to fight and win the Persian Gulf War, 1990-1991, but it was temporarily at the cost of major educational reform in the United States.

In late 1991 and early 1992, during another presidential campaign, the topic of educational reform reemerged. With the election of William Clinton, who had been to the 1989 Governor's Conference, history education once again vaulted into a prominent position. Clinton moved quickly to put his imprimatur on this important issue. Once again a committee of 'elite' educators was formed, the Winston Committee, named after its chair, the noted educator Michael Winston of Howard University. Only one member of the Bradley Commission, the distinguished historian from Princeton University, Theodore Rabb, also served on this committee. Still, the Bradley Commission had influence as eight of its original sixteen members served on at least one of the twenty-one task forces, focus groups, or panels spawned by the Winston Committee. Upon completion of a review of this area of education, the Winston Committee submitted a report to President Clinton, which called for even more ambitious and radical changes
for improving history education than had the Bradley Commission. By now change upon
change had been announced, all under the aegis of improving history education, and all
that it seemed to lack was a law which the new president had promised to sign.

True to his word, President Clinton highlighted the changes in the teaching of
history in his package of educational reforms, which he called ‘Goals 2000’, and he
signed this package into law in March 1994. To make sure this ‘new’ guide to
educational reform was correctly implemented, President Clinton in 1994 also authorized
the National Assessment of Educational Progress in United States History to evaluate
these improvements. Confident of success, the administration awaited the results of the
November 1995 evaluation.

The National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) evaluations of
November 1995 were a disappointment both to parents and to President Clinton. The
scores on the history test were quite low. Unfortunately, when the results were
published the recriminations began. Parents pointed to what they thought was poor
instruction; teachers pointed to administrators and inadequate curriculums; and everyone
faulted the politicians.

The National Council for History Education called for and held a symposium on
March 1-2, 1996, at the Library of Congress to analyze the low scores and suggest ways
to improve history education in our schools. The 140 delegates attending this
symposium came to share their ideas under the symposium’s theme: “Reinvigorating
History in U.S. Schools: Reform Recommendations for the States.”
The Problem

This study originated from the concern for students in our secondary schools whose knowledge of world history is limited both in scope and depth. It is critical that reformers determine whether this is a result of standards in need of reform, varied instructional techniques, inappropriate selection and use of materials and resources, or a combination of all of these.

As a result of the low scores on the National Assessment of Educational Progress, the National Council for History Education called for a review of what it termed a ‘wrong’ approach to history instruction. Indeed, Kenneth Jackson, the chair of the Bradley Commission, and several of its other members had reported in 1988 that “many high school students could satisfy their social science requirements for graduation by taking such diverse, disconnected courses as current events, drug education, sex education, civics, values education, economics, and psychology and never take a history course at all.” (Gagnon, 1989, p. 7) To these individuals, the National Assessment of Educational Progress scores of November 1995 were not a shock, but the inevitable result of a limited history curriculum. Indeed, most members of the National Council for History Education and the National Center for History in the Schools (NCHS), people who deal with students and history, clearly understood the need for curriculum reform.

In the National Standards for History (NSH) (Basic Edition), they stated that

historical understanding also requires that students thoughtfully read the historical narratives created by others...Reading such narratives requires that students analyze the assumptions—stated and unstated—from which the narrative was constructed and assess the strength of the evidence presented. (NSH, 1996, p.59)

Using this as a guideline, the National Center for History in the Schools felt that history
education should draw upon the following five interconnected concepts of historical thinking:

1. Chronological Thinking
2. Historical Comprehension
3. Historical Analysis and Interpretation
4. Historical Research Capabilities

The National Council for History Education identified five key areas of history at its symposium on March 1 and 2, 1996. They were:

1. The history curriculum in schools: scope and sequence
2. Updating the content of the history curriculum
3. Preparation of history teachers and their continuing professional development
4. Effective and interesting teaching practices for classrooms
5. Identifying the best resources and materials for teaching and learning history. (NCHE Symposium, 1996, p. 1)

As four of five areas proposed by these two distinguished groups were similar, it seems logical to assume that by following them, history education would be stimulated and improved.

**The Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study was to explore the impact of the Louisiana Reform Movement’s efforts to mandate that school districts implement and adhere to the national standards developed for world history instruction. It is through a comparison of old and new methods and the inclusion of new sources that history instruction, education, and knowledge will be improved. In 1991 Thomas Toch wrote in his book, *In the Name of Excellence*, that reformers

have largely sidestepped the difficult but essential task of supplying the capable teachers and fresh instructional strategies needed to reach a wide
range of students with the type of challenging academic courseware traditionally reserved for the academic and social elites. (Toch, 1991, p. 102)

This statement now appears to be inaccurate, because educational reformers are now not just talking about the problem, but grappling with it and attempting to provide relevant solutions for academic success.

**The Schools**

Three schools were selected as subjects for this project. (See Appendix B for the permissions.) Two of these high schools are magnet high schools, while one is a traditional high school. These magnets are schools offering specialized curricula designed to attract students from all over River City Parish and require a minimum grade point average of 2.5 out of 4.0, both for admission and retention.

**The Significance of this Study**

The primary focus of this study was to determine if instruction in world history has been improved by these latest national reform efforts, or adversely affected, as some have suggested.

Diane Ravitch, a member of the Bradley Commission and an Assistant Secretary of Education in the Bush Administration under Secretary of Education Lamar Alexander, explores both views in her engaging work, *National Standards in American Education*. She states that a few countries “have a national curriculum that describes content standards.” (1995, p. 14) Ravitch then, somewhat stridently states:

In the United States some school districts and states have curriculum guidelines (or curriculum frameworks) that contain clear content standards; most, however, do not. Many states have curriculum documents that list broad, diffuse objectives or...lofty goals, but these are
rhetorical statements rather than content standards because no one is quite sure what they mean or how to measure them. (1995, p. 14)

Ravitch goes on to state:

Many people, for different reasons, object to national education standards and national testing....The critics range from conservatives, who have always opposed expansion of the federal role in education, to liberals, who fear that meaningful standards will cause poor children to fail or drop out of school. (1995, p. 18-19)

The former assistant Secretary of Education further expresses her concern that these detractors, however partisan they may be,

are right to worry about the dangers inherent in setting standards in subjects such as history and English, where people hold divergent views....[Because any national (or state) board that oversees education standards must be scrupulously nonpartisan not only about the political parties, but also about disputes over fundamental issues. (Ravitch, 1995, p. 19-20)

Furthermore, as Ravitch explains, standards and assessments are not a panacea capable of curing all the ills of education. Standards and assessments are not a solution for the myriad other problems of schools or society....No one is so naive as to believe that efforts to improve academic achievement would counteract deleterious social trends.... No, the purpose of establishing standards and assessments is to raise academic achievement of all or nearly all children, to signal students and teachers about the kind of achievement that is possible with hard work, to emphasize the value of education for future success in college and careers, to encourage improvement of instruction and collaboration among teachers, and to motivate students to have higher aspirations in their school work. (Ravitch, 1995, p. 5)

With this preceding statement, Ravitch is in complete accord with several other Bradley Commission members. For instance, the late Hazel Hertzberg stated:

There is nothing we can do that is more important than to develop within the historical profession a renewed and lasting commitment to the schools and a renewed partnership between teacher-historians from the elementary school through the graduate school...based on mutual respect, mutual knowledge, and mutual advantage. (Gagnon, 1989, p. xiii)
This call for collaboration grows louder with the combined voices of John Arevalo, Marjorie Bingham, Louise Cox Byron, Claudia J. Hoone and Charles Shotland, all members of the Bradley Commission and noted history educators. In their chapter in Historical Literacy, "Obstacles Teachers Confront: What needs to change," they stated:

Collaboration between distinguished scholars and seasoned teachers was also important...to promote better kinds of history—thoughtful, analytical, rich in lively narrative and varied methods, organized around questions significant for students and for the wider society. (Gagnon, 1989, p. 252)

This study was conducted to explore the impact that may have resulted from the reform of standards relating to world history instruction.

**Research Questions**

The methodology used in this dissertation was qualitative in nature with the researcher tasked to participate “in the daily routines of this setting, develop [an] ongoing relation with people in it and observe all the while what is going on.” (Emerson et al, 1995, p. 1) The following questions were examined in an effort to better understand the circumstances surrounding the teaching of world history in a secondary school setting:

1. How has the reform of standards impacted instruction in world history at three secondary school settings?
2. How has the use of varied instructional techniques impacted instruction in world history at three secondary school settings?
3. How has the use of materials and resources, particularly technology, impacted instruction in world history at three secondary school settings?
Chapter 2  
Review of Literature

Why should we reform the teaching of history? In their article, “Why the time is right to Reform the History Curriculum” in Historical Literacy—The Case for History in American Education, Kenneth Jackson and Barbara Jackson state that since the 1916 report of the National Education Association Committee on the Social Studies, a remnant of the Progressive Movement that elevated civics, geography, sociology, and “problems of democracy” at the expense of ancient, medieval, early modern, and English history[...t]he erosion of history in favor of a more utilitarian approach began almost immediately. Indeed the decline was evident as early as 1918 with the publication of The Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education, generally considered one of the most important documents in the history of American education. Declaring that the mission of modern schooling was “social efficiency,” The Cardinal Principles defined social studies as those disciplines with “a subject matter related directly to the organization and development of human society, and to man as a member of social groups.” Thus, the ideal history course would be directly relevant to students’ interests or personal and professional growth and development. Within this scheme, ancient or pre modern studies seemed both irrelevant and superfluous[...Indeed many social studies educators such as the late Edgar Wesley, wanted to eliminate history-centered instruction altogether....This supposedly utilitarian approach...fanned by such ardent supporters as Wesley, proved disastrous to the study of history. (Gagnon, 1989, p. 4-5)

Indeed by the late 1960’s, some educators had sounded the death knell of history. Chief among these detractors was Wesley himself. In one 1967 article he wrote:

No teacher at any grade level, however, should teach a course in history as content. To do so is confusing, unnecessary, frustrating, futile, pointless, and as illogical as to teach a course on the World Almanac, the dictionary, or the encyclopedia. (Gagnon, 1989, p. 5)

So prevalent had this view become that when one university, Stanford in 1977, sought to review this academic discipline, the reviewer

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found that social studies programs at that time were characterized by increased fragmentation and dilution of curricula, by a growth of elective and mini courses, by the rapid spread of social science courses and by a drop in required courses. (Gagnon, 1989, p. 7)

With the arrival of the 1980's, history education appeared to be stagnant. In 1987, the Bradley Commission on History in the Schools began the modern curriculum reform movement. The reason for continued reform is that no matter what the time or place, human beings need a sense of self, a sense of how they got where they are in order to understand and evaluate where they are going next. History answers not only the what, the when, the where, and the who about the course of human experience on our planet, but more importantly the why. It provides the basis for understanding such other disciplines as philosophy, the arts, religion, literature, law, and government. Through the study of the past, individuals are empowered to develop a more informed way of seeing, knowing and coping with the larger human society in which they live. (Gagnon, 1989, p. 10)

Concepts for Reform in World History Curriculum

Investigating the current approach to teaching world history in Louisiana and the impact of reform is especially important because the field of world history has been frequently charged with being ethnocentric or Eurocentric, having various and sundry agendas, and lacking in objectivity. Thus, when involved in a field which has been so accused, one must consult a wide and varied array of literature, especially if one hopes to reform and improve it. As a guide in searching for answers, an examination of the following three questions seems appropriate:

- How should the views of revisionists be handled, and/or “translated into social studies instruction?” (Shaver, 1991, p. 192)
- How should changes, which occur in society, be incorporated into curriculum changes in both history and social studies? (Shaver, 1991, p. 192)
Finally, “what alternative forms might curriculum and instruction take, based on what is known about human motivation and learning?” (Shaver, 1991, p. 192)

The answer to the first question depends largely on any given revisionist perspective. According to Webster’s (Guralnik, 1986, p. 1218), the root word of revisionist is revise and its definition is approximately to ‘change or amend’. History, which is an interpretation of the facts of human existence, naturally is revised as time passes. We must be cautious about introducing new interpretations of history to the curriculum just because they are new.

How should new information, approaches, etc., be evaluated? In their book, The Lessons of History, Will and Ariel Durant conclude their fifth chapter about “character and history” in an attempt to provide an answer to these questions:

Intellect is therefore a vital force in history, but it can also be a dissolvent and destructive power. Out of every hundred ideas ninety-nine or more will be inferior to the traditional responses which they propose to replace. No one man, however brilliant or well-informed, can come in one lifetime to such fullness of understanding as to safely judge and dismiss the customs or institutions of his society, for these are the wisdom of generations after centuries of experiment in the laboratory of history. (Durant & Durant, 1968, p. 35)

History has shown that taking time and effort to evaluate new ideas is a wise course of action; as the Durants wrote:

[T]he conservative who resists change is as valuable as the radical who proposes it—perhaps as much more valuable as roots are more vital than grafts. It is good that new ideas should be heard, for the sake of the few that can be used; but it is also good that new ideas should be compelled to go through the mill of objection, opposition and contumely; this is the trial of heat which innovations must survive before being allowed to enter the human race. It is good that the old should resist the young, and that the young should prod the old; out of this tension, as out of the strife of the sexes and the classes, comes a creative tensile strength, a stimulated
development, a secret and basic unity and movement of the whole.  
(Durant & Durant, 1968, p. 36)

Revisionism can take many forms. Because history is an interpretation of human existence, reevaluation naturally occurs as time passes. Historical events are reevaluated both from the time frame and frame of reference of individuals, countries, or entities. Such reevaluations may lead to confirmation or revision of the prevailing viewpoint depending on the strength of the historical evidence offered. Indeed this kind of reevaluation is constantly occurring.

An example of reevaluation leading to confirmation of the prevailing viewpoint occurs with the assessment of the Dead Sea Scrolls. G. S. Wegener in his well-respected work, *6000 Years of the Bible*, notes that these scrolls, found in caves near the Dead Sea between 1947 and 1951, confirmed the accuracy of the Masoretic text, one of the older texts of the Hebrew Bible. This confirmation of the consonantal part of the text was important because virtually all translations of the Hebrew Bible have been made from the Masoretic text.

When reevaluation of a historic event occurs, different viewpoints emerge. For the purpose of this study, those agreeing with the majority are defined as “majority revisionists,” practicing “majority revisionism,” while those who accept an opinion not agreeing with the majority are entitled “minority revisionist,” who practice “minority revisionism”. Many times both categories have access to the same information with each reaching different conclusions even though some minority viewpoints seem closer to the truth.
At this time, the international community believes that Japan is practicing a form of minority revisionism. Official Japan resists accepting responsibility for its role in World War II. Japan rebuffs any international call to explain atrocities committed in the name of the government. Japanese officials have denied such atrocities took place, despite overwhelming evidence that they did. Indeed, Iris Chang in *The Rape of Nanking* (1997) states that the newly subjugated citizens of Nanking were spiked “to wooden boards and [run] over...with tanks....and used....for bayonet practice.” (Chang, 1997, p. 87) Chang has documentation to prove these atrocities, as do a number of countries occupied by Japan. Lately the Japanese have agreed that some of their behavior was wanton and heinous and have paid reparations to both former prisoners of war and women of conquered nations forced to serve in Japanese *Comfort Battalions*. Apparently, the Japanese, because of the new world view of human rights and the existence of overwhelming evidence, have been trying to save face by admitting to limited culpability.

Another form of revisionism occurs when someone, perhaps a teacher, uses or avoids using historical evidence to pursue an agenda. For example, in the case of *The Holocaust*, the majority of the victims were Jewish, but there were significant numbers of non-Jewish victims. To be fair, teachers should inform their students that Nazi cruelty and even extermination practices extended to many innocent people of other ethnic, racial, and religious origins, and that some of the first victims included handicapped and mentally challenged Germans. But some teachers do not do so, stressing only Nazi atrocities against Jews.
But what of the views of teachers with agendas? Ronald Evans in his excellent article, “Lessons from History: Teacher and Student Conceptions of the Meaning of History,” discusses various concepts that some teachers have about history. As an example, Evans examines three teachers, their ideas, and the effects that they had on their students. Evans states that according to Mr. A:

The central purpose of studying history is to solve contemporary problems. [He feels historical knowledge] is important only as it helps students understand the people who have been oppressed and the strategies they have used to change the conditions of their lives. Thus history is a constant battle for justice in an unjust world. (Evans, 1988, p. 208)

Mr. B. offers

[a] conception of history [that] is permeated with his belief that humanity is fundamentally one, a belief based on his adherence to the Bahai faith. His central purpose is to help students develop a knowledge of self and an understanding of each person’s unity with humanity... He believes that humanity is diseased because people don’t have a sense of unity. (Evans, 1988, p. 209)

Finally, Evans gives a thumbnail sketch of Mr. C who believes that “the central purpose of studying history is to understand current issues” (p. 209). The difference between Mr. A and Mr. C, at first glance not apparent, is a subtle one. To clarify, Mr. C’s view is

[the point of history is to relate it to current problems, to make a connection with the past. The connection is sometimes hard to make, but I’m always trying to make a point of relevance. There is a continuity in history. The present and future always relate to the past. Maybe I’m idealistic but I believe we can shape the future through knowledge of the past. (Evans, 1988, p. 210)

Thus, each of these teachers is an evangelist advocating a particular voice of history. One hopes to cleanse the world of injustice; one seeks to make his students aware of the cosmos; and the last wants to make his students good members of society.
Evans points out that, in the new high technology classroom with its abundance of data, it might be very difficult to modify these very different perspectives of history. With an abundance of information and some misinformation, a teacher with an agenda can substantiate his/her point of view from readily accessible sources. Evans’s data clearly show that each of these teachers affects his students. Having profiled these teachers with their different perspectives of history, Evans wonders what will happen when a student encounters a teacher with a different agenda than that held by the previous teacher? Is the teacher ignored? How does the student behave toward the situation? Evans implies that only time will determine the outcome.

The second question explores the issue of how societal changes should be addressed in education. Specifically, it deals with the impact societal change will have on a new curriculum and/or method of teaching history. One answer to this problem is to incorporate a comprehensive list of modern resources into the classroom. In the well known Teacher Empowerment and School Reform Series from the State University of New York, edited by Henry A Giroux and Peter L. McLaren, there is a volume on the eminent educator Paulo Freire entitled Paulo Freire On Higher Education. Freire discusses the importance of curriculum, noting that the educational environment should be pluralistic and dialogical, even though sometimes polemics, controversy, and quarrels live together. Formation is a problem of curriculum and also of the understanding of what is curriculum. Many teachers think that curriculum is just a set of subjects, methods, and techniques, when it really embodies a comprehensive philosophical, political, and epistemological understanding of the pedagogical task. (Giroux and McLaren, 1994, p. 97)
Evans's article endorses this comprehensive approach to curriculum, especially when he reveals his data relating to the three teachers in his study. Another endorsement of this approach is Petra Munro's chapter 13 in *Curriculum: Toward New Identities*. Munro explains in her chapter that, "[h]istory is the means by which a social group acquires the knowledge of the larger context of its collective struggles and becomes capable of [a] wider transformative role in society" (Pinar, 1998, p. 267).

Consider the perspective that history could be used to improve or change societal views. In the classroom, this view of history depends upon the teacher's ability to effectively transmit his or her ideas to the student. In order to influence students to develop critical thinking skills, the teacher could use the technique of taking an opposing view in discussions and then presenting radical ideas to the students to enhance their learning. As suggested by cognitive scientists, if students hear or read about an event from the past and can relate it to a current situation, they have gained knowledge.

The final question deals with what ways and means could be used to motivate students to learn. In his chapter "Social Studies", in *Cognition and Instruction* (1986, pp. 205-239), James Voss of the University of Pittsburgh states that a teacher should set some goals—what the students should learn—and thereby decide what should be taught. For example, before the semester begins a world history teacher should conceptualize and develop ideas of what should be accomplished for the entire course and for each part of the course. As the semester progresses, the teacher can set goals for each week, and then for each day, always keeping in mind the overall goal. Having set goals for the students, it is a much simpler task to find the ways and means to achieve these goals. In the modern classroom there are many devices to help get the message...
across to the student. Teachers must engage students and get them to seek, to desire, and to complete these goals.

In conclusion, it is crucial that the literature reviewed to develop a new curriculum must cover a broad spectrum. This review must consider traditional views on history as well as new or revised views. This new curriculum must also encompass any societal changes which would impact it. The reason for this breadth is suggested in the 1900 classic by John Dewey, *The School and Society*. A new curriculum in history is an attempt to solve

the problem of giving material which takes vital hold upon the [student] and at the same time leads on, step by step, to [a] more thorough and accurate knowledge of both the principles and facts of social life, and makes a preparation for later specialized historic studies. (Dewey, 1900, p. 159)

**Reform and Technological Advances**

With the many recent advances in technology, we must examine how world history reform could benefit by the application of these advances. These advances have a crucial role in reform and improvement at the secondary level in the field of world history. Breakthroughs in this area of information distribution, media and other forms of technology will allow the world history teacher to better instruct his or her students and to insure that they have more than the basic knowledge that they need to master this field of study.

Currently, we can divide history into two categories: neat history and messy history. *Neat history*

* [is] characterized by a coherent, agreed-upon, linear narrative, and by delivery systems such as textbooks and lecture-and-slide presentations. In fact, textbooks are the quintessentially "neat" form of history.... They
survey the historical research, carefully select and arrange the agreed-upon stories within a comprehensive framework, and present them all in age-appropriate language and eye appealing format. (Brunner & Talley, 1999, p. 40-41)

The students are not proactive; they sit and get their history. In contrast, *messy history* is defined as history which is constructed by the students. *Messy History* appears to the student as

a lot like the messy work done by professional historians: students pose speculative questions, browse in old archives, mull over old photographs, collect oral histories, propose speculative answers, argue and debate interpretations with others, role play, write and publish monographs, and even write historical fiction. (Brunner & Talley, 1999, p. 41)

Having set goals for student achievement, at least four distinct areas or technologies can be used to help accomplish these goals. These four areas are:

1. On line communication forums
2. On line archives of historical materials
3. Composition and publishing tools
4. Historical simulations.

As Cornelia Brunner and William Talley suggested in *The New Media Literacy Handbook*, these all have their own specific characteristics, and each gives the teacher a special way of teaching. As Munro expressed in her chapter in the book *Curriculum: Toward New Identities*, “knowledge is not only multiple and contradictory but in a state of flux” (Pinar, 1998, p. 265). Thus, as history teachers, we want to ensure that *our* teaching and *their* learning do not degenerate into a rote memorizing activity. Brunner strongly believes that, if the appropriate method is selected, this will not occur.

Reexamining these four tools, we find that they are very important as new technology not only motivates today’s student but also facilitates dissemination of large amounts of information. Thus, each is defined in the following discussion:
Online historical archives offer access to primary sources on many formats and allow novices to undertake the advanced kinds of inquiry that scholars normally do, while bringing their own questions and concerns to bear. Communications forums on the Web enable students to participate in the ongoing construction of historical meaning with a wide assortment of other people. Composition and publishing tools such as computers and camcorders enable students to visualize historical complexity and change and develop and express their understanding of the ways that personal and local history connect to history on a larger scale. And historical simulations place students back in time not simply to drink up the atmosphere of a different period, but to role-play and problem-solve, and in doing so develop historical knowledge and skills.

While each of these genres has its unique aspects, however, together they share a single important quality: their capacity to help students develop a more committed, personal stake in historical investigation and storytelling. (Brunner & Talley, 1999, p. 47)

Technology should be used to challenge and motivate the student. In their excellent 1997 book, Teaching with Technology, Sandholtz, Ringstaff and Dwyer research a project, the Apple Classrooms of Tomorrow (ACOT) and use their findings to show teachers what technology can do for them:

To investigate the impact of technology on project classrooms, ACOT sponsored research involving more than 20 universities and research institutions...[and] took on a new direction when ACOT received a grant from the National Science Foundation (NSF) to create a replicable model of staff development designed to help teachers from throughout the country integrate technology into their classrooms and learn about constructivist teaching approaches. (Sandholtz et al, 1997, pp. 7-8)

Sandholtz et al explained that the role of technology in school is actually subtle, because the whole process of education is largely unqualified or unquantified. Teachers vary with their approaches in the use of technology. Some teachers control all, telling students what to use and what not to use, while other teachers view technology as an enterprise where they can create learning environments or learning communities enabling their students to explore a wide variety of material. Some teachers use technology to
fulfill needs in the classroom creatively, while some teachers are not as familiar with its potential. But it is clear that technology, teachers, and students must coexist in the classroom.

Each day students and teachers arrive carrying different levels of emotional, physical, social, and cognitive skills, and all must work together for learning to occur. Sandholtz et al (1997) believed that it is the teacher, with the aid of technology, who must facilitate learning. Indeed, “the internet affords opportunities to explore worlds, to create networks, to converse with others, and to gain access to information other students do not share.” (Kincheloe & Steinberg, 1988, p. 240) Students who are given a neat history assignment, such as reading the section in the book about Khartoum and the Mahdi, may be reticent to complete the assignment unless they expect to be quizzed on the material. However, students, given a messy history assignment, such as research on the World Wide Web and write a 250-word essay on such topics as 19th-century religion, fortifications, imperialism, flood control, weather, logistics and the Nile, typically are more motivated and finish or even expand the assignment.

The answer to the question, “do problem-solving skills and data analysis skills transfer to other learning situations,” is yes. Students do retain knowledge, and they learn and transfer their newly acquired skills to other areas. Sandholtz et al have demonstrated that technology enhances the learning ability of students “building historical knowledge from vastly richer and more varied bodies of primary-source materials” (Sandholtz et al, 1997, p. 81). If students are comfortable in a technological environment, they will use the technology to learn. If students are not, they will not learn at all, as Brunner and Talley concur:
Helping students move from relatively passive absorption of information to habits in which they are able to frame arguments, consider evidence, and apply judgment creatively is key if we are to develop powerful and flexible thinkers capable of communicating about and solving problems. (Brunner & Talley, 1997, p. 35)

Brunner and Talley stated in their book that the current trend in instruction in history is towards technology and hence *messy history*. They stated that there are three reasons for the shift to the new or *messy history*:

1. a crisis in students’ historical knowledge,
2. a new view of history and
3. changes in the technology of the media.

Brunner and Talley also discussed how the changes in the *technology of the technology* have affected classroom environment. Since the computer age began, the ways in which information is stored, retrieved, and shared have dramatically influenced the methods of teaching history. They have observed two important trends:

- The gradual move to more and more visual aids in teaching students; and
- the growth of technology which will allow the teachers to store and retrieve large bodies of information for their students.

Brunner and Talley (1999) explained that the web-connected classroom is one in which the teacher will have an abundance of data to draw upon to explain many world situations to the student. The teacher will be able to aid the students in understanding the current world situation, demonstrating to them how their fellow inhabitants work and live, and how past civilizations have influenced us.

In exploring the use of technology in the classroom, Brunner and Talley are supported and amplified by Sandholtz et al (1997) in their book *Teaching with Technology*. They reported on a support process called unit-of-practice (UOP):
Specifically created to help teachers integrate technology into the curriculum, the UOP is a tool designed to encourage teachers to experiment with, learn, and implement new teaching approaches. The UOP process also helped teachers develop a common language for reflecting on and sharing different components of a teaching episode, thereby facilitating collegial support. (Sandholtz et al, 1997, p. 122)

Unit-of-practice can be applied to any class project that extends over any number of days and allows for rapid changes in both technology and technique of teaching a given subject.

Technology has a powerful positive effect “on the student[’s] understanding of and attitudes toward a global society” (Shaver, 1991, p. 519). As Sandholtz et al suggested in Teaching with Technology, the UOP now becomes like the “ancient Chinese game, the tangram” (p. 123). In this game,

tiles of different shapes and sizes fit together to form a square. However, the tiles can also be positioned to form a wide variety of other shapes, such as a cat, a bird, a sailboat, or a house. The tiles take on unique and specific characteristics, but only in relation to the other pieces. (Sandholtz et al, 1997, p. 123)

Another issue in the use of technology in the classroom relates to financial constraints. As Durant and Durant pointed out in The Lessons of History:

History, according to Karl Marx, is economics in action—the contest among individuals, groups, classes, and states for food, fuel, materials, and economic power. Political forms, religious institutions, cultural creations are all rooted in economic realities. (Durant & Durant, 1968, p. 52)

Having said this there is little doubt why Durant and Durant concluded:

that every economic system must sooner or later rely upon some form of the profit motive to stir individuals and groups to productivity. Substitutes like slavery, police supervision, or ideological enthusiasm prove too unproductive, too expensive, or too transient. Normally and generally men are judged by their ability to produce—except in war when
they are ranked according to their ability to destroy. (Durant & Durant, 1968, p. 54-55)

Sandholtz et al stated that:

Teachers are frequently targeted for criticism when there are problems in schools, but they are rarely asked for solutions. Yet their views, beliefs, and actions are of paramount significance. Ultimately teachers decide what happens within their own classrooms. Consequently teachers are the gateway to change (Cuban, 1986). Their direct involvement in reform efforts can provide the impetus and direction for change. For when the questions are classroom based and teacher driven, the solutions are also classroom based and teacher driven. (Sandholtz et al, 1997, p.183)

There are any number of perspectives and books on the reform of various academic disciplines and a great number of exciting new advances to be explored to enhance learning, especially in the social studies area. But what, if anything, would a review of the literature of reform reveal? It reveals that most educators are calling for reform and what reform will accomplish for social studies instruction for our youth. As Diane Ravitch suggested in her article, *The Plight of History in American Schools* (1989), in Paul Gagnon's anthology *Historical Literacy*:

By mid-century most American public schools had adopted a nearly standardized social studies curriculum: children in kindergarten and the first three grades studied self, home, family, neighborhood, and community; children in fourth grade studied state history; in fifth grade American history; in sixth grade world cultures; seventh grade world geography; eighth grade American history; ninth grade civics or world cultures; tenth grade world history; eleventh grade American history; twelfth grade, American government...while there have been many variations from district to district, this has been the dominant social studies curriculum for the last fifty years. (Gagnon, 1989, p. 63)

Ravitch then goes on to say:

Despite this format's persistent emphasis on social relevance and student interest, surveys have repeatedly shown that students find social studies to be less interesting and less important than their other school
subjects....There are many possible answers including the compendious, superficial, and dull textbooks students are assigned to read. But the curricular pattern itself must be in some measure at fault, as it forces repetition of courses on the one hand and too little time for study in depth on the other (Gagnon, 1989, p. 64).

Diane Ravitch further stated that:

History will never be restored as a subject of value unless it is detached from vulgar utilitarianism; it should not be expected to infuse morals or patriotism. Properly taught, history teaches the pursuit of truth and understanding, it establishes a context of human life in a particular time and place, relating art, literature, philosophy, law, architecture, language, government, economics, and social life; it portrays the great achievements and terrible disasters of the human race; it awakens youngsters to the universality of the human experience as well as to the particularities that distinguish cultures and societies from one another; it encourages the development of intelligence, civility, and a sense of perspective....It leaves its students with cultured resources on which they may draw the rest of their lives. These are values and virtues that are gained through the study of history, values and virtues essential to the free individual exercising freedom of mind. Beyond these history needs no further justification. (Gagnon, 1989, p. 68)

Reform in World History Education in Louisiana

Since 1994, the state of Louisiana has adhered to the Goals 2000 format. As the state purchases new textbooks and ancillary aids every seven years and had already purchased such texts and aids in 1991, it was not until 1998 that textbooks and other resources using the guidelines set forth in the Goals 2000 program were purchased. The Louisiana Board of Elementary and Secondary Education (BESE) set forth criteria for teachers and resources to be used in teaching social studies referred to as the Louisiana Social Studies Content Standards (LSSCS). These criteria provided a framework for social studies [which] rests on the foundation of four core disciplines, or strands, from the social sciences: geography, civics, economics, and history. Each of these disciplines offers a distinct perspective for examining the world. Other social sciences such as
anthropology and sociology, are incorporated within these strands.
(LSSCS, 1997, p. 3)

Noting the importance of these strands to the broad area of social studies, BESE in the

Louisiana Social Studies Content Standards explained that:

\[ \text{t} \]he social studies curriculum should expand students' thinking across
the boundaries of separate academic subjects. A reasonable balance
between breadth of content and depth of inquiry must be achieved...[so
that students] will be able to assume their places in the economic work
force as effective producers and consumers. Civic competence for
Louisiana's citizens will be achieved with the implementation of these
rigorous and challenging content standards. (LSSCS, 1997, p. 3)

Accompanying these content standards, guidelines for foundation skills for each
academic area were set by the Louisiana Content Standards Task Force. These skills
are:

1. Communications
2. Problem solving
3. Resource access and utilization
4. Linking and generating knowledge
5. Citizenship

By teaching similar skills across a student's academic career in social studies, this task
force believed that a more erudite and better prepared student would be the result.

Preparation for the office of citizen is the crucial purpose of American
education, according to Thomas Jefferson. The vitality of American
constitutional democracy depends on competent citizens. Full literacy for
the 21st century demands a challenging education with adequate
attention to all academic disciplines. Effective social studies education
reinforces the democratic principles and ideals of citizenship. A solid
base of social studies knowledge and skills develops civic competence by
focusing on rights, responsibilities, and respect.(LSSCS, 1997, p. 3)
Chapter 3
Methodology

Research Design

An ethnographic multiple case study was conducted in three high schools located in River City Parish. This study was designed to explore how the new national standards related to world history as reflected in the Louisiana Social Studies Content Standards and to examine the impact that these standards have had on world history instruction.

In their book, Introduction to Research in Education, Donald Ary, Lucy Cheser Jacobs and Asghar Razavieh stipulated that the qualitative form of research begins from a different methodological assumption—namely, that the subject matter of the social or human sciences is fundamentally different from the subject matter of the physical or natural sciences and therefore requires a different goal for inquiry and a different set of methods for investigation. Qualitative inquirers argue that human behavior is always bound to the context in which it occurs, that social reality (for example, cultures, cultural objects, institutions, and the like) cannot be reduced to variables in the same manner as physical reality, and that what is most important in the social disciplines is understanding and portraying the meaning that is constructed by the participants involved in particular social settings or events. (Ary et al, 1996, pp. 475-476)

But the best affirmation of the appropriateness of the choice of a qualitative approach for this multiple case study originated with Howard S. Becker in Writing for Social Scientists (1986). Becker quotes from an article from College Composition and Communication which stated:

Algorithms are precise rules that will always result in a specific answer if applied to an appropriate problem. Most mathematical rules, for
example, are algorithms. Functions are constant (e.g. \( pi \)), procedures are routine (squaring the radius), and outcomes are completely predictable. However, few day-to-day situations are mathematically circumscribed enough to warrant the application of algorithms. Most often we function with the aid of fairly general heuristics or "rules of thumb", guidelines that allow varying degrees of flexibility when approaching problems. Heuristics won't allow the precision or the certitude afforded by algorithmic operations; heuristics can even be so "loose" as to be vague. But in a world where tasks and problems are rarely mathematically precise, heuristic rules become the most appropriate, the most functional rules available to us. (Becker, 1986, p. 70)

Having selected a qualitative approach for this study, it was crucial to understand the culture of the teacher and the student, because "every human group that is together for a period of time will evolve a culture" (Patton, 1990, p. 67-68). To study the culture this researcher had to become an ethnographer or more precisely compile an ethnography. According to the Oxford Universal Dictionary (3rd edition)(Onions, 1955, p. 637), an ethnography is "[t]he scientific description of nations or races of men, their customs, habits and differences." Robert Emerson, Rachel Fretz, and Linda Shaw described in their 1995 book, Writing Ethnographic Field Notes.

research involves two distinct activities. First the ethnographer enters into a social setting and gets to know the people involved in it; usually the setting is not previously known in an intimate way....[Then he or she] develops on going relations with the people in it, and observes all the while what is going on....[S]econd the ethnographer writes down in regular, systematic ways what s/he observes, and learns while participating in the daily rounds of life of others. (Emerson et al, 1995, p. 1)

This noteworthy guide explored the rigorous art of taking notes and doing field work in preparation for writing an ethnography. It presents the neophyte ethnographer with a sequenced series of questions and a strategy for gaining the most relevant information from the field. Emerson et al's description of ethnographic research explicated that
immersion enables the field worker to directly and forcibly experience for [himself] both the ordinary routines and conditions under which people conduct their lives, and the constraints and pressures to which living is subject....Immersion in ethnographic research, then, involves both being with other people to see how they respond to events as they happen and experiencing for oneself these events and the circumstances that give rise to them. (p.2)

Qualitative methodology permitted the researcher to become immersed in the activities of the classroom being observed. An essential aspect of ethnographic multiple case study is that it permits the observation of such phenomena as the impact of standards on world history instruction in a classroom. Ary et al (1996) stated that a classroom is a good place to observe all three of the critical aspects of qualitative inquiry: concern for context, natural setting and the human instrument. As an ethnographer, this researcher could gain an “understanding [of] why the individual does what he or she does and how behavior changes as the individual responds to the environment.” (Ary et al, 1996, p. 484)

Having chosen qualitative methodology to conduct this study, it was crucial that the researcher understand the most important tool of the qualitative inquirer / ethnographer—the interview. Charles L. Briggs in his book on the interview, and techniques of interviewing, Learning How to Ask, stated:

Interviewing has become a powerful force in modern society. Starting almost from birth, we are confronted by questions posed by educators, psychologists, pollsters, medical practitioners, and employers, and we listen to flamboyant interviewers on radio and television. Our skill at playing the role of interviewer influences our success in education and employment[.]. (Briggs, 1986, p. 1)

For the ethnographer, the interview is the primary method of getting information. But
what of the problems encountered with the interview? With this question words like ‘agenda’ and ‘bias’ come to mind. Briggs noted:

The claim is that the influence of one or more of a range of independent variables, such as the age, gender, race, political views, personality, or interactional style of the researcher and/or interviewer can bias responses to questions. The assumption here is that if you could strip the interview situation of all of these factors, the ‘real’ or ‘true’ or ‘unbiased’ response would emerge. (Briggs, 1986, p. 21)

Briggs contends that these points of influence fall into two realms.

[First,] this approach [or assumption] leads most practitioners to believe that if no particular source of “bias” is present or if such overt “distortions” have been accounted for, the researcher can treat these data as if they were a direct reflection of the interviewees’ thoughts. (Briggs, 1986, p. 21)

He then stipulated a second implication that

[i]he ‘bias’ theory reflects [the] notion that social facts exist independently of the observer and can be perceived from without....[And] this reassuringly places the researcher in the position of final arbiter of what is “correct” and “objective”. It also strongly biases the analyst in favor of responses that seem to bear a direct relationship to the “reality” in question. Statements whose meaning is clearly affected by the situation in which they are uttered are deemed less reliable. (Briggs, 1986, p. 22).

In other words,

[i]he goal of getting the ‘individual true value’ for each question thus greatly oversimplifies the nature of human consciousness...the interviewer’s task is thus not that of fishing for ‘the true attitude or sentiment’ but one of interpreting the subtle and intricate intersection of factors that converge to form a particular interview. (Briggs, 1986, p. 22)

Having given the novice qualitative researcher some insight, the author ends with this important advice for the beginning interviewer. “The interview is thus probably the last place where one should forget that the statements were made in a particular context.”

(Briggs, 1986, p. 23)
Trying to remember the advice from Briggs, Becker, Ary and Emerson and their associates, this researcher was concerned about becoming assimilated into the schools. However, Emerson et al alleviated these fears in their statement:

Even with intensive resocialization, the ethnographer never becomes a member in the same sense that those “naturally” in the setting are members....Furthermore, the field worker orients to many local events not as “real life” but as objects of possible research interest, as events that he may choose to write down and preserve in field notes. In these ways, research and writing commitments qualify ethnographic immersion, making the field researcher at least something of an outsider and, at an extreme, a cultural alien. (Emerson et al, 1995, p. 4)

**Selection of Schools**

Three high schools in River City Parish were selected for this study. Two of these high schools are magnet high schools with a select curriculum specifically designed to attract students from all over the parish. These schools have various programs for higher achieving students and require a higher grade point average for admission, which must be maintained to remain a part of the student body. The other high school is a traditional high school drawing its student body from the surrounding area, with a traditional curriculum and no special admission requirement.

**Data Collection**

Any study, be it quantitative or qualitative, must use data to reach its conclusions. In their text, *Qualitative Research for Education* (1998) Bogdan and Biklen state:

*data* refers to the rough materials researchers collect from the world they are studying; they are the particulars that form the basis of analysis. Data include materials the people doing the study actively record, such as interview transcripts and participant observation field notes. Data also include what others have created and the researcher finds, such as diaries,
photographs, official documents, and newspaper articles. (Bogdan and Biklen, 1998, p. 106)

To a researcher, anything which adds new information or supports existing facts becomes data.

This study’s design required that data be collected by going to the specific sites and taking field notes. Field notes, as Bogdan and Biklen stressed in their text, refers collectively to all the data collected in the course of such a study, including the field notes, interview transcripts, official documents, official statistics, pictures, and other materials. (Bogdan and Biklen, 1998, p. 108)

These authors further indicated that field notes fall into two categories: descriptive or reflective. Using descriptive field notes, the researcher attempts to make his best effort to objectively record the details of what has occurred in the field, [his] goal is to capture [that] slice of life. Aware that all description to some degree represents choices and judgements—decisions about what to put down, the exact use of words— the qualitative researcher in education strives for accuracy under these limitations. (Bogdan and Biklen, 1998, p. 121)

It is in the other category of field notes, the reflective category, where the educational researcher can inject more self perspective into the data analysis. In this category the researcher expresses the more subjective side of [his] journey...emphasiz[ing]...speculation, feelings, problems, ideas, hunches, impressions, and prejudices. Also included is material in which you lay out plans for future research as well as clarify and correct mistakes or misunderstandings in your field notes. (Bogdan and Biklen, 1998, p. 123)

Since beginning this inquiry of the effects of standards on world history instruction, this researcher has explored many sources of information regarding standards and reform. One of the first groups from which this researcher sought information abo-ut
national standards was the National Council for History Education. Elaine Reed, who had served as the administrative director for the Bradley Commission and is presently affiliated with the National Council for History Education, granted two long-distance-telephone interviews and forwarded annotated information from the NCHE to further this research. Next, this researcher consulted with his co-chair Dean Karl Roider, who provided him with a copy of The National Standards for World History (Expanded), which is published by the National Commission for History in the Schools, housed at UCLA. Upon contacting the NCHS, an address was received indicating where The Basic History Standards (National), The National U.S. History Standards (Expanded), and The National World History Standards (Expanded) could be obtained.

Data Analysis

After the data has been collected, the qualitative researcher must first organize and then analyze it. As Bogdan and Biklen explicated, data analysis is the process of systematically searching and arranging the interview transcripts, field notes, and other materials that [the researcher accumulates] to increase [his] own understanding of them and to enable [him] to present what [he] has discovered to others. (Bogdan and Biklen, 1998, p. 157)

Normally data analysis takes place after the data is collected, but some analysis must take place concurrently. As Bogdan and Biklen stated:

[S]ome analysis must take place during data collection. Without it, the data collection has no direction; thus the data you collect may not be substantial enough to accomplish analysis later. Although you usually collect more data than you need or can ever use, a focus will keep the task manageable. (Bogdan and Biklen, 1998, p. 158)

Bogdan and Biklen enumerated three excellent ideas for the neophyte qualitative
researcher to remember while analyzing data as it is being collected. These three ideas are the following:

1. Speculation
2. Limited venting
3. Annotating thoughts during data collection.

Speculation and limited venting result from

[m]ulling over ideas [which] creates energy you may want to vent. There are two ways of doing this: talking about the ideas with friends and colleagues or writing memos, observer's comments, and, later, a text....We do warn you, however, that talking about your analysis can reduce the energy needed to do the hard work of putting your thinking down on paper. (Bogdan and Biklen, 1998, p. 170)

They also suggest marking notes, by pencil, when something noteworthy or important happens (Bogdan and Biklen, 1998).

**Trustworthiness**

As the quantitative researcher is concerned about validity and reliability, the qualitative researcher must be concerned with the trustworthiness of the data collection techniques. In their text, *Naturalistic Inquiry* (1985), Yvonna Lincoln and Egon Guba stipulated that

[t]he basic issue in relation to trustworthiness is simple: How can an inquirer persuade his or her audiences (including self) that the findings of an inquiry are worth paying attention to, worth taking account of? (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, p. 290)

The naturalistic inquirer must address four areas which are critical to demonstrate trustworthiness. The four criteria are:

1. Truth value
2. Applicability
3. Consistency

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Truth Value

According to Lincoln and Guba’s statements on truth value:

The naturalist must show that he or she has represented those multiple constructions adequately, that is, the reconstructions (for findings and interpretations are also constructions, it should never be forgotten) that have been arrived at via the inquiry are credible to the constructors of the original multiple realities. (p. 296)

The key word for truth value is credible. As Ary et al stipulate in their volume on educational research, a qualitative researcher

use[s] a variety of procedures to check the credibility of the data being gathered and to confirm their developing insights or hypothesis. Among these techniques are prolonged engagement at the site and persistent observation to provide sufficient scope and depth to observations. (Ary et al, 1996, p. 480)

Applicability

Applicability is the second criterion for the naturalistic inquirer, and of the four it is the most troublesome to obtain. Applicability relates to generalization; can the study be transferred to another group? In other words, applicability is like a radio message. One must be able to send the message and to receive the message. However, a naturalistic inquirer must be familiar with the ideas of the transmission group, and also familiar with the needs of the reception group to insure that the transmitted message is logical and usable. A primary concern is whether the findings of the study can be applied to other similar situations.

Consistency

The third criterion is consistency. This criterion corresponds somewhat to the concept of reliability in a quantitative study. A quantitative researcher must be able to replicate the task any number of times, with similar findings to establish the reliability.
(Lincoln and Guba, 1985). The human element of the qualitative researcher, unlike the programmed computer of quantitative researcher, is fallible. So, dependability is critical to a qualitative researcher. To increase the dependability of the research, the naturalistic inquirer will frequently employ an audit trail. Since dependability corresponds to reliability in a quantitative study, this audit trail must contain many items that document how the study was conducted, including what was done, when, and why. [Also t]he audit trail contains the raw data gathered in interviews and observations, records of the inquirer’s decisions about whom to interview or what to observe and why, files documenting how working hypotheses were developed from the raw data and subsequently refined and tested, the findings of the study and so forth. (Ary et al, 1996, p. 480)

**Neutrality**

To the naturalistic inquirer/qualitative researcher neutrality is another essential criterion. For the *quantitative researcher*, as Lincoln and Guba state in *Naturalistic Inquiry*: “[w]hat a number of individuals experience is objective and what a single individual experiences is subjective....This [is] the quantitative sense of objectivity.” (p. 300) But this is not necessarily the way the qualitative researcher perceives, or desires to perceive, objectivity. Objectivity to a qualitative researcher “does not deal with] the investigator’s characteristics but the characteristics of the data: Are they or are they not confirmable?” (p. 300)

**Triangulation**

Triangulation is a concept that has crept into the vocabulary of the qualitative researcher / naturalistic inquirer to cover all manner of means used to confirm the data and methods for dependability of their research. As Bogdan and Biklen suggested, “the word is used in such an imprecise way that it has become difficult to understand what is
meant by it” (p. 104). Most researchers attribute the word to navigation, or land survey; however, the closest term found related to triangulation was the term, navigational triangle. Navigational triangle, located in the primary work on navigation for mariners, Dutton’s Navigation and Piloting (1985, 14th ed.), is

defined by three points on the earth’s surface, and it is formed by the arcs of the great circles connecting these points....These points are the position of the observer (M), the geographical position of the celestial body (GP), and the elevated pole. The elevated pole is the pole nearer the observer; it is the north pole for an observer in north latitude and the south pole if he is in the Southern Hemisphere. It is called the elevated pole because it relates to the celestial pole above the observer’s horizon. The GP may be in either the same or the opposite hemisphere to that of the observer. (p. 269)

Realizing that this was not the basis of the researcher term triangulation, the language of the art of surveying was examined. In Van Nostrand’s Scientific Encyclopedia (1976, 5th ed.), a precise definition of triangulation was located: “The field work necessary to obtain the angular measurements between the sides of a series of connected triangles, and the length of one or more of the sides, is known as triangulation.” (p. 2236)

Since the basis for the term as used in qualitative research, is vague, Bogdan and Biklen suggested to researchers to “describe what you [do] rather than using the imprecise and abstract term triangulation” (p. 104).
Chapter 4
Findings

Classroom observations were conducted and field notes were recorded in an effort to answer these research questions:

1. How has the reform of standards impacted instruction in world history at three secondary school settings?
2. How has the use of varied instructional techniques impacted instruction in world history at three secondary school settings?
3. How has the use of materials and resources, particularly technology, impacted instruction in world history at three secondary school settings?

A description of the school selection process and background information on the physical condition of the schools and the student populations is provided. Following this descriptive material, the classroom observations were compiled and findings are presented with a discussion of each teacher within the framework of the three research questions. (See Appendix B for permission letters.)

The Schools

In exploring the learning process in secondary schools, it is crucial to become cognizant of the variables that influence instruction. One of the more important variables is the climate or the environment extant in the school. Because the development of a community is important to the learning process, two of the most important aspects of school climate are associated with the infrastructure [the buildings and the classrooms] and the size and diversity of the student population. The physical characteristics of a classroom contribute positively or negatively to the learning environment particularly in areas such as instruction and access to technology. Furthermore, the size and diversity of the student population play an ever greater role in providing an effective learning environment.
environment. This factor dictates to a large extent what is and is not possible in an individual school setting. For example, overcrowding may radically alter the instructional process by severely limiting the use of technology in teaching social studies content. Also, an awareness of the diverse nature of the student population is crucial in providing instruction that accommodates students with special needs and those who are at-risk, as well as those students who fall more into the mainstream of society.

The Infrastructure

The schools selected for this case study were from three different eras of school design. The physical characteristics of each of the buildings reflects what educators thought was appropriate and necessary at the time they were built. One of the schools was approximately 75 years old and had been selected for the National Register of Historic Places by the United States Department of Interior, which, while a source of pride to its students and alumni, was of little comfort for teachers trying to find space for larger classes in smaller rooms. Another of the selected schools had been constructed approximately 40 to 45 years ago. It was one of the first centrally air conditioned campuses, and as a result of change over time, had problems related to its now hybrid climatic control system. Finally, the last of the subject schools, between 25 and 26 years old, was built with an open campus design which now offers security problems.

In each school, the physical plant reflected a need for improvement. Each of these schools had periods of time during these observations in which the custodial staffs experienced difficulty in keeping the building in good repair. Falling ceiling tiles, water standing from leaky ceilings or windows, and a lack of heating or air conditioning were
frequently instrumental in adversely affecting the implementation of effective instruction
by the teacher and vital learning by the student.

**The Student Population**

An examination of the student population is important because of the impact on
the educational process of the school. Schools are affected by the student population in
various ways such as creating overcrowded conditions or even under utilization of
available resources. Furthermore, the diversity of special needs and the educational level
of the students within the student population affect the type of classes needed. If there
are remedial or advanced placement sections of world history, each has to be taught in a
way that is appropriate to the needs of the students. Advanced placement students could
be taught at a quicker pace and for them the watch word is flexibility, as they can
typically assimilate more information more quickly. Remedial sections require more
varied strategies to better meet the needs of these students. Additionally, a strategy that
a teacher can use with a smaller section of students, between nine and fifteen in number,
could become considerably more difficult with a larger section of thirty to thirty-five
students. For the purposes of this study, secondary schools in River City Parish were
divided into three distinct size categories. The three distinct size categories are:

- **Category I** • Schools with 750 or fewer students
- **Category II** • Schools with 751 to 1499 students
- **Category III** • Schools with 1500 students or more

According to numbers received from the River City Parish School System at the
beginning of this study, 15,970 secondary school students are enrolled (Spring 2000).
As seen in Figure 1 (p.44), these students are divided into four class levels, and they are
located in eighteen secondary school settings. The possible sample is depleted because three of the secondary schools are alternative secondary schools and cannot offer world history. The student population is further limited by world history being an elective and not a requirement for graduation. A final limitation is that this course is open to seniors plus academically eligible juniors. Thus, of the eighteen secondary schools in River City Parish, only fifteen can offer world history as an elective. Figure 2 (p.45) illustrates that, of the fifteen secondary schools which could have offered world history during the 1999-2000 school year, only thirteen had students who elected to participate in such a course offering. Consequently, the size of the pool available to take world history is 528 students out of a total number of 3119 seniors or approximately 16.9% of the senior class. Because of these reduced numbers, three Category II schools with the most representative classroom sections, that is no section with fewer than 20 students, were selected for this study. School 1 had a student population of 856, School 2 had a student population of 1331, and School 3 had a student population of 1031.

As previously stipulated, the schools chosen for the study had either several sections of world history or one large section of world history. School 1 had 148 world history students in five sections of world history, School 3 had three sections of world history with 66 students, and School 2 had one section of world history with 42 students. School 1 and School 3 had advanced placement sections of world history, which used different books and teaching strategies than those sections designed to be other than advanced placement; thus, these sections were eliminated from the study. After this winnowing process, School 1 had three sections of world history remaining, School 2...
one large section of world history remaining, and School 3 two sections of world history remaining, each using the same book, and having the appropriate size for this study.

**The Classroom Setting**

The first day of observation in the classrooms revealed that each was at or near maximum student capacity. Very infrequently was there more than one empty student desk, and when there was, it was due to absences, students having been called to the office, or students participating in special events.

Each classroom was well illuminated, with good sized blackboards and bulletin boards. An overhead projector and screen were available in each classroom which allowed the teacher to use transparencies. Video tapes could be shown in the classroom by using larger screened televisions [25 to 32 inch diagonal screen size] which were part of a video combination of television and video cassette recorder. These TV/VCR combinations are managed at the departmental level on a first-come, first-served basis. A plethora of maps was available to the teachers reflecting the years that each of the teachers had spent teaching world history [with teachers keeping out-of-date maps to use as additional teaching aids when new maps were supplied] and the additional history courses each teacher taught. By and large, maps abounded in these classrooms.

Another area of interest in this study was the extent to which the participating teachers used technology. Since the focus of this study was the impact of standards on world history instruction, any discussion of technology will be from the perspective of whether technology has influenced standards, as they impact world history instruction.
Students by Year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fr</th>
<th>So</th>
<th>Jr</th>
<th>Sr</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4495</td>
<td>3975</td>
<td>3381</td>
<td>3119</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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Total High School Students: 15,970

Figure 1 High School Students River City Parish
Figure 2 World History Students River City Parish

18 secondary schools
15 offer world history
3 do not offer world history
Classroom Observation

In this multiple case study the observations of three teachers were recorded as they instructed their classes in various areas of world history for a period of six weeks. All three classes used a text from Glencoe/McGraw-Hill entitled World History: The Human Experience(G/Mc)(1999). The field notes from the classroom observations formed the basis for the findings to the three research questions. The classroom observations were compiled and the findings are presented with a discussion of each teacher within the framework of each research question.

Question 1: How has the reform of standards impacted instruction in world history at each secondary school?

Teacher 1:

Teacher 1, an instructor with three decades of experience, has over the years developed a curriculum that meets or exceeds the current standards, both Louisiana and national. Teacher 1, being popular and having a good rapport with his students, often employs playful exchanges to make a point. When this observer asked what units would be covered during this six week period, the students shouted, “Unit 5”. Teacher 1 responded, “only after the test on Unit 4.” A quick glance at the text showed that these units covered the “Emergence of the Modern World” and the “Age of Revolution” or the chronological periods 1400 to 1600 and 1500 to 1830. Teacher 1 began most days with a vocabulary list largely covered in the assigned reading of the text. His lectures were excellent and correlated with the standards quite effectively, providing extra material when the text did not cover the subject matter adequately enough. This teacher would light heartedly tell the students that in addition to the lecture they should do some
outside reading to gain more in-depth knowledge. Some of the works cited by Teacher 1 that corresponded to these units were excellent and should be noted. Works like *Cromwell* by Antonia Fraser, and two books on the Spanish Armada, *The Armada* by Garrett Mattingly and *The Voyage of the Armada* by David Howarth were among his suggestions for supplemental reading. It should be noted that the more interested students did do some of this outside reading.

Because of the emphasis on standards and their implementation, Teacher 1 found that now students arrive with somewhat more prior knowledge in world history. Since standards emphasize a stronger foundation, students' grasp of the facts is greater and their ability to communicate information and link similar events and important people is more well developed. However, Teacher 1 commented that the text, while meeting standards, presents minimum information about certain important historical situations which requires additional explanation of certain events to the students. During the period of this study, Teacher 1 offered the following two examples of this limitation.

In Chapter 19, “Royal Power and Conflict”, Section 2, “England”, there was no mention of Sir Francis Drake or the Sea Dogs, other than as a picture caption. Teacher 1 believed that, because of the role they played in the creation of English sea power, a chapter on Elizabethan England must include this important figure and his friends. These were the men who were a thorn in King Philip II’s side, and as Mattingly, the historian of the Armada, implies, along with the failure of Philip’s assassination attempts on Elizabeth in the mid-1580’s, were the real reason that Philip’s Armada attacked England. Surely a few sentences in this section about them and a few sentences about the peril that the English faced from the Spanish Armada, [another event not
mentioned in this section, though mentioned in Section 1, Spain, quite well], would help
the student link these two very important events. This would further enhance and
explain the foreign-policy initiatives of Elizabeth and the statement about balance of
power. With little explanation of why the English Channel and a strong navy were
necessary, the phrase “Elizabeth continued the efforts begun by her Tudor predecessors
to build such a navy” on page 488 lacks sufficient background to be clear. Indeed,
though the balance of power initiatives were explained to some extent, more depth
should be given to the situation related to the Netherlands. “The Southern Netherlands
remained in Spanish hands for more than a century,”(Langer, 1968, p. 841) and every
European nation combined to keep each other out of the Netherlands for fear of losing
trade.

The other example was in Chapter 21 “English and American Revolutions”. The
Battle of Naseby fought on July 14, 1645 was the climactic battle of the English civil
war, the last major battle that the king had a chance to win. Naseby is mentioned only as
a picture caption and nowhere else. Nor is Marston Moor mentioned, the first battle of
Cromwell’s new model army in July 1644. The text dismissed the battles of the English
Civil War with the succinct sentence on page 539, “After nearly four years of conflict,
the royalist armies surrendered in May 1646.” This single sentence does not explain how
the battles of the English Civil War ultimately determined the development of the English
political system, and it implied that the king surrendered in May of 1646 with his armies.
Further down the page, the students were told that the king surrendered to his enemies in
1647, after a failed escape attempt. This discrepancy raised questions such as: From
whom was Charles I attempting to escape and had he not already surrendered? The
students were confused about these issues, especially those students who had completed outside reading which indicated that Charles I was being held prisoner by the Scots. Additional questions from students about the English Civil War included: When was the Battle of Naseby fought and what was its significance? or How can the students link the Battle of Marston Moor and the new model army of Cromwell? These questions from students illustrated that this important chapter on the English Civil War needed clarification.

Teacher 1 started each unit with an expanded vocabulary list to correct what he perceived as weaknesses in the text and encouraged outside reading to increase a student knowledge of the material being studied. Teacher 1 stated that the standards are a good beginning, but that classroom teachers should have increased input on text purchases in order to ensure that the text not only meets the standards, but that it enhances students’ knowledge of world history.

Teacher 2:

Teacher 2 had entered into his second decade of teaching world history during the period of this study. He also had a good rapport with his classes. The information covered by this teacher during the study was from Unit 7 “World in Conflict, 1914-1945” in the text.

Each day Teacher 2 would begin the class with a BELLRINGER (text term), which involved a quiz, the completion of worksheet taken from the homework, or a reading assignment; then he began his discussion of the current topic. He used the BELLRINGER as a motivational activity to get the students ready for a discussion or to teach a specific lesson. Teacher 2 was always prepared to answer the students’
questions when they perceived limitations in the text. Teacher 2 more than adequately covered the state standards with well prepared lectures and notes about important areas which were lacking in the text. He suggested additional reading to his students, such as *The Guns of August* by Barbara Tuchman or *Duel of Eagles* by Peter Townsend.

Teacher 2 indicated that most of his students arrive in the class with a good grasp of the basics of history. They know the important individuals and/or events superficially, but lack an in-depth knowledge of important events or individuals. Under Teacher 2’s guidance, they can fill in the necessary information that they need to develop the skills of a knowledgeable history student, defined by Teacher 2 as the ability to have adequate knowledge on a subject in order to discuss it rationally and link it to other events at that time in history. Thus, Teacher 2 thought that the standards were effective. Teacher 2 believed that the primary problem was the text, since it was quite confusing or insufficient in detail in some critical areas. Frequently, questions about assigned homework readings initiated further lecture designed to offset the text’s limitations.

For example, the text did not explain the Schlieffen Plan which was the German plan of attack when World War I began in 1914. It only declared, that the plan was “a war strategy that German General Alfred von Schlieffen drew up in 1905.” (G/Mc, 1999, p. 744) The teacher then became responsible for explaining any confusion expressed by the students. The text states that the “German commander Helmuth von Moltke led his troops through an area of Belgium that proved to be heavily fortified,” implying that the Schlieffen Plan had not taken these defenses into account and furthermore that “Moltke encountered far stronger resistance than anyone expected.” (p. 744) The text again implied that this had not been taken into account by Schlieffen. The more accurate
account was that the Schlieffen Plan “was a vast single-wing envelopment, played out over the entirety of Western Europe,...the result [being] to put the French Armies in a German bag within six weeks.”(Stokesbury, 1981, p. 32) The ramifications of the success of this plan were simple. Had the Germans succeeded, the carnage, slaughter, and devastation which took place between 1914 and 1918 would not have happened; there would not have been a World War. The Germans had looked over the map of Western Europe at all the various fortifications of the European States and had decided that because of the speed and power of the onslaught, that there would be no resistance to the invading German forces. It was the unexpected resistance encountered that proved the plan’s undoing!

Another limitation in the text, related to unrestricted submarine warfare during World War I. In Chapter 28, “World War I”, Section 3, “The War”, the most notorious submarine casualty of the war, the LUSITANIA sunk in May 1915, is given a detailed analysis. However the text contained little information about other sinkings and how they influenced America’s entry into the war. Finally on page 751, the text stated “[b]y March 1916, German U-boats had sunk other British and French Ships”. One of those other ships was the French ship, SUSSEX. She was sunk on March 24, 1916 by torpedoes from U(B)-29, and amongst her fifty casualties were three Americans. It was after her sinking that the United States exacted the “Sussex Pledge” from Imperial Germany. This ultimatum required the German Navy to return to prewar submarine rules of engagement. When this pledge was broken in February 1917, along with other diplomatic issues, the United States entered World War I in April 1917. Because of the significance of these events, Teacher 2 believed that the section in the text about
unrestricted submarine warfare should be enhanced through the use of supplemental readings.

Teacher 2 believed that the limitations in this text were further exacerbated by some inaccuracies related to World War II. In Chapter 31 "World War II", Section 4 “Turning Points”, the text suggested to the teacher the activity of holding a discussion with the students about the turning points of World War II, after they had read this section. The text’s four major turning points of World War II were the battles of Britain, Stalingrad, El Alamein, and Midway. The text did an excellent job discussing the Battle of Britain. On the Battle of Stalingrad, a battle that the Pulitzer Prize-winning military editor of the *New York Times*, Hanson W. Baldwin, called “an epic four month battle,...the highwater mark of German conquest in World War II,” (BLW, 1966, p. 156) the text gave a succinct three paragraphs, accurate, but brief.

To this point, the textbook had been an adequate source of information for the students on World War II; however, now some inaccuracies appeared. It gave incorrect information on the Battle of El Alamein and vague information on the Battle of Midway. Concerning the Battle of El Alamein, the textbook stipulated that

in the spring of 1942, Rommel pushed the British two-thirds of the way back to the Egyptian Frontier. He struck again at the end of May, but the British under General Bernard Montgomery stopped him two months later at El Alamein,...a railway junction about 70 miles (112 km) from Alexandria. (G/Mc, 1999, p. 845)

The above statements were incorrect. Montgomery did not take command of the 8th Army until August 13, 1942, *after* the first Battle of El Alamein in July of 1942.

According to the preeminent military historian of the second half of the 20th century, Sir John Keegan:
On 1 July [1942] Rommel was stopped at El Alamein....Rommel’s advance to Cairo had been stopped by [Field Marshal Sir Claude] Auchinleck by lively aggressive tactics; his efforts to break through frustrated at every point. At the end of July Rommel admitted in his dispatches that he had been outfought. (Keegan, 1991, p. 140)

If Sir John Keegan is considered by most historians to be the best military historian of the second half of the 20th century, then Sir Basil Liddell Hart was given this title for the first half of the 20th century. He edited the military classic, The Rommel Papers, in 1953. From this work, these are the words of Field Marshal Rommel describing his defeat:

Although the British losses in this Alamein fighting had been higher than ours, ...the price [paid by] Auchinleck had not been excessive, for [the] one thing that had mattered to him was to halt our advance, and that, unfortunately he had done. (Liddell Hart, 1953, p. 260)

It was General Bernard Montgomery, who commanded the 8th Army at the second Battle of El Alamein, which began on October 23, 1942 and the subsequent momentum that gave the Allies victory in North Africa.

Vagueness exists in the textbook’s coverage of the Battle of Midway. To say that “in June [1942] at the Battle of Midway, the Americans defeated the Japanese Navy and ended the Japanese Naval superiority in the Pacific,” (G/Mc, 1999, p. 847) was a statement which does not explain the importance of the Battle of Midway as the turning point of the Pacific War. Furthermore, this statement was contradicted further down on the same page, when the book states:

To follow up this victory, the Americans launched an attack against the Pacific island of Guadalcanal in early August. While troops...attacked the Japanese on land, naval forces...confronted them at sea....Guadalcanal was first in a series of island battles...as [the Americans] leapfrogged their way north to Japan. (G/Mc, 1999, p. 847)

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Obviously, a textbook should explain to the reader how historians define a turning point, and what criteria are used. A single sentence on a battle as important as Midway was certainly inadequate. As Teacher 2 stated “to have a reasonable discussion, the students need to be able to generate ideas from a [strong] base;” therefore it was crucial to have a text that fully explains the definition of a turning point and the criteria historians used to make those determinations.

Teacher 3:

Teacher 3 was new to the field of world history. That said, her newness to the field was juxtaposed against her enthusiasm for her students and teaching. During this study, Teacher 3’s classes were finishing Unit 4, “Emergence of the Modern World, 1400 to 1800,” and starting Unit 5, “Age of Revolution, 1500 to 1830.”

Teacher 3 started the day sometimes by assigning vocabulary words and other times with BELLRINGERS. Her presentations were excellent, supplemented by other sources when she had problems or felt that the book was weak on particular topics. Because the school was wired to the Internet and has computer resources, she could quickly access materials to add information to her lectures.

Teacher 3 was convinced that her students were well prepared when they arrived in her class. She believed that they had a better foundation, could communicate, link many topics, and explain difficult problems. Teacher 3 attributed this foundation to standards and better instruction in the lower grades. Indeed, the only weakness that Teacher 3 could cite to this observer during this study was her text. To improve this perceived weakness, Teacher 3 went ‘online’ with various projects for her students and to improve her presentations. During this study, Teacher 3 utilized the computer to a
great extent to assist the students in expanding and reinforcing their knowledge of
history.

For example, in Unit 4, Teacher 3 observed that Chapter 18 “Empires of Asia”
and Chapter 19 “Royal Power and Conflict,” were limited in their descriptions.
Teacher 3 crafted her presentations to address this limitation in the text, and, to further
enhance the students’ knowledge, she assigned each a specific project. For the study of
Chapter 18, each class was divided into work groups, and each of these work groups
was assigned an empire to explore online. After researching their topics on the World
Wide Web, each group taught a class using information gleaned from their research.
Next, in Chapter 19, Teacher 3 stated to the class “that battles were not the most
important part of history, but they were necessary, especially if the topic was war.”
Teacher 3 researched the important battles of the English Civil War and explained them
to her students. Finally, when the class began to study Unit 5, Teacher 3 pursuaded a
former naval officer, who was an historian, to discuss the naval battles of the American
Revolution with the class.

Teacher 3 indicated to the researcher that her students initially had an excellent
grasp of the fundamentals of history, and their knowledge of world history would have
been even better with an improved text. However, Teacher 3 compensated for this
weaknesses by having the students obtain information ‘online’.

Question 2: How has the use of varied instructional techniques impacted
instruction in world history at each secondary school?

Teacher 1:

Over the years, Teacher 1 had varied his teaching techniques. Thus,
Teacher 1 took advantage of multiple resources to ensure that his students

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knowledgeable as possible. He used field trips, movies, slides, transparencies, guest lecturers and in some instances, combinations of many of the above.

In the past, Teacher 1 had taken field trips to Memphis, Tennessee to view some of the great artifacts of the Napoleonic era, and also to Houston, Texas to view the ancient artifacts of the Egyptian Pharaohs. Perhaps one of his most memorable field trips, however, involved the motion picture, “Schindler’s List”, a stirring movie about the Holocaust. Teacher 1 arranged a daytime showing in a theater of this movie, which had just been released. Approximately 150 students and their chaperones attended the movie and afterwards held a group discussion with actual Holocaust survivors. The students, with the atrocities still fresh in their minds from the movie and actually seeing the tattoos while listening to the personal stories of the victims of this egregious attempt to exterminate an entire group of people, were visibly moved. Some teachers believed that the impact of this crime changed that senior class and that they became more introspective as a result.

To help his students connect with history, Teacher 1 asked people who have undergone various experiences connected to past events to talk to his classes and share these experiences with them. He found guest lecturers, who were involved in an event or who had similar experiences to a given event, to speak about the important events of world history. For example, he asked a former naval aviator, who flew in Vietnam, to describe carrier operations at the Battle of Midway, and an intelligence officer, who served during the Cold War against the Russians, to explain the significance
of breaking the Japanese code and capturing the Enigma code device from the Germans
during World War II.

Teacher 1 frequently showed movies or used VHS cassettes to emphasize world
events in an effort to reinforce and expand on those concepts and information found in
the text. Indeed, Teacher 1 and his classes had some very lively discussions.

Teacher 1 had a guest lecturer speak to the class on matters of Elizabethan
diplomacy, including an explanation of the balance of power and why Elizabeth I and her
advisors were able to maintain their independence, and the naval action against the
Spanish Armada from both the English and Spanish perspectives. He also invited
another guest lecturer to describe Cromwell's New Model Army, the Battle of Marston
Moor, and the Battle of Naseby in the English Civil War. Teacher 1's ability to use
various instructional techniques enhanced the popularity of his world history class;
although an elective course, it was taken by most of the senior class.

Teacher 2:

Teacher 2, also a teacher with many years experience, employed varied teaching
techniques. Teacher 2 used guest lecturers, movies and field trips, but his students were
not as affluent as those of Teacher 1, so his field trips were less exotic. Teacher 2 used
various techniques because visualizing events and hearing accounts allowed students to
comprehend and retain more information. He attempted to ensure that his guest
lecturers had actually experienced an event or witnessed one in order to relate that
personal perspective to the students.
For example, Teacher 2, who taught a unit on World Wars I and II, showed two movies. The first movie featuring World War I was "All Quiet on the Western Front," with Richard Thomas and Ernest Borgnine. After viewing this movie, the class held discussions on many important points such as why men charged into machine gun nests or faced gas attacks, and why so many lives were lost for so little gain of ground during four years. These discussions grew as students asked about the use of poison gas and certain types of bullets. Then the class wanted to know why so many other related events, not as central to the war, created such cynicism and pacifism among war veterans.

As the class moved to World War II and through the 20-plus years of peace or "so-called peace" between the wars, Teacher 2 used a series of graphics on the overhead projector to illustrate why the Germans felt mistreated. Teacher 2 found that pictures were especially valuable when explaining why the French were so cynical and why many favored pacifism, why Hitler rose to power, and why some of the causes of World War II were similar to those of World War I. Borrowing Teacher 2's graphics, his first guest lecturer, a former naval intelligence officer, gave the class an overview of World War II prior to January, 1943. Teacher 2's graphics showed advancing German tanks in Poland, with infantry breaking down the border crossings, and the Stuka dive bombers in Poland. Next, the lecturer talked about the German Navy's pocket battle ship, the Graf Spee, a raider that was caught off South America, which the crew scuttled in December 1939, rather than allow it to fall into the hands of the British. Then he presented several transparencies related to Dunkirk showing the lines of British troops in the water and the spectacle of the armada of the civilian boats and their bravery under fire. Continuing, the
guest lecturer covered the Battle of Britain, the war in the African desert, and ended the discussion of 1941 with Japan’s surprise attack on Pearl Harbor. Referring to 1942 as the year that doomed the Axis, he talked about the Battles of Midway, El Alamein and Stalingrad as turning points of the War.

The next guest lecturer, a grandfather of one of the students, covered Allied and German air operations between 1942 and 1944. A former bombardier/navigator, this lecturer displayed uniforms of the 8th Air Force and 9th Tactical Air Force which were in the European theater of operations. His grandson and the grandson’s classmates were in awe of the man’s decoration for valor, the Distinguished Flying Cross, which was shown to the class. Students who were excited about this guest lecturer brought other artifacts from the World War II era.

Then, as a contrast to the movie, “All Quiet on the Western Front,” with its emphasis on trench warfare; he showed the students the movie, “Patton,” with George C. Scott as a study in command of the fast paced armored warfare of World War II to which the Germans had given the name “Blitzkrieg”. This was followed by a brisk discussion of tactics, and an ungraded ‘Quiz’ which challenged the students to compare the generalships of Robert E. Lee and George S. Patton. Varied teaching techniques such as guest lecturers, movies, and transparencies improved Teacher 2’s ability to provide more effective instruction in the course. The students increased their level of participation in discussions and their efforts to expand their knowledge by bringing in artifacts such as uniforms.
Teacher 3:

Teacher 3 was quite adept at using varied teaching techniques, since this allowed the incorporation of ideas using the computer and other media to enhance her instruction. In conjunction with technology, Teacher 3 used field trips, guest lecturers and peer teaching.

One of Teacher 3’s assortment of teaching techniques, and the one she used most frequently during this study, employed small groups. Her classes were divided into several groups, and one student from each group was selected as the researcher. That student would go to the library and get the selected material for the group, returning in a specified time. The group would prepare its topic and then teach the class the next day. This approach worked especially well with Unit 5, Chapter 18 “Empires of Asia” 1380-1850. For this chapter, Teacher 3’s students took key words from Chapter 18, Section 2, on Chinese Dynasties, such as Kangxi Emperor (1662-1722) and Qianlong (1736-1796) and composed brief lectures on the Qing Dynasty for the entire class. Next, from Chapter 18, Section 3, on the Japanese Empire, key words such as Bushido, Daimyo, or haiku were used to promote discussions within the small groups. These discussions led to the creation of a chart for presentation to the class on the Japanese Empire before 1868.

When Teacher 3 moved into Chapter 21 “English and American Revolutions”, she felt the information on the English Civil War was sparse. She immediately went to the Internet and developed a list of a few important battles such as Edgehill, Marston Moor, and finally Naseby. With this supplemental information, Teacher 3 gave an excellent presentation on the English Civil War.

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Next, Teacher 3 enlisted the services of a friend well versed in the maritime history of the early United States to give a lecture on shipbuilding and the major naval engagements of the American Revolution. This lecturer discussed why Britain wanted merchant ships and smaller warships built in the American Colonies and larger warships constructed in England. First, Britain lacked the resources to build ships as inexpensively as the American colonists could, and Britain feared that the colonist might build warships for themselves or others.

This gentleman then held a lively lecture of the major naval engagements of the American Revolution beginning with the humiliating defeat of Commodore Esek Hopkins, who, with a small fleet, still could not capture the single British frigate *HMS Glascow* (The Commodore was dismissed for incompetence after his April 6, 1776 defeat.). The lecture continued through the destruction of the American 32 gun frigate *Randolph* defeated by the *HMS Yarmouth* on March 7, 1778. He concluded this discussion with an engaging description of the greatest naval battle of the Revolution—John Paul Jones’ *Bon Homme Richard* fighting the *HMS Serapis*.

Libraries

During the course of this research, it seemed logical that, in order to develop a greater understanding of the materials and other resources available to both the teachers and students of the selected schools, it was essential to interview each school’s librarians and view each school’s library. The librarians at the selected schools were dedicated professionals and were cognizant of the technological advances that have changed the ways information is accessed. All suggested *The New Media Literacy Handbook* as a source to explain the recent trend toward combining the library and media center in most
secondary schools to form the library-media center. This new style center has attempted to correspond with the recent philosophy of instructing world history which this handbook labels *messy history*. Indeed this “*messy history* is based on changes in the way we store, retrieve, and share historical materials that constitute our cultural memory.”(NMLH, 1999, p.43) Noting this, these secondary school librarians were in complete agreement with the idea that the largest eruption of information for secondary school had just begun, and that

> [s]ince the invention at the end of the nineteenth century of technologies for reproducing imagery on a mass scale, the image has moved to an ever more central place in our culture....This has meant that more and more historical materials are taking the form of non textual materials, including photographs, films, videos advertisements, and audio speeches, radio programs, etc. (NMLH, 1999, p. 43-44)

These three secondary school libraries appeared to be making momentous strides in adapting to this influx of information. The three librarians explained that, while book and material purchases for school libraries are not made specifically from the standards, individual teacher’s requests for books or materials on certain topics, eras, or geographical locations, are fulfilled when possible.

**Library 1**

This library was an excellent one. It had ten computer stations which were hooked to the Internet, and, at the time of this study, eight were functioning while two were being repaired. The library had five encyclopedias in book form including Britannica, Americana, World Book, and Academic American. This library also had *World Book* online and two CD-ROMs of *World Book*. With these assets and a large collection of books, this library had the ability to help the staff or the students with
almost any project they may wish to pursue. Indeed, Librarian 1 readily gave credit to past librarians and the efforts of supervisors of River City Parish School System Libraries for the accessibility of the library. With Library 1’s rapport with the students and staff and the efficiency and competence shown in answering all requests, it was clear that this library was an asset to the school. Librarian 1 and her staff, aided by the supervisor of the River City Parish School System Libraries, aggressively searched for grants that could advance the quality of education at that school.

**Library 2**

The library at School 2 had five computer stations online for the Internet, numerous source books, and seven encyclopedias in book form including *Britannica, Americana, Academic American, and World Book*. *Grolier Encyclopedia* was available online. Like Librarian 1, Librarian 2 had sought some funds through grants.

**Library 3**

Librarian 3 believed that the mission of the library at School 3 was to aid the students and teachers in learning and in teaching the various courses at the school. The library at School 3 had a myriad of tools with which the students and teachers could accomplish the educational goals of this secondary school. Library 3 had a number of manuals on hardware and software for the teachers’ professional development in technology. The library had three encyclopedias online: *World Book, Grolier*, and *En Carta* as well as several encyclopedias in book form. In the library itself, there were fifteen personal computer stations that were Internet accessible. There was also a computer laboratory with twenty-two more stations connected to the World Wide Web. Librarian 3 explained that these were critical to the school’s function as a magnet.
specializing in the visual and performing arts. The computers further assisted Librarian 3 in keeping information available for faculty and students. The library staff credited this capability to respond quickly to the needs of the faculty and students to their supervisor for the libraries of the River City School System, who aggressively pursued new possibilities for the use of different media, technology, and written material. The library had many modern media tools for enhancing instruction and a staff of highly knowledgeable and capable individuals. Students were well supervised, and teachers were able to assist students to get on the web at almost any time of the day.

Additionally, Librarian 3 indicated that a project had been funded with the purpose of using technology to meld math, science and social studies. The project focused on improving the performance of students in math, science and social studies classes by increasing opportunities for interesting, hands-on activities to strengthen the connection among the three subjects.

All three librarians were aware of the Parish Technical Plan. They agreed that it should be followed; however, they wanted the plan implemented as quickly as possible. All librarians agreed that

[i]t is difficult to overstate the dramatic increase in public access this gradual digitization of the nation's heritage represents. Many of these raw historical materials—primary sources that include pamphlets, diaries, photographs, oral histories, films, speeches, play script, maps, etc.—have not been available before now to any but the small handful of researchers and scholars who could afford to travel to the library or archive and spend hours or days searching through handwritten indexing systems and poring over the actual documents. Beyond making archival materials available, digital media such as the World Wide Web also make available the range of views and opinions that a divided and contentious public holds about historical matters. (NMLH, 1999, p. 44)

After observing the libraries and librarians as a vital link in the interaction among

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Question 3: How has the use of materials and resources, particularly technology, impacted instruction in world history at each secondary school setting?

Teacher 1

The impact of materials, resources and computers on Teacher 1’s instruction was considerable. Two resources he cited as assisting him were the school library and the school’s science and engineering programs. Teacher 1 believed that the library at School 1 was excellent and offered his students much detailed information covering a plethora of topics crucial to teaching world history. He indicated that the staff was quite capable in supervising and guiding his students through the World Wide Web, but it was primarily a place that his students could go to obtain information essential to beginning a research project or to locate information on various topics related to world history.

School 1, a magnet school, was designed to emphasize science and engineering programs; however, its two computer laboratories were open to all students. Thus, the computers in these labs accelerated access to the Internet and markedly improved the informational research capabilities of the students in developing their knowledge of world history.

Teacher 2:

During the study, it became apparent that Teacher 2 believed that materials, resources, and technology have positively impacted his teaching, and he readily availed himself of these materials. He also strongly believed that students can gain much by
improving their skills in locating vital sources on the Internet. Teacher 2 tried to impart an understanding of both an event and its place in history by using transparencies and other media to enhance his instruction. For example, in Unit 7, A World at Conflict [the conflicts of the 20th century], Teacher 2 used transparencies to emphasize to his students the causality of the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand at Sarajevo, the event that started World War I.

Next, Teacher 2 reinforced the knowledge of the carnage and filth of trench war with the outstanding movie, “All Quiet on the Western Front”. This movie covered the inhuman aspect of World War I and the irony of war as the protagonist was killed on a day when the fighting was relatively inactive. For his classes on World War II, Teacher 2 used transparencies to show the Battle of Britain, U-boat attacks on convoys, desert warfare, Pacific amphibious assaults, the D-Day invasion, armored warfare across Europe, and finally the atomic bomb. In conjunction with desert warfare and the armored warfare across Europe, Teacher 2 showed the movie “Patton”, primarily as a study on command in the new era of tank warfare. Through all of this he was ably assisted by Librarian 2 and will be even better served when the technology available in this library is enhanced.

Teacher 3:

Teacher 3 was newer to the profession of teaching than Teacher 1 or Teacher 2. Thus, having grown-up in this age of the Internet and with the computer, she could readily aid her students in the use of these two important information tools. Her great enthusiasm for teaching and her self confidence in the use of computer/technology transferred easily to her students, who, rather than seeing a teacher who was
apprehensive about the web, saw a poised, cheerful guide through its applications for history.

By relying on the computer, Teacher 3 found that she could update an apparent weakness in the text, create a new way to teach a situation of historical significance, or just enhance the history knowledge of her students. In this respect, she was assisted by a well-supplied library with a variety of resources and materials, and a librarian and staff who were well qualified to demonstrate the use of these vast resources to the students.

Figure 3 (p. 68) provides an illustrated account of the varied uses of materials, resources and other types of educational materials observed in each of the three classrooms during this study.
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Participant teachers represented by 1, 2, 3

Figure 3 Resource Use During Case Study
Chapter 5
Conclusions and Implications

For a case study where the data is gathered in a qualitative or naturalistic manner, the researcher must examine the trustworthiness of the results. To ensure the trustworthiness of the findings of a case study, the naturalistic inquirer, in contrast to the quantitative researcher who is concerned with validity and reliability, must contend with four criteria inherent in qualitative research. These four criteria are:

1. Truth Value
2. Applicability
3. Consistency
4. Neutrality

If one of these four criteria is weak, then the trustworthiness of the data is flawed. The knowledge acquired in the case study research becomes biased. A researcher must avoid a flawed study in order to suggest the possibility of transferability to a similar population and setting. This study has been conducted within the parameters suggested for case studies.

While gathering data for this study, the researcher made persistent observations over a protracted length of time, which provided scope and depth to the study. Besides this persistent observation, the researcher has a vast reservoir of knowledge gained from both academic endeavors and experiences; thus enabling him to appropriately analyze the data gathered, addressing the first criterion of truth value.

The second criterion for trustworthiness is applicability. It is, also, perhaps one of the hardest and most demanding to obtain. The naturalistic inquirer must ensure that
the information gathered by the research can be applied to the area of study. The application of this study to the area of history education, specifically world history education, will be illuminated in an examination of the impact of state standards as they relate to teaching materials, teaching techniques, and technology.

The third criterion that is crucial to reinforcing trustworthiness is consistency. This critical element of dependability is one of the more important aspects of trustworthiness. In an effort to maintain consistency, an audit trail ensured that every observation was appropriately conducted and that all of the data was collected in the same manner. During the observations, similar items were noted such as whether the three teachers had problems with textbooks; whether instruction was effective and how appropriate were materials and other resources in providing instruction; and finally their use of technology to meet the provisions of state standards in teaching world history. The conclusions demonstrated consistency throughout the data-gathering process in the three schools studied.

The fourth and final criterion required in demonstrating trustworthiness is neutrality, which addresses the confirmability of the data. If the data is confirmable, and if the other three criteria of trustworthiness have been met, the study is considered to have fulfilled the definition of trustworthiness. After this confirmation, the observer/researcher can then suggest the possibility of transferability to populations in similar situations. The use of outside sources and audit trails throughout this study does suggest that the possibility of transferability is high.
Having examined the essential criteria regarding the trustworthiness of the findings of this study, a review of standards related to history education and a discussion of standards and accountability are appropriate.

Standards in education evolved on a national level after many of the nation’s prominent educators came to the conclusion that young people did not have the proper level of knowledge to fulfill their roles as citizens. So in each academic discipline, standards were created to ensure that students would attain a minimum level of knowledge in that area. Nowhere was the need for standards more important than in the field of history. Why was there such a pressing need in history? One of the most important reasons for developing history standards is discussed in the first chapter of the National Standards for World History: “knowledge of history is the precondition of political intelligence.” (NSWH, 1996, p. 1)

Starting with this concept and the desire to educate students to become productive members of society, one finds that history records the impact of a host of issues.

Current problems, of course, do not duplicate those of the past. Essential to extrapolating knowledgeably from history to the issues of today requires yet a further skill, again dependent upon one’s understanding of the past: differentiating between (1) relevant historical antecedents that properly inform analyses of current issues and (2) those antecedents that are clearly irrelevant. (NSWH, 1996, p.1)

With these ideas in mind, educators saw that students in secondary schools were not accomplishing their goal of broadening their knowledge of history. This was verified when many secondary students who took part in national assessments in social studies scored below average or failed.
In 1992, hoping to correct this problem, President George Bush’s administration took steps to develop voluntary national education standards by contracting with the National Center for History in the Schools of the University of California at Los Angeles. (Ravitch, 1996, The new improved history standards, p. A-14) When these standards were unveiled in 1994, the Administration of President William Clinton was confronted with what can only be termed “a firestorm of protest and controversy.” (Ravitch, 1996, The new improved history standards, p. A-14) These newly minted standards were castigated by many for excessive devotion to multiculturalism, political correctness, and America’s shortcomings, while paying scant attention to the nation’s heroes, its scientific achievements, and its legacy of political freedom. (Ravitch, 1996, The new improved history standards, p. A-14)

Because of these admonitions from noted historians, educators, and members of the administration, revised national standards were promulgated in April of 1996. But as stated by one noted educator:

The damage had already been done, however. After eighteen months of verbal battle, the history standards had become a symbol, in the eyes of state and federal policy makers, of the impossibility of forging national standards that would have broad public credibility. The standard-makers thought that, if the profession was satisfied, the public should be satisfied; the public, acting through its representatives, having had no involvement in the process, apparently did not agree. (Ravitch, 1995, p. xviii-xix)

Despite the lack of enthusiasm for the national standards, most states set up commissions or task forces and created their own state content standards. In most cases, including Louisiana’s, these state content standards were based on the 1996 revised national standards, which most state departments of education discovered could be used.
as a very strong foundation. In May 1997, the Louisiana Standards Task Force promulgated the Louisiana Social Studies Content Standards.

As with any standard, a mechanism for accountability must be set forth, and this component was initiated

by the 1997 Louisiana Legislature [which] created the School and District Accountability Commission. [The Legislature said that it had] the responsibility of recommending to the Board of Elementary and Secondary Education a statewide system of accountability for public education in Louisiana. (Louisiana State Department of Education, 2000, Louisiana School and District Accountability, p. 1)

Thus by 1997, the State of Louisiana had developed standards, the Louisiana Social Studies Content Standards, and had established accountability in the form of the Louisiana School and District Accountability Commission.

But why were these standards and the accompanying accountability needed by the educators of the state of Louisiana? Because whenever Louisiana students participated in any National Educational Assessment Test, they performed so poorly that they typically ranked last or nearly last. These standards were intended to enable classroom teachers to gradually bring fundamental change in social studies education.

Some of the more important and illustrative statements in the Louisiana Social Studies Content Standards deal with the coming century:

Students must become competent and independent users of information to be productive citizens of the 21st century. They must be prepared to live in an information-rich and changing global society. Due to the rapid growth of technology, the amount of information is accelerating so quickly that teachers are no longer able to impart a complete knowledge base in a subject area. (LSSCS, 1997, p. 6)

Another important consideration is that the Louisiana Social Studies Content Standards were based on national standards. These standards, which were promulgated
by the National Center for History in the Schools, were very carefully crafted to ensure that regions of the country could come together and have one stated goal: the teaching of a similar world history education.

This study was based on the Louisiana Social Studies Content Standards and their impact on history education. One reason that these standards and their results are so important is very simple, and yet very critical. In the Bush administration of the late 1980's, Diane Ravitch was the “Assistant Secretary for the Office of Educational Research and Improvement in the U.S. Department of Education and [her] assignment...was to promote public understanding of the national education goals and of the value of high standards for all students.” (Ravitch, 1995, p. xi) Secretary Ravitch stipulates in her book:

The issue of national standards will recur because they are essential for equal opportunity and for excellence. We can leave the shaping of national standards to the publishers of texts and textbooks, or we can figure out how to develop them through a credible public process. It probably cannot be done by the federal government, because of justifiable fear that a federal agency might threaten to cut off federal funding to states that refused to accept its mandates. But a pluralistic democratic society has many nonfederal, even non governmental mechanisms by which to accomplish important purposes. The governors may create a review mechanism that helps them know whether their own state’s standards are “world-class”; the private sector may find ways to help set the benchmarks for our children, who are our future leaders, our future workers, and our future voters. When we decide that their purpose demands our attention, we will turn to it again. (Ravitch, 1995, p. xxviii-xxix)

The purpose of this study was to examine the impact of standards, positively or negatively, on history education. All three of the teachers who participated in this study believed that the use of standards in lower grade social studies programs had improved the quality of the knowledge retained by students electing to take their world history
classes. The participants confirmed that the students arrived at their classrooms with more content knowledge and skills, such as reading maps, charts, and graphs. These improved preparations reduced class time previously required to rectify these deficits. The participants attributed this improvement directly to the implementation of the Louisiana Social Studies Content Standards.

When writing social studies standards for Louisiana, the Louisiana Content Standards Task Force chose to use as its basis

four core disciplines, or strands, from social sciences: geography, civics, economics, and history. Each of these disciplines offer[s] a distinct perspective for examining the world. [Indeed o]ther social sciences such as anthropology and sociology are incorporated within these strands....For each strand, a focus paragraph explain[ed] the discipline’s importance to the overall education of the students. [While a] standard statement then [gave] a general description of what students should know and be able to do as a result of the study of that strand. Following each standard, specific benchmarks are listed for Grades K-4, 5-8, and 9-12. (LSSCS, 1997, p. 3)

In the areas of geography, civics, and history, the benchmarks represent the specific areas which had to be taught at a given grade level. But more than this, the Louisiana Content Standards Task Force wanted to ensure that Louisiana students would gain insights that could be useful in any endeavor. Its members believe that the students had to become knowledgeable and retain the information from certain “benchmarks” so that they could apply their Louisiana Content Standards Foundation Skills. These are

1. Communication
2. Problem Solving
3. Resource access and utilization
4. Linking and Generating knowledge
5. Citizenship (LSSCS, 1997, p. 5)
These skills emphasized by the task force were excellent crossover skills. They encompassed practices that all students should gain and retain if they were competently educated. Thus, having provided an insight into the skills that a student should gain from a history education based on the Louisiana Social Studies Content Standards, an examination of how these standards impacted instruction in this study follows.

In adopting a text for the educational systems of the various parishes of Louisiana, the Board of Elementary and Secondary Education (BESE) of the state of Louisiana relied on the opinions of members of two committees. Knowledgeable people, former teachers, current teachers with an expertise in the area, and concerned parents formed two separate committees...to review texts submitted [for] ...social studies adoption. A K-6 committee comprised of eight members reviewed materials for one week, while a second, 7-12, committee comprised of twelve members, reviewed during a second week of the adoption process. (Recommendation, 1998, p. 1)

These committees submitted their opinions of a text’s strengths and weaknesses to BESE. One important criterion was whether the text “substantially correlates] to the Louisiana-approved content standards.”(Recommendations, 1998, p. 1) BESE, using these recommendations, selected a textbook for adoption by the state for a period of seven years.

The choice of adoption by BESE in 1999 for world history was Glencoe/McGraw-Hill’s World History: The Human Experience, 1999. In reporting to BESE, the committee enumerated the textbook’s strengths:

1. It had both an English and Spanish glossary
2. It met world history standards
3. It was cross referenced to the Internet
4. It had other forms of media packaged with it
5. Original sources were used to compile it (Recommendations, 1998, p. 10)

The committee recognized the book’s weaknesses as:

1. Its pages may be too glossy depending on lighting conditions
2. Its teachers’ text has small print

(Excerpts from the “Recommendations on Textbooks” for 1999-2000 are in Appendix C.)

During the observation period for this study, Teachers 1 and 3 were completing this text’s Unit 4 “Emergence of the Modern World” and beginning Unit 5 “Age of Revolution,” while Teacher 2 was teaching the information presented in Unit 7 “World in Conflict.” All of these teachers attempted to ensure that their students would, as the standard stipulates, “develop a sense of historical time and historical perspective as they study the history of their community, state, nation, and world.” (LSSCS, 1997, p. 33) (See Appendix D for a listing of pertinent standards and benchmarks.)

All of these teachers implemented the preceding history standard. However, if it had not been for prior teachers using the standards and benchmarks to give the students a foundation in history, the task would have been more difficult. For example, in geography in the K-4 years, the first standard is to “develop a spatial understanding of Earth’s surface and the processes that shape it, the connections between people and places, and the relationship between man and his environment.” (LSSCS, 1997, p. 10) This standard forms the foundation for further study in any area that deals with human existence. Some benchmarks for K-4 teach “maps, globes, graphs, diagrams,
photographs, and satellite-produced images [which are critical to the spatial aspects of history]" (LSSCS, 1997, p. 10). Once students can comprehend these, they have the capability to fulfill the first four Louisiana Contents Standards Foundation Skills. Having acquired these skills, the student can learn more about places and regions as well as physical and human systems. Once again in describing these places, regions or cultures, students can demonstrate their grasp of communication, resource access and utilization, and linking and generating, as they learn two more significant benchmarks, “describing the human characteristics of places, including population distribution and culture [and]... how the physical and human characteristics of places change over time.” (LSSCS, 1997, p. 11) It is these last two benchmarks which give students a better grasp of history and develop the foundation to gain the level of knowledge that Teacher 1 and Teacher 3 are seeking. In the K-4 formative years, three more benchmarks are equally as important for a greater understanding of history. These are:

1. describing and comparing the types of settlement and patterns of land use in local communities, the United States and World Regions,
2. describing and explaining the characteristics, distribution, and migration of human populations;
3. identifying and comparing the cultural characteristics of different regions and people. (LSSCS, 1997, p. 11)

To reiterate, these benchmarks are designed to reinforce the student’s understanding of the first four skills of the Louisiana Contents Standards Foundations Skills, assuring further educational growth.

Having entered middle school, grades 5-8, students encounter further benchmarks formulated to reinforce their grasp of the first standard and the previous benchmarks. The 5-8 benchmarks add to the students initial understanding of “the world
in spatial terms, places and regions, [and] physical and human systems.” (LSSCS, 1997, p. 10-11) Some of the benchmarks for grades 5 through 8 include:

1. interpreting and developing maps, globes, graphs, charts, models, and databases to analyze spatial distributions and patterns;
2. organizing and displaying information about the location of geographic features and places by using mental mapping skills;...
3. identifying and describing significant physical features that have influenced historical events;...
4. describing and explaining how personal interests, culture, and technology offset people’s perceptions and uses of places and regions. (LSSCS, 1997, p. 12-13)

These benchmarks were designed to give students a suitable grasp of geography, which typically gives students more knowledge and a better insight into history.

In a further examination of past events, two other subdivisions of social studies have proven desirable for the more comprehensive understanding of world history at the secondary level. The Louisiana Content Standards Task Force set forth the following standard that supported civics. It suggested that

students develop an understanding of the structure and purposes of government, the foundation of the American democratic system, and the role of the United States in the world, while learning about the rights and responsibilities of citizenship. (LSSCS, 1997, p. 17)

While the Louisiana Content Standards Task Force set forth the following benchmark for economics:

Students develop an understanding of fundamental economic concepts as they apply to the interdependence and decision making of individuals, households, businesses, and governments in the United States and the World. (LSSCS, 1997, p. 26)

These benchmarks in civics and economics, as well as the geography benchmarks provide for a solid foundation in these areas of social studies. Broader knowledge in these disciplines provides a basis for the understanding of history.
The three teachers were very adept at using the social studies standards as a guide. The standards have enabled them to develop more effective evaluation procedures to assess their students’ knowledge of world history, rather than having to rely almost entirely on their experiences and subjective judgment. Indeed, the benchmarks, which are the major components of the standards, delineate the intermediate goals along the route to imparting this knowledge. As a result, teachers can use their experiences, along with the standards, to make an accurate assessment of the student’s performance both along the way and at the end of a unit. Furthermore, teachers can use the standards to support their experience in analyzing teaching materials, adding supplemental materials as needed. The participants enhanced their classroom instruction with films, slides, other media materials, as well as guest lecturers to rectify weaknesses found in the textbook.

The participants were very pleased with the benchmarks of each standard, since they provided them with valuable assessment tools. For example the history benchmarks that must be covered in Units 4 and 5 by Teachers 1 and 3 were explaining the political, cultural, and economic developments and trends of major world regions that resulted in the transformation of societies in the 15th through the mid 18th centuries,(LSSCS, 1997, p. 40) [while in the follow-on unit, they would be] determining and discussing the impact of the political, agricultural and industrial revolutions on societies around the world.(LSSCS, 1997, p. 40)

The preceding benchmarks were used by Teachers 1 and 3 to guide the content of discussions and group projects. While teaching about Elizabethan England, Teachers 1 and 3 discussed the acts of piracy perpetrated on Spain by Sir Francis Drake and the Seadogs which addressed the political development component of the benchmark.
for Unit 4. Next, during the time of the English Civil War, the acts of Charles I and
Cromwell along with their respective followers were discussed to address the benchmark
for Unit 5. Teacher 2 had to make certain that his students mastered the benchmark that
required them to "analyze[e] the causes and international consequences of World War I,
the rise and actions of totalitarian systems, World War II, and other early 20th century
conflicts." (LSSCS, 1997, p. 47) Teacher 2 taught about the role of unrestricted
submarine warfare in the expansion of World War I and the roles of Montgomery and
Rommel in the desert war of World War II, which addressed the preceding benchmark
for Unit 7. Furthermore, using this benchmark as a guide, Teacher 2 showed two films
and had several guest lecturers to enhance his coverage of World War I and World
War II.

The participants perceived the standards as the blueprint for a strong history
education program. The details of the blueprint are benchmarks which clearly set out the
goals to ensure the students an opportunity to gain a greater knowledge of world history.
The participants used a variety of teaching techniques to both engage their students and
ensure that their students were receiving the best possible instruction. The techniques
they chose were at once cogent and yet subtle; they made use of different forms of
media, machines, and personal narratives. Realizing that these students belonged to the
Information-Age, these teachers tried to present multiple perspectives on many of the
important events in history, so that students could evaluate for themselves the
importance of the event.

Because of the number of resources that the participants were using in the
classroom, they were placed in the messy history category. The instruction techniques
known as *neat history* and *messy history* were defined in an earlier chapter; however, the following brief review should be helpful. *Neat history* is the prefabricated, modular style of history instruction of the past. In this form of instruction, the teacher becomes the purveyor of "bucket education", pouring historical facts into the minds of the students.

In point of fact the quintessential *neat history* format is the textbook. As Kathleen Craver states in her work, *Using Internet Primary Sources to teach Critical Thinking Skills in History*,

> a textbook is designed to cover large amounts of material superficially. To achieve this goal and reach a broad market in different states, authors must avoid analysis and resist the desire to pose questions or suggest activities that would require critical thinking skills. History texts need to include as much material about as many historical periods as possible. (Craver, 1999, p. xvi-xvii)

But more importantly, no matter how succinct the narrative, how beautiful the illustrations, or how accurate the graphs, a textbook must be read and used for learning to happen.

*Messy history* is the antithesis of *neat history*. As previously defined, *messy history* is history constructed by the students. All three of the participants were proactive in this regard realizing that

> [t]he teacher’s role must evolve away from dispenser of prefabricated facts to coach and guide. In this continuously changing role, teachers leave fact finding to the computer, spending their time doing what they were meant to do as content experts: arousing curiosity, asking the right questions at the right time, and stimulating debate and serious discussion around engaging topics. (NMLH, 1999, p. 33)

Some very important recent developments encouraged the shift from neat history to messy history. As previously noted from *The New Media Literacy Handbook*,

Brunner and Talley argue that:

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Three intersecting developments underlie and support the shift toward more messy history: 1.) a perceived crisis in students' knowledge of history; 2.) a new view of...history, and 3.) changes in the media with which we store, retrieve, and disseminate our cultural memory. (NMLH, 1999, p. 41)

All three of the participants agreed with Brunner and Talley about the changes in history and share the view that neat history is the way of the past. In considering these developments, all the participants viewed the first development as accurate. Until recently, the participants had observed a decline in the history content knowledge of their students. With the onset of the standards and more use of messy history, there has been significant improvement.

The second development discussed by Brunner and Talley was the new view of history. In the teaching of history the presentation of different perspectives is very important. Generally, the educational materials available to teachers reflect the majority opinion of the historical event at the time of publication. Therefore, the teacher has to provide alternative perspectives. By supplying alternative perspectives, the teacher challenges the students by creating an imaginative learning atmosphere. During this study, Teacher 1 and Teacher 2 presented multiple opinions or perspectives to their students. Teacher 1 presented several perspectives related to the Spanish Armada in 1588. Teacher 1 presented the English perspective relying heavily on Mattingly's The Armada. Next, Teacher 1 contrasted this with the excellent work by Howarth, The Voyage of the Armada, which has a Spanish perspective. Having related these perspectives to the students, he initiated a lively debate among the students, as to which perspective might be correct and how different societies have different views of events. Meanwhile Teacher 2, teaching Unit 7 “World in Conflict”, presented alternate
perspectives on submarine warfare during World War I. Taking the side of the Central
Powers, Teacher 2 explained why the prewar submarine rules of engagement: surface,
halt and warn the enemy, allow the vessel’s passengers and crew to disembark, and then
sink the vessel, were impractical and unworkable. Teacher 2 then explained why the
Imperial German Navy felt contraband was getting through to Allied Powers,
endangering Imperial Germany’s war. Next, taking the Allied Powers’s side, Teacher 2
explained why submarine warfare was criminal and should be banned.

Because of the present division of history into a large number of categories, there
is indeed a vast array of perspectives. It seems as if there is an area of history for each
perspective: gender history, ethnic history, immigrant history, economic history, political
history, military history, etc. Indeed this plethora of perspectives significantly increases
the challenges for teachers. It is a difficult time to develop teaching materials or
resources to accommodate the large number of divisions in history. “Textbooks reflect
this difficulty, with their sidebars, boxes, and special sections that focus on the
contributions of different groups and yet sit uneasily next to the main text.” (Brunner &
Talley, 1999, p. 42)

The final development, changes in the media, calls for a change in the method of
history instruction. According to Brunner and Talley, the changes in media follow two
trend, “the gradual move to more visual materials and the growth of digital storage and
retrieval of both print and non print materials.” (Brunner & Talley, 1999, p. 43) In the
past teachers were bound by the four walls of their classrooms and the materials that
resided therein. In addition to a blackboard, teachers typically had access to maps,
globes, or atlases. It was a very fortunate teacher who also had a set of encyclopedias,
since most of the resource books were kept in the school's library. Today, as Brunner and Talley affirm in their book, that is no longer true.

In the Web-connected history classroom at least, this scarcity of rich historical materials may soon give way to abundance fulfilling one of the promises of the digital revolution. This is because many of the nation's large university and government libraries and archives, which, after all, are custodians of much of the nation's past, have been putting large collections of historical and cultural materials on-line; relatively free of added costs. Thus in addition to the commercially published multimedia encyclopedia available on CD-ROM, teachers and students with Web access can tap into more and more on-line historical archives. (NMLH, 1999, p. 44)

Craver, in her book on the subject, concurs with Brunner and Talley stipulating:

For years, history educators had to be content with the textbook approach because school library media centers lacked the funds and storage space to stock large amounts of primary and even secondary source materials. With the advent of the Internet, however, this is no longer the case. Now, history educators and school library media specialists have a wealth of primary historical sources electronically available at the click of a mouse....History educators are no longer bound to the classroom-textbook-lecture method. (Craver, 1999, p. xvii)

Teacher 3 demonstrated the accuracy of this final development during this study. Teaching Unit 4, “Emergence of the Modern World,” Teacher 3 originated a class project that demonstrated why a classroom with Web-access has no bounds. While teaching Chapter 18 “Empires of Asia” from Unit 4, Teacher 3 divided her class into seven groups and made assignments which divided the three empires from Chapter 18 among them. Teacher 3 sent one researcher per group to the library for 15 minutes, to surf-the-net and bring back specific information. Each group focused on key words and prepared materials to teach the class. This strategy resulted in giving the class substantially more detailed information on the empires than the text provided and
fulfilled the benchmark for Unit 4 regarding political, cultural and economic developments.

In observing the way these participants taught during the study, the data indicated that all of the participants were proactive and effectively teaching their classes using *messy history*. It was very evident that they would use any means available to get the knowledge inherent in history across to their students.

The final question in this study explored the relationship between standards and technology. Technology has made both primary sources and reference materials readily available and easily accessible. The availability of multiple resources facilitates historical reevaluation. Technology has increased the rapidity with which reevaluation can occur. Because history is an interpretation of the facts of man’s existence, reevaluation naturally occurs as time passes. Historical events are reevaluated both from time frame and frame of reference of individuals, countries, or entities. Such reevaluations may lead to confirmation or revision of the prevailing perspective regardless of whether *truth* is served. In point of fact, this kind of reevaluation is constantly occurring. How does reevaluation affect standards? When reevaluation occurs, then benchmarks must change to reflect this new majority view. Thus, if a benchmark is changed, a standard must be modified.

In history education the role of teacher has completely changed. Throughout most of the 20th century, the role of the teacher was to dispense historical facts. These facts, if deemed *significant*, would be given to the student to memorize within the parameter of a textbook. With the coming of the so-called information age, the teacher’s role has changed to that of content expert. In this capacity, the teacher guides the
student to important sources of information. These sources of information are no longer within just the four walls of the classroom or the structures of the school’s campus. The teacher must now demonstrate to the student how to gain access to the vast number of sources on the World Wide Web. The state-of-the-art classroom is no longer a room with four walls and a blackboard; the state-of-the-art classroom is all that in addition to access to the Internet. The students, with the teacher as guide, can now construct their own history. With the Web providing primary sources, students can now compare and contrast marauding Vikings in tenth-century England, 17th-century pirates pillaging Caribbean settlements, or the privations of 20th-century U-boats in two wars.

As education moves into the 21st century, there will be an immense amount of resources, materials, and specialized technology available to educate and inform the public daily, perhaps hourly. Two important books written on the subject, The New Media Literacy Handbook and Teaching with Technology, are publications which not only give a broad overview of possible suggestions for using technology, but exhaust the benefits that can be derived from the use of such wizardry. The noted educator Larry Cuban wrote about the rapid growth and usage of this method of instruction and learning by students in his forward to Teaching with Technology.

The facts about the increasing use of information technologies in public schools are stunning. In the last decade alone, the number of students per computer went from 125 to less than 10. (Sandholtz et al, 1999, p. xi)

As Cuban suggested, the reason for this rapid growth in the use of technology is quite simple. Politicians, parents, entrepreneurs, and other business men and women have pressed educators to get students ready to compete in a high tech workplace. Besides giving the obvious economic reasons—that is, to
keep pace with the demands of a swiftly changing economy—techno
enthusiasts have billed the new machines as energetic tools for making
both learning and teaching for students and teachers more productive and
engaging. (Sandholtz et al, 1999, p. xi)

In the case of materials and resources, Craver points out that

improvements in telecommunications, cable and satellite resources,
computer hardware and software, scanners, CD-ROM's, and the
Internet, school library media specialists and history educators have the
ability to provide information to students on a scale never before
imagined. (Craver, 1999, p. xiii)

With adequate access to modern technology, students do not have to be concerned about
their sources of information for a report, nor do they have to “wait” until someone is
through with the ‘S’ volume of a series of encyclopedias, to start their project. With
access to technology in the classroom and the library, they can find their information and
begin researching almost immediately.

With society having already pronounced that technology will provide tools which
will make learning situations productive and engaging, the two most important questions
asked of school systems are why? and how?. In their technology plan, Gateway to a
Technological Future, the School System of River City Parish seeks to address these
questions. The River City Parish School System’s technology plan is in the third year of
a five-year plan under the direction of the school system’s Office of Technology (OT).
The current five-year technology plan, composed of many parts, contains directions for
the management, infrastructure and support of the plan, as well as instructions for staff
development. It also consists of arrangements and options for funding of the hardware
and software recommended by the plan. Most importantly, this plan comes complete
with strategies and priorities for the allocation of the assets involved in the plan, noting
that, while schools lacking technological assets should be given priority, schools with technological assets should not be excluded. In consideration of the complexities of implementing technological change, the River City Parish School System asked for patience from teacher, school staffs, parents, and the community while implementing this technology plan.

At this time, River City Parish School System is currently in the process of implementing their parish-wide technology plan, and its supervisors and coordinators are assisting the schools in its implementation. Like most individuals confronted by change, teachers naturally wonder if the benefits of using technology outweigh the extra effort required of them to integrate technology into their instruction. Changing the classroom environment to include technology may not eliminate many of the age-old problems inherent in the school system and, in some cases, may exacerbate them. Limited time, pressure to cover the mandated curriculum, problems with classroom management, scarce resources, and teachers' feelings of isolation persist even in classrooms radically altered by the introduction of new technological tools. (Sandholtz et al, 1997, p. 3)

In an interview on March 16, 2000, the supervisor of social studies indicated that the parish is in the third year of a five-year plan and “we will know better our technological status at the completion of the fifth year.” At this time the secondary schools of River City Parish are at different stages in the implementation of the technology plan. As noted previously, all the participants had similar classroom access to technology. Each had an overhead projector, a large screen for transparencies and film, access to a TV/VCR combination, and a movie projector for films. Only with technology was there a marked difference in availability, and this was largely due to the phased implementation of the technology plan. School 3 was fully wired for technology and had good Internet access, while School 1 was in the process of being wired, or rewired due to construction,
and had favorable access. School 2 was not wired, and its equipment needed upgrading.

The students at School 2 were falling behind in their access to technology, but as the
technology plan entered the fourth year, several informed sources stated that this
inequity would soon be alleviated.

As Kathleen Craver states in her book, *Using the Internet Primary Sources to
teach Critical Thinking Skills in History*, technology will become very important:

> By 2010, 90 percent of all jobs will be computer dependent, a forecast
confirmed daily by the proliferation of computers and modems in homes
and businesses. In 1981 there were only 750,000 computers in U.S.
homes. Today, more than 45 percent of American homes have personal
computers. (Craver, 1999, p. xiv)

As indicated in Chapter 1, the Louisiana Content Standards Task Force has
conceived *foundation skills* which have been demonstrated to “apply to all students in all
disciplines.” (LSSCS, 1997, p. 4) These skills are to improve the critical thinking of the
student. The benchmark for each standard of each strand has been especially developed
to ensure that one or more of these foundation skills will be used in mastering a
benchmark. As a reminder, the five foundation skills are:

1. Communication
2. Problem Solving
3. Resource Access and Utilization
4. Linking and Generating Knowledge
5. Citizenship

Brunner and Talley state “[t]he ability to use one’s mind flexibly and well remains a far
better guarantee of workplace success than facility with the latest technology.” (Brunner
& Talley, 1995, p. 27) But more than that, when we emphasize critical thinking skills,
we are emphasizing what “will be essential to meet the educational, employment and
 technological demands of the twenty-first century, they do not come easily and naturally
to the untrained mind." (Craver, 1999, p. xvi) Thus, learning these skills well increases the likelihood that students will become productive citizens, not just students of history.

But as Sandholtz, Ringstaff, and Dwyer; Brunner and Talley; and Craver suggested, the opening of the computer age will have vast and far-reaching effects. With computers in the classroom, standards as guides, and a knowledgeable teacher of history, the students are no longer bound to four walls and their textbooks. Now the data-linked classroom has no information boundary. The world history instructor can select a century, then browsing through the World Wide Web find primary sources on topics including: the founding of Israel, U-boats and two world wars, world trade, and the European Union. Students can be exposed to primary source material that vastly expands their knowledge base in contrast to the days of textbooks and the resources available in the library.

Implications

This study investigated the impact of standards on world history education. The Louisiana Social Studies Content Standards have only recently been implemented in the state of Louisiana, having been promulgated in 1997. Accountability was created when the 1997 Louisiana legislature formed the School and District Accountability Commission. This Commission, which has 26 members across the state, has the responsibility of recommending a process for statewide accountability for public education. The Commission proposed Leap 21, a series of tests to be given at fourth, eighth, tenth, and eleventh grades to test how well individual students have mastered the new state content standards. In spring of 2000, fourth and eighth graders must pass Leap 21 tests in the subjects of math and English to be promoted to the next grade. In
2001, social studies will be required to be passed at fourth and eighth grade levels. As a result of the timing of accountability testing, the answers to the questions of this study are subjective.

At this time, the Thomas B. Fordham Foundation ranks Louisiana’s standards twelfth out of fifty in the nation. In their book, *The State of State Standards 2000*, they state that a combination of Louisiana’s *Teachers’ Guide to Statewide Assessment* and standards are “what good standards should look like.”(p. 62) It is the lack of accountability which until now has kept the state in the mediocre category. With accountability now in place, it is hoped that Louisiana’s standing will improve, especially in the eyes “of this private foundation that supports research publications and action projects in elementary/secondary education reform at the national level.”(Finn, 2000, p. viii) But until some time passes with assessments in place, teachers’ experience and opinion must be relied upon.

In answering the first question of this study’s three questions, this researcher found that all three teachers were positive about the standards and their effects on their teaching. However, the text, which was purchased to teach the standards and was supposed to correlate to them, does not meet their expectations as a teaching aid. This is a major problem as the teachers asked if classroom teachers had any input on this important purchase. Each of the three teachers could cite problems with the text, which caused them to spend more time clarifying information. Indeed, a majority of the different teaching techniques acknowledged in answer to the second question, were used to correct weaknesses in the text. Finally, in answering question three, this researcher found that all the teachers felt that technology made them more productive teachers, and
that their students had greater access to important history items although access to technology was not equitable in all three schools.

This study revealed three areas that needed to be addressed, and the first two areas resulted from communication problems. The three points were:

- Greater teacher input in the process of text selection.
- Improved teacher involvement in the development and upgrading of technology plans.
- The need for a set of accurate assessment procedures to determine whether the information being taught in world history correlates with national and state standards.
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*Survey finds history a mystery to nearly 80 percent of students. (2000, June 28). The Advocate, p. 15A.


**Electronic References**


*Cited References* 

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On June 28, 2000, the Associated Press published an article with the headline, "Survey finds history a mystery to nearly 80 percent of students." The story told of a poll of 556 college seniors at some of the country's best colleges, such as Harvard, Brown, and Princeton, who failed or marginally passed a 34 question high school American History Test. Most of these questions had been gleaned from the pool of questions used by the National Assessment for Education Progress. Most of these students would have graduated from high school in the spring of 1996, prior to the use of National Standards which currently guide history teachers. 32 of 34 questions are covered in both the National Standards for United States History and Louisiana Social Studies Standards. Below is a chart of the questions (Q) with the correct answer (A) and the percentage (P) of students who answered correctly.

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1. When was the Civil War?
   a. 1750-1800
   b. 1800-1850
   c. 1850-1900
   d. 1900-1950
   e. after 1950

2. Who said “Give me liberty or give me death?”
   a. John Hancock
   b. James Madison
   c. Patrick Henry
   d. Samuel Adams

3. What is the Magna Carta?
   a. The foundation of the British parliamentary system?
   b. The Great Seal of the monarchs of England
   c. The French Declaration of the Rights of Man
   d. The charter signed by the Pilgrims on the Mayflower

4. The term Reconstruction refers to:
   a. Payment of European countries' debts to the United States after the First World War
   b. Repairing of the physical damage caused by the Civil War
   c. Readmission of the Confederate states and the protection of the rights of black citizens
   d. Rebuilding of the transcontinental railroad and the canal system

5. Are Beavis and Butthead...
   a. A radio show
   b. Television cartoon characters
   c. A musical group
   d. Fictional soldiers

6. The Scopes trail was about:
   a. Freedom of the press
   b. Teaching evolution in the schools
   c. Prayer in the schools
   d. Education in private schools

7. The Emancipation Proclamation issued by Lincoln stated that:
   a. Slaves were free in areas of the Confederate states not held by the Union
   b. The slave trade was illegal
   c. Slaves who fled to Canada would be protected
   d. Slavery would be abolished in the Union

8. The purpose of the authors of the Federalist Papers was to:
   a. Establish a strong free press in the colonies
   b. Confirm George Washington's election as the first president
   c. Win foreign approval for the Revolutionary War
   d. Gain ratification of the U.S. Constitution

9. Sputnik was the name given to the first:
   a. Telecommunication system
   b. Animal to travel into space
   c. Hydrogen Bomb
   d. Man-made satellite

10. The Missouri Compromise was the act that:
    a. Funded the Lewis and Clark expedition on the upper Missouri River
    b. Granted statehood to Missouri but denied the admission of any other states
    c. Settled the boundary dispute between Missouri and Kansas
    d. Admitted Maine into the Union as a free state and Missouri as a slave state

11. Which document established the division of powers between the states and the federal government?
    a. The Marshall Plan
    b. The Constitution
    c. The Declaration of Independence
    d. The Articles of Confederation

12. When was Thomas Jefferson president?
    a. 1780-1800
    b. 1800-1820
    c. 1820-1840
    d. 1840-1860
    e. 1860-1880

13. What was the lowest point in American fortunes in the Revolutionary War?
    a. Saratoga
    b. Bunker Hill
    c. Valley Forge
    d. Fort Ticonderoga

14. In his farewell address, President George Washington warned against the danger of:
    a. Expanding into territories beyond the Appalachian Mountains
    b. Having war with Spain over Mexico
    c. Entering into permanent alliances with foreign governments
    d. Building a standing army and strong navy

15. The Monroe Doctrine declared that:
    a. The American blockade of Cuba was in accord with international law
    b. Europe should not acquire new territories in Western Hemisphere
    c. Trade with China should be open to all Western nations
    d. The annexation of the Philippines was legitimate
16. Who was the European who traveled in the United States and wrote down perceptive comments about what he saw in "Democracy in America"?
   a. Lafayette
   b. Tocqueville
   c. Crevecoeur
   d. Napoleon

17. Identify Snoop Doggy Dog.
   a. A rap singer
   b. A cartoon by Charles Schultz
   c. A mystery series
   d. A jazz pianist

18. Abraham Lincoln was president between:
   a. 1780-1800
   b. 1800-1820
   c. 1820-1840
   d. 1840-1860
   e. 1860-1880

19. Who was the American general at Yorktown?
   a. William T. Sherman
   b. Ulysses S. Grant
   c. Douglas McArthur
   d. George Washington

20. John Marshall was the author of:
   a. Roe v. Wade
   b. Dread Scott v. Kansas
   c. Marbury v. Madison
   d. Brown v. Board of Education

21. Who was the "Father of the Constitution"?
   a. George Washington
   b. Thomas Jefferson
   c. Benjamin Franklin
   d. James Madison

22. Who said, "I regret that I have only one life to give for my country"?
   a. John F. Kennedy
   b. Benedict Arnold
   c. John Brown
   d. Nathan Hale

23. What was the source of the following phrase:
   "Government of the people, by the people, for the people?"
   a. The speech: "I have a Dream"
   b. Declaration of Independence
   c. U.S. Constitution
   d. Gettysburg Address

24. Who was the second president of the United States?
   a. Thomas Jefferson
   b. James Madison
   c. John Adams
   d. Benjamin Franklin

25. Who was the president when the U.S. purchased the Panama Canal?
   a. Theodore Roosevelt
   b. Jimmy Carter
   c. Franklin D. Roosevelt
   d. Woodrow Wilson

26. Who was the leading advocate for the U.S. entry into the League of Nations?
   a. George C. Marshall
   b. Woodrow Wilson
   c. Henry Cabot Lodge
   d. Eleanor Roosevelt

27. Who said, "Speak softly but carry a big stick?"
   a. William T. Sherman
   b. Sitting Bull
   c. John D. Rockefeller
   d. Theodore Roosevelt

28. The Battle of the Bulge occurred during:
   a. The Vietnam War
   b. World War II
   c. World War I
   d. The Civil War

29. Which of the following was a prominent leader of the Abolitionist Movement?
   a. Malcolm X
   b. Martin Luther King, Jr.
   c. W. E. B. Du Bois
   d. Frederick Douglass

30. Who was president of the United States at the beginning of the Korean War?
   a. John F. Kennedy
   b. Franklin D. Roosevelt
   c. Dwight Eisenhower
   d. Harry Truman

31. When the United States entered World War II, which two major nations were allied with Germany?
   a. Italy and Japan
   b. Italy and Poland
   c. Italy and Russia
   d. Russia and Japan

32. Social legislation passed under President Lyndon B. Johnson's Great Society Program included:
   a. The Sherman Antitrust Act
   b. The Voting Rights Act
   c. The Tennessee Valley Authority
   d. The Civilian Conservation Corps

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33. Who was “First in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen?”
   a. George Washington
   b. Woodrow Wilson
   c. Dwight Eisenhower
   d. Abraham Lincoln

34. Who was the leader of the Soviet Union when the United States entered World War II?
   a. Peter Ustinov
   b. Nikita Khrushchev
   c. Marshal Tito
   d. Joseph Stalin

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Appendix B
Permission Letters

Date:_________________

Principals:

Having discussed his program of study with him and some of the background of his project for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Education, I have granted permission to Michael J. Schramm for a period of six weeks to observe three world history classes at three different high schools in River City Parish. If you have any further questions about Mr. Schramm or his project please contact me at XXX-XXXX.

XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
Social Studies Supervisor
River City Parish Schools

122
Permission is granted for Michael J. Schramm to observe world history classes at this high school for a period of six weeks. This observation period is necessary for a study which Mr. Schramm is conducting in fulfillment of requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, at Louisiana State University, College of Education.

Principal / APA / API
XXXXXXXXX High School

Permission is granted for Michael J. Schramm to observe in my classroom for a six week period. I understand that this observation period is in fulfillment of requirements for Mr. Schramm's Doctoral Studies at Louisiana State University.

Instructor
World History
XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
High School
Appendix C

Excerpts from Final Recommendations on Textbooks

Excerpts from
Final Recommendations on Textbooks
Submitted For State Adoption
Social Studies K-12
Executive Summary

Textbook Currently in Use: World History: The Human Experience
Published by: Glencoe/McGraw-Hill
Date of Publication: 1999
For Grades: 9-12
Reading Level: 9.1

The committee to make recommendations on adopting textbooks for grades 7-12 consists of twelve members. This committee recommended the current textbook by a 12 to 0 vote. This committee’s members included parents, teachers, and administrators whose academic accomplishments included B.A.’s, M.A.’s, M.Ed.’s, and Ph.D’s.
Appendix D
Excerpts from Louisiana Social Studies Content Standards

Excerpts From
Louisiana Social Studies Content Standards
State Standards for Curriculum Development
Bulletin 1964
05/22/97

Standard for Grades 9-12
Students develop a sense of historical time and historical perspective as they study the history of their community, state, nation, and world.

World History Benchmarks
Era 6: Emergence of the First Global Age (1450-1770)

H-1C-H6 analyzing the impact of transoceanic linking of all major regions of the world; (1,2,3,4)

H-1C-H7 analyzing the political, cultural, and economic developments and trends that resulted in the transformation of major world regions; (1,2,3,4)

H-1C-H8 explaining how the emergence of territorial empires in Europe, Asia, and Africa unified large areas politically, economically, and culturally; (1,3,4)

H-1C-H9 tracing the expansion of European power and economic influence in the world and examining the impact of this expansion on societies in Asia and the Americas; (1,3,4)

Era 7: An Age of Revolutions (1750-1914)

H-1C-H10 analyzing the impact that political revolutions and new ideologies had on societies around the world; (1,2,3,4)

H-1C-H11 evaluating the economic, political, and social consequences of the agricultural and industrial revolutions on world societies; (1,2,3,4)

H-1C-H12 analyzing the patterns of world wide change that emerged during the era of Western military and economic domination; (1,2,3,4)

Era 8: A Half-Century of Crisis and Achievement (1900-1945)

H-1C-H13 analyzing the causes and international consequences of World War I, the rise and actions of totalitarian systems, World War II, and other early 20th century conflicts; (1,2,3,4)
Vita

Michael Joseph Schramm received a bachelor of arts degree in American history from the Virginia Military Institute in Lexington, Virginia, in 1972. He completed the degree of Master of Arts in eastern European history in 1988 from Louisiana State University. He is currently completing the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in curriculum and instruction from Louisiana State University.

Mr. Schramm has been an educator for a decade. He has served as a teacher at the secondary level in the field of history. Prior to teaching Mr. Schramm served as an officer in the United States Marine Corps and in the United States Navy.
DOCTORAL EXAMINATION AND DISSERTATION REPORT

Candidate: Michael J. Schramm

Major Field: Curriculum and Instruction


Approved:

[Signature]

Major Professor and Chairman

George M. Schramm
Dean of the Graduate School

EXAMINING COMMITTEE:

[Signatures]

Date of Examination:

July 25, 2000

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