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ABSTRACT

This document consists of the proceedings of a conference that reflected the vision of history held by the Bradley Commission. The theme of the conference was the nature of the history curriculum. The presenters at the conference focused on the impact that the report of the Bradley Commission has had during the previous five years. The document includes a program for the conference, the text of some presentations, and handouts to accompany other presentations that are part of a video. Presentations include: (1) "The National Education Standards Movement" (Diane Ravitch); (2) "Why History?" (Kenneth T. Jackson); (3) "How We've Used 'Building a History Curriculum' to Revise Curriculum" (Paul Filio; John Arevalo); (4) "Developing Funding to Translate 'History's Habits of Mind' to the Classroom" (Marion C. Carter); (5) "Research on Children's Learning of History: Issues and Implications" (Beverly J. Armento); (6) "The Importance of Imagination in History Education" (David McCullough); (7) "Their Future Did Not Work--Will Ours? Thoughts on American Political History in the Wake of the Cold War" (N. B. Martin); (8) "A History of A History of US": Introduction of the Author by a Publisher" (Byron Hollinshead) and "The Author Reads and Discusses Her Work" (Joy Hakim); (9) "The Preparation of National Standards in World History" (Theodore K. Rabb); (10) handouts on the open meeting of the Bradley Commission on History in Schools that accompany the video of Theodore Rabb's remarks; and (11) "Historic Alliance: How We Made a $250,000 History Video for Less than $2,000" (George McDaniel). The document ends with a roster of the participants. (DK)

PROCEEDINGS

1993 Conference

of the
National Council for History Education

Theme
Building A History Curriculum
A Five Year Retrospective

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Theme:
Building A History Curriculum:
A Five Year Retrospective

aboard the ship *MS Fantasy*
Miami • Nassau • Miami

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The National Council for History Education wishes to acknowledge the generous support of the Lynde and Harry Bradley Foundation, President Michael S. Joyce, Program Officer Daniel P. Schmidt, and the entire Board of Trustees and staff of the foundation. We are deeply grateful for their major grant supporting this meeting and the publication of these Proceedings.

In addition, we want to thank the following individuals and organizations without whose hard work, sound advice, and enthusiastic participation this Conference would not have been possible: Diane Ravitch, Kenneth T. Jackson, Theodore K. Rabb, Paul Filio, John Arévalo, Beverly Armento, Marion C. Carter, David McCullough, N.B. (Tad) Martin, Robert Ferrell, Byron Hollinshead, Joy Hakim, George McDaniel, Leon Litwack, Marjorie Wall Bingham, William H. McNeill, Paul Pangrace, Jan Ribar, Paul A. Gagnon, Tom Reed, Jerry the electrician, Neil O'Donnell and the staff at Canary Travel, Oxford University Press, Houghton Mifflin Co., Scholastic, Inc., Cobblestone Publishing, The Concord Review, and the Board of Trustees of the National Council for History Education.

The views expressed by the speakers are their own and do not necessarily reflect the views of the staff or Trustees of the National Council for History Education.

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INTRODUCTION

This Conference grew out of the many requests and suggestions from members of the National Council for History Education that we should hold our own meeting at which members could get together and make their own presentations. This Proceedings package (book and video) grew out of our desire to share this meeting with those who were not able to attend in person.

As the successor organization to the Bradley Commission on History in Schools, it seems fitting that the first national conference sponsored by the National Council for History Education should be about the impact the report of the Bradley Commission has had during the past five years.

In addressing the theme for this Conference: ***Building A History Curriculum:*** *A Five Year Retrospective*, we assembled a group of presenters who reflected the broad vision of history held by the Bradley Commission and the varied makeup of the National Council for History Education. Our speakers included the "big picture views" of Diane Ravitch (history and national standards), Kenneth Jackson (why study history at all), and Theodore Rabb (development of standards in world history); N.B. (Tad) Martin and Beverly Armento gave scholarly presentations (Martin on current history and Armento on research on children's learning of history); David McCullough gave an inspiring talk onthe importance of imagination in history; Paul Filio and John Arévalo talked about using the Bradley Commission report in writing curriculum at the local and state levels; Byron Hollinshead and Joy Hakim spoke of the publishing side when they told their stories of new history materials; Marion Carter (from the world of state humanities councils) and George McDaniel (from the world of national historic preservation sites) showed that history education may come from and serve a broader community beyond the school/university classroom; and the Bradley Commissioners who reconvened reflected on the important issues raised in **Building A History Curriculum: Guidelines for Teaching History in Schools**.

We hope that the multimedia format of these proceedings will communicate some of the "flavor" of being there. In some cases an entire presentation may be in the book or on the video. However, in some situations the book and the video go hand in hand. For example, Paul Filio's talk on curriculum development is on the video and the handouts he used are reproduced in the book. On the other hand, George McDaniel's talk on the alliance among university scholars, school teachers, and museum personnel that produced wonderful history video is printed in the book and the video he showed to illustrate his point is, naturally, on our video proceedings.

We hope the ideas raised by the speakers at this Conference will cause you to think and inspire you to act. If, after reading and viewing these proceedings, you wish to respond to any of the presenters, you may be in touch with them through the NCHE Office.

National Council for History Education

1993 Conference

Building A History Curriculum: A Five Year Retrospective

June 11- 14, 1993

aboard the *M.S. Fantasy*, Miami, Florida

Schedule

Friday, June 11th	
2:00 p.m. to 4:00 p.m.	Ship is available for boarding
4:00 p.m.	Set sail from Miami
6:00 p.m.	Dinner
7:30 p.m. - 9:30 p.m.	**Theodore K. Rabb**, NCHE Chair, *Welcome and Introductions* **Diane Ravitch**, Visiting Fellow, The Brookings Institution; Bradley Commissioner; and former Assistant Secretary of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement Topic: *The National Educational Standards Movement* Diane Ravitch will discuss the national movement to set standards in core academic subjects. She will examine the origins of the standards setting activities and relate them to the current efforts to reform and strengthen history education. **Kenneth T. Jackson**, Chair, Bradley Commission, Professor of History, Columbia University Topic: *Why History?* Kenneth Jackson will discuss the impact the Bradley Commission's report, **Building A History Curriculum: Guidelines for Teaching History in Schools**, has had on curriculum revision and teaching practice in schools and classrooms during the past five years. He will also outline an agenda for NCHE for the next five years.
Saturday, June 12th	**In Nassau, The Bahamas**
6:30 a.m. to 8:30 a.m.	Breakfast on your own
8:30 a.m. to 9:25 a.m.	**Paul Filio**, Curiculum Supervisor, Cincinnati Public Schools **John Arévalo**, Bradley Commissioner, history teacher at Harlandale H.S., San Antonio, Texas Topic: *How We've Used **Building A History Curriculum** To Revise Curriculum* In this session, participants will evaluate two attempts to incorporate the Bradley themes into a social studies curriculum. The presenters will review the process of curriculum revision and how a history-centered curriculum can enrich and enliven. Whenever change occurs, stresses and tensions can result. The presentation will focus on strategies designed to reduce these types of problems. The presentation will conclude with a review of where we are now and future plans and hopes.

9:30 a.m. to 10:25 a.m.	**Marion C. Carter**, Associate Director of the Alabama Humanities Foundation Topic: *Developing Funding to Translate "History's Habits of Mind" to the Classroom* This session will address teacher seminar grant proposals to State Humanities Councils. It will 1.) review guidelines and provide relevant materials; 2.) offer suggestions for formats such as workshops, partnerships, in-service programs and graduate level seminars; 3.) suggest resources; 4.) offer a mock session for planning a workshop using Bradley Commission members as available, 5.) stress the links between state humanities councils' mission toward education in the pre-collegiate schools and the Bradley Commission Guidelines (using Alabama's recent experiences to illustrate as appropriate). State councils require ingredients in all programs that are in keeping with the emphases of the Bradley Commission: i e., humanities scholarship, members of the targeted audience, experts in the field of inquiry, and advance planning for programs. For teacher seminars these translate into college professors, history teachers, and professors expert in pedagogy on the planning team as well as the implementation of the seminar.
10:25 a.m.	Adjournment
Rest of the day	Personal schedules
Sunday, June 13th	**Sail for Miami** Exhibitors set-up in Electricity Disco after 7:30 a.m.
6:30 a.m. to 8:30 a.m.	Breakfast on your own
8:30 a.m. to 9:25 a.m.	**Beverly Armento**, Professor of Social Studies, Georgia State University Topic: *Research on Children's Learning of History and the Bradley Commission: Issues and Implications* The research on children's learning of history holds implications for the development of curriculum and for the teaching of history/social studies. Research on learning has a certain convergence with the recommendations of the Bradley Commission, giving stronger theoretical and research base to efforts to develop meaningful curriculum for younger students. In this session, research findings will be summarized and implications for history education will be explored, with many concrete examples given. The emphasis will be on elementary and middle school students. The audience will be actively engaged in this session, interpreting research findings and deriving implications for the classroom and for the curriculum.
9:30 a.m. to 10:25 a.m.	**David McCullough**, NCHE Trustee, author of 1993 Pulitzer Prize winning Truman, narrator and host of PBS-TV series, *The Civil War* and *The American Experience* Topic: *The Importance of Imagination in History Education* David McCullough will draw upon a detective case full of historical research and from what he has learned from experience — and from an unorthodox course he taught at Cornell — to discuss how we **learn** history, as distinguished from how it is taught. He will also talk about the bond between history and culture, and the implications of all these for history education.

10:30 a.m. to 11:25 a.m.	**N.B (Tad) Martin**, History Instructor (Ret.), College of the Sequoias Community College, California Topic: *Their Future Did Not Work—Will Ours?; American History in the Wake of the Cold War* Sample topics to be discussed: 1.) "I have seen the future and it works," Lincoln Steffens visiting Communist Russia, 1919. 2.) The Soviet collapse seemed to assure the victory for democracy. 3.) "The theory of democracy is not that the will of the people is always right, but rather that normal human beings ... will ... learn the right and best way by bitter experience." W.E.B. DuBois, 1910. 4.) "When you came to examine the American Constitution, you found that it was ... a Charter of Anachronism. It is not an instrument of government; it is a guarantee ... that it never should be governed at all ... exactly what the American people wanted." George Bernard Shaw. 5.) The traditional political spectrum no longer means anything: right is not conservative, left is not liberal. And neither one works. 6.) "Only voluntary inspired self-restraint can raise man above the world stream of materialism." Alexander Solzhenitsyn.
11:30 a.m. to 1:00 p.m.	Break for lunch
1:00 p.m. to 1:55 p.m.	**Byron Hollinshead**, NCHE Trustee, President of American Historical Publications **Joy Hakim**, history teacher/author of the new narrative history series for 5th grade, **A History of US**, published by Oxford University Press Topic: *A History of **A History of US*** Joy Hakim's **A History of US** has been hailed as "one of the most interesting in years" (Social Studies Review) and as having "the potential to change the way teachers and students experience our country's history." (American Educator) It is the kind of narrative history called for in the Bradley Commission guidelines. Why, then, did the author have such difficulty in finding a publisher? The story of getting **A History of US** into print is, in itself, an interesting case study of what's wrong with American educational publishing — and American education.
2:00 p.m. to 2:55 p.m.	**Theodore K. Rabb**, NCHE Chair, Professor of History, Princeton University, member of the National Council for History Standards Topic: *The Preparation of National Standards in World History* Shortly before this conference, the first outline of the Standards for World History will have been completed, and teachers from around the country will be starting to expand on that outline. The purpose of this session will be to discuss what is being proposed, and to give those who teach World History in the schools a chance to comment. Since the preparation of the Standards is still at an early stage, the session will offer participants the opportunity to make suggestions that will help the Council in its work.

3:00 p.m. to 5:15 p.m.	**Open Meeting of the Bradley Commission on History in Schools** Kenneth T. Jackson, *Chair* *Commissioners:* John M. Arévalo, Marjorie Wall Bingham, Robert H. Ferrell, Leon F. Litwack, William H. McNeill, Diane Ravitch *Staff:* Elaine Wrisley Reed, Joseph P. Ribar
5:45 p.m.	Dinner
7:30 p..m. to 8:25 p.m.	**George McDaniel**, Executive Director, Drayton Hall in South Carolina, a National Trust for Historic Preservation site Topic: *Historic Alliance: How We Made A $250,000 History Video For Less Than $2,000* Historic sites can offer opportunities for students, teachers, and historians to forge stronger alliances. A case in point occurred at Drayton Hall, a mid-18th century plantation near Charleston, SC and now a property of the National Trust for Historic Preservation. In the spring of 1992, an African American tenant house site was researched, excavated, and documented by a unique set of allies — archeologists, historians, a middle school teacher, a college intern, the media staff of a nearby university, and a former resident of the house. One result is **"I Like to See What's Down There": Archaeology and Oral History at Drayton Hall**, a 28-minute videotape to be presented on public television and screened in this session. By combining research of written records, oral history, and archaelogy, the team produced a more complete and personal story. Further, by working together they did so on a budget well within reach of history departments, historic sites, and schools across the nation.
8:30 p.m. to 9:30 p.m.	Reception and refreshments, compliments of NCHE
Monday June 14th	
7:00 a.m.	The ship docks in Miami.

NATIONAL EDUCATION STANDARDS

Diane Ravitch
Visiting Fellow, The Brookings Institution
Member, Bradley Commission
former Assistant Secretary of Education,
Office of Educational Research and Improvement

We are gathered here on this delightful cruise ship to acknowledge the fifth anniversary of the Bradley Commission on History in Schools. I must say that of the many conferences that I have ever attended this is certainly the most physically delightful.

Many of the original Bradley Commissioners are here tonight, including Kenneth Jackson, whose leadership was so critical to the success of the report. And staff members Elaine Wrisley Reed and Joe Ribar, who provided the continuity that has brought us nearly intact to this moment on the high seas between Miami and Nassau.

The Bradley Commission report was not only *about* history, it made history. Whenever anyone writes education history, and specifically the history of the curriculum, they must note the contribution of the Bradley report, which in somber tones sent a wake-up call to the nation's schools about the importance of the study of history.

The Bradley report appeared five years after the appearance of "A Nation at Risk," the 1983 report of the National Commission on Excellence in Education. Inspired in large measure by the alarmist rhetoric of "A Nation at Risk," many states became deeply immersed in education reform. Time and again, the focus was on basic skills, reading and writing, and on mathematics and science education, which are so closely geared to jobs, careers, and economic productivity.

In their plea for higher course requirements and for "New Basics," the authors of "A Nation at Risk" nearly ignored history, though they did not ignore social studies. Like most people, they thought that the two were synonymous. That however is usually not the case.

What the Bradley report did, then, was to put history onto the national agenda as a subject that was deserving of attention. Furthermore, the report did not dabble in basic skills but called instead for "habits of mind." Quite remarkably, and so naturally that almost no one noticed, the report rose above the bitter and unproductive partisan squabbles over multiculturalism and embraced the importance of studying the experiences of all manner of peoples, both in the United States and in world history.

Do not underestimate the importance of the Bradley report, but consider instead what happened soon after its release. In 1989, President Bush invited the nation's governors to meet with him in Charlottesville, Virginia, where they agreed that they should set national education goals. In the early months of 1990, the national goals for the year 2000 were formulated and released.

Goal one said that by the year 2000, all children in America would start school ready to learn.

Goal two said that by the year 2000, the high school graduation rate would increase to at least 90%.

Goal three said that by the year 2000, American students will leave grades four, eight, and twelve having demonstrated competency in challenging subject matter including English, mathematics, science, history, and geography; and every school in America will ensure that all students learn to use their minds well, so they may be prepared for responsible citizenship, further learning, and productive employment in our modern economy.

Goal four said that by the year 2000, U. S. students will be first in the world in science and mathematics achievement.

Goal five said that by the year 2000, every adult American will be literate and will possess the knowledge and skills necessary to compete in a global economy and exercise the rights and responsibilities of citizenship.

Goal six said that by the year 2000, every school in America will be free of drugs and violence and will offer a safe, disciplined environment conducive to learning.

As you may know, the governor who was most active in negotiating the content and wording of the national education goals was Bill Clinton, so there is good reason to hope that the goals will provide focus for federal and state policymaking in the remainder of this decade.

Now, you may have noticed that goal three specifically identified history--history, not social studies--as a central academic subject. And perhaps like me, you will also take pleasure in noting the inclusion of geography, a subject that has been

nearly forgotten in many schools in recent decades.

While I cannot prove it, and while I as an historian do not like to make assertions without evidence, I believe that the Bradley Commission report must have been in some way responsible for the specific reference to history in the national goals. Recall that only six years earlier,"A Nation at Risk" had not singled out history for any attention; but one year after the release of our report on the importance of history in the schools, the president and governors accepted our recommendation and listed it as a key subject that all American children should study.

When I entered government service and among my responsibilities was the vetting of speeches on education by the Secretary, I made sure that history and geography continued to be specified. I also oversaw the administration of the National Assessment of Educational Progress, and I was pleased to see that history was a subject that was on NAEP's schedule as a subject that would be regularly assessed. I attribute this in part to the support and influence of Checker Finn, who has served for several years as a member of the National Assessment Governing Board.

Therefore, when Secretary Lamar Alexander decided that the Department of Education would support the development of voluntary national standards in different subjects, it was a certainty that such standards would be developed in history.

I should say that I decided to set aside my work as an historian and to join the Department because Lamar Alexander said that the launching of national standards would be my assignment. I didn't know how it would happen, or even if it could happen, but I accepted the challenge.

The first step, it turned out, was to appoint a commission, which is a time-honored way of building consensus and political support. So, Secretary Alexander met with Congressional leaders and persuaded them to authorize a National Council on Educational Standards and Testing, a 32-member body which came into existence in July 1991. That group met monthly and released a report in January 1992, recommending that our nation should have voluntary national content standards that define what American children should know and be able to do and a voluntary national assessment system to determine whether children were in fact learning at high levels. An interesting and important issue arose during the deliberation of the NCEST panel over a proposal to recommend what was called school delivery standards. The idea was that there should be standards for school districts and schools, not just for students. The Council split down the middle, but finally agreed that states should collectively develop school delivery standards, and each state should decide which school delivery standards to use for its own schools.

While the Council was deliberating, the Department began to support the development of voluntary national content standards. A chance discussion between Lamar Alexander and Frank Press, the president of the National Academy of Sciences, led to a proposal from the Academy; and in September 1991, the Department made an award to the Academy to develop science standards for all American children.

That same fall, Charlotte Crabtree of the UCLA Center for History in the Schools enlisted the support of every professional and scholarly organization in the field of history and social studies and made a proposal to the Department of Education and the National Endowment for the Humanities. And an award was made to the UCLA center to lead a national consensus process to develop standards in history.

During 1992 and the first few weeks in 1993, similar awards were made to develop voluntary national content standards in the following subjects: the arts, civics, English, geography, and foreign languages. You may have noticed that some of these subjects--notably, civics, the arts, and foreign languages--were not specified in goal three of the national goals. But Secretary Alexander decided that the intention of the goal was to identify the academic core, not to narrow it by excluding the arts, civics, and foreign languages.

It is also important to point out that mathematics standards had already been developed by the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics and published in 1989. While the math standards had their critics, they were nonetheless a powerful model of how standard-setting should happen and what it could accomplish. The math teachers decided in the mid-1980s that their subject was in terrible trouble; they had seen the international assessments that showed American children at or near the bottom in math scores. They blamed this poor performance on the failure of the new math and the triumph of the basics movement, which kept American youngsters focused on computation and rote work while their age-mates in Japan, Korea, and Germany were learning algebra and geometry.

So the math teachers decided that the way to rescue their field was to set standards. They set up writing teams, which prepared a draft and circulated it to classroom teachers, mathematicians, supervisors, math educators, and others. The consensus process was broad and inclusive. What emerged was a document based on the principle that "knowing" mathematics means "doing" mathematics. It emphasized active learning, reasoning, questioning, and problem-solving. The standards were not a recipe book so much as a compilation of principles, ideas and examples to stir people to teach math in very different ways.

To do the NCTM standards required a very different approach to math from what was then commonplace in American schools. It implied that almost everything had to change: instruction, textbooks, tests, technology, teacher education, and teacher training. And lo and behold, change did get underway, more rapidly than anyone in NCTM dared to dream. Today more than 40 states have adopted the NCTM standards as the basis for their mathematics curriculum. Just as many states are using the NCTM standards as the baseline for retraining classroom teachers, the NCTM standards have been incorporated into the accreditation standards of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), which in the past has not been noted for attention to subject matter in the preparation of new teachers. New textbooks in math claim to embody the NCTM standards, and developers of educational technology have embraced them as an approach that allows them to depart from mechanistic drill-and-practice routines and to create interactive technology that teaches math in innovative ways.

This was the vision of standards-based reform. The hope was that other subject fields could get their act together, as the math teachers had, iron out their differences, learn to live with their controversies (neither avoiding nor suppressing them), and create a vision of what all students should know and be able to do. Unless the math standards were a one-of-a-kind phenomenon, it was possible that content standards in each field could become a coherent vision of what children should learn, and that this vision would in turn promote reform of every other part of the schooling process.

As I envisioned the federal role, it consisted of starting the process and then getting out of the way. If it turns out that a field is unable to come to a consensus about what is important, then so be it. I do not think that the federal government should sit at the table and play a directive role. The danger of political interference is simply unacceptable.

While I was in office, the standards projects were funded by my agency, the Office of Educational Research and Improvement. I recruited Paul Gagnon, the former executive director of the Bradley Commission and NCHE, to oversee the grantmaking process. I gave a good deal of thought to the implications of standard-setting, not just the good things that might happen, but the things that would probably go wrong. At each ceremony, I gave a similar talk to the groups that were accepting the awards and I laid down the following principles:

First, that their job would succeed or fail based on the success of their consensus process; to succeed, it had to be broadly inclusive and participatory of all the voices in their field.

Second, that they had to pay close attention to the best standards in this country, as exemplified by the curriculum frameworks in leading states, and to the best standards in the major nations of the world.

Third, that they had to recognize the five "NOTs" of standard-setting:

a) it was NOT to be partisan

b) it was NOT to promote a national curriculum

c) it was NOT to encourage standardization

d) it was NOT an exercise in pedagogical imperialism.

Let me explain each of the NOTs, because many people just don't get it. As I told each of the groups, both President Bush and Governor Bill Clinton strongly support the development of national standards. There was no difference between the parties on this question.

National standards did NOT necessarily imply a national curriculum. As I understood it, the national standards should be supplemented by state and local curricula. While in math there might be little difference between what was taught in Maine and California, in history there might be a great deal of local and state and regional variation even with national standards.

Then there was the issue of standardization. Many people thought that the standard-setting activities were another step towards uniformity, homogenization, and standardization. My own view was that at present we already have standardization--thanks to the mass-market textbooks and commercial nationally normed tests--without standards. What we should aim for is standards

without standardization. I think NCTM has shown us the possibilities, since the successful implementation of their standards discourages the use of mass-market textbooks and single-answer multiple choice tests while encouraging the maximum of imagination and creativity on the part of teachers and students.

And last, standard-setting should not be an occasion for what I called "pedagogical imperialism." It was not the place to settle scores between contending theories, not the place to stamp out phonics or whole language, not the place to rout one's ideological enemies in the profession.

That, I think, describes the starting point. And as we all know, being students and teachers of history, things don't always go as planned, and it remains to be seen whether and how the standard-setting projects will work. Things will go wrong, that is almost guaranteed.

I have not stayed closely in touch with any of the projects. It seemed to me that I should maintain at least an arm's length distance away, because of my role in the government, and I have done so. I have seen the massive 300-page tome produced by the history standards project and it is an impressive body of work. It is being reviewed by the field now, and I for one will be greatly interested to see how it survives the review process. Charlotte Crabtree and Gary Nash have done a remarkable job of coordinating a large and unwieldy field, and we are all in their debt.

As I think about what can go wrong, the following points come to mind. Even as our field struggles to identify the main ideas and concepts and events that should be part of every student's history education, the fact remains that many classroom teachers are inadequately educated themselves. I asked the National Center for Education Statistics in the U. S. Department of Education if they could tell me how many people who teach history in the schools have actually studied history themselves. And here is what NCES reported: 31.18% of those who teach at least one history course have majored in history; 42.76% of those who teach at least one history course have either a major or minor in history. Put another way, about 57% of those who teach history courses in school do not have either a major or a minor in history. As it happens, 80% of history teachers have either a major or minor in "social sciences education" or psychology, as do 86% of world civilization teachers. These statistics indicate how difficult it will be to implement the very ambitious, content-rich new history standards.

Thus, if there is to be any real hope for implementation of the standards, once they are approved, there must be substantial commitment of resources to professional development so that more teachers are well educated in history.

In addition, the numbers I just recited suggest that we must do something to correct the academic pipeline that produces history teachers who have not studied history, either as a major or a minor.

I think what we are seeing is the consequence of the domination of history by the social studies. In many states--and California and New York are prime examples--a person can be certified to teach social studies without having taken a single course in history. And irony of ironies, California and New York have probably the most demanding history curricula in the nation. The history teacher in these states is expected to teach not only United States history, not only the history of this nation's diverse peoples, but the history of Africa, Asia, Latin America, Europe, and everything else. What an incredible burden for someone who has a major in psychology and a minor in educational administration!

Another danger that the history standards face--and I might as well be blunt--is that they will be resisted and openly fought by the social studies establishment. As many of you know, the NCSS has prepared its own standards--again--and it is working actively to prevent the expansion of time for history in the curriculum. This is most unfortunate.

If you think back to the history of the social studies--indeed to the history of NCSS itself--you can understand the dilemma we find ourselves in today. The social studies began in the second decade of this century with the idea that history was the center, the integrative core, of the social studies. Over time, the conception changed so that by the 1960s, history was seen as first among equals. Somehow, during the past three decades, the social studies began to see itself as a subject in which no discipline was of signal importance. So, when one looks at the NCSS standards that were released last fall, you see that history plays a small, distinctly minor role in the total social studies curriculum, no more important than anthropology, government, economics, or any other discipline. History is one of nine standards, as is geography. Sadly, no discipline seems to have any particular importance, and all merge into a sort of

stew of skills, processes, valuing, decisionmaking, problem-solving, experiencing and attitude-building. It was precisely this kind of non-disciplinary approach that led the National Geographic Society to work aggressively to restore geography as a field of study; and it is precisely this kind of non-disciplinary approach that has been responsible for the inadequate preparation of teachers of history and for steady erosion of history's place in the curriculum.

Which brings us back to the Bradley report. What seems so exciting now about the Bradley report is that it was a clarion call on behalf of history as a subject of study. It broke free of decades of compromises; it rejected the idea that history must beg crumbs from the crowded plate of the social studies; and it clearly and forcefully explained what history should be--not a memory-test of names and dates, but a richly integrative, interdisciplinary study of the ideas, events, and people of different times and places. It presented a vision of what could be, and the history standards project has built on that vision.

One other danger lurks in the move to create history standards at the national and state level. Like the challenge from the social studies, this challenge too must be met head-on. I speak now of the danger of politicization. I have just been reading David Remnick's marvelous new book, **Lenin's Tomb**, which recounts the last years of the Soviet Union before its collapse. Remnick was the reporter in Moscow for **The Washington Post** from 1988 to 1992, and he seems to have interviewed every major actor, government official, and dissident that played an influential part. A theme of his book is the struggle to control history, and he mentions again and again that state control of historical memory was a critical element in state control of the polity. I can think of no more eloquent brief for freedom of historical inquiry than this powerful and fascinating book.

As I read the Remnick book, I kept thinking of the danger of allowing state officials and legislators to rule on historical truth, dictating to schools which historical interpretations are correct. The only way to keep politicians from influencing the content of the curriculum is for the profession itself--teachers and scholars--to insist on freedom from political interference. Historical judgments must be based on evidence, must constantly be subject to verification and challenge. Students must be taught to criticize, to question authority, to demand proof, and to look for alternative explanations. The profession must organize itself and condemn any attempts by legislators or policymakers to rewrite history for political reasons or to rewrite history for any reason. The rewriting of history should be left to those with the training to do it, the historians.

This period that we are now living in may someday be remembered as one in which we made important changes in our educational system. We may look back to these days and hail the Bradley report for its contribution to the strengthening of history in the schools. I hope we will say that this was the point at which teachers and scholars joined hands and made a difference. And state after state put history at the center of the social studies curriculum, where it belongs.

But we all know that things may not go so well. That the forces that nearly destroyed geography and that have tried to marginalize history are still strong, still active. I cannot say whether we will prevail. I do know that people in this country have an incredible hunger and appetite for history, as we can see from the number of histories and biographies on the bestseller list every week and the audience support for the wonderful television programs like **The American Experience** and Ken Burns' series about the Civil War.

We began our work in the Bradley Commission with the conviction that history was exciting, that it was filled with adventure, controversy, conflict, and challenge, and that if we could capture that excitement in the classroom, our children would respond positively. We reach our fifth anniversary with those convictions intact. Our society is awash in information, and people seek meaning and understanding. The post-Cold War world is riven with nationalistic and ethnic wars, and we need to know how these tangles began before becoming embroiled in someone else's historical rivalries.

The case for history as a source of knowledge and pleasure and enlightenment is stronger than ever before. We made that case eloquently in the Bradley report. We must continue to make it--before local boards, state boards, state legislatures, on television, and in local communities. Enjoy your weekend, and return rested on Monday to the fray. There is much to be done.

WHY HISTORY?

Kenneth T. Jackson
Jacques Barzun Professor of History and the Social Sciences
Columbia University
Chair, Bradley Commission on History in Schools, 1987-1990
Chair, National Council for History Education, 1990-1992

I am humbled by the presence of so many who have done so much for the cause of history in the schools. As we celebrate the fifth anniversary of the *end* of the Bradley Commission, we should recall that despite the diversity of age, regions, political persuasions, gender, race, and institutions among the members of the Bradley Commission, we reached *unanimous* agreement on our recommendations.

Several of those recommendations are worthy of highlighting. First, the Bradley Commission recommended that every student should take four years of history between the seventh and twelfth grades, regardless of future career plans.

Second, the Bradley Commission recommended that every student should have an understanding of the world that encompasses the historical experiences of peoples of Africa, the Americas, Asia, and Europe.

Third, the Bradley Commission recommended that history could best be understood when the roles of all constituent parts of society are included: women, racial and ethnic minorities, and men and women of all conditions and classes.

Fourth, the Bradley Commission recommended that grades one through six, especially in the social studies curriculum, should be history centered. Sadly, in 1993, the dominant approach in elementary schools remains "expanding environments," which means that youngsters learn first about their family, then their neighborhood, then their city, then their state, then their country, and finally the world. Current practice assumes that children have little concept of time until they are teenagers. The Bradley Commission stood that concept on its head and said that children could in fact learn about the past, and could in fact develop a sense of time.

And fifth, and most importantly, the Bradley Commission recommended that history and geography are not just "among" the social studies, but the "core" of the social studies, the "foundation" of the social studies. The late Allan Nevins, one of America's most prolific and distinguished authors, said that "social studies" were "social slush." Fortunately, the Bradley Commission did not adopt such an extreme view. But, "Social studies," as Jacques Barzun has observed, "will never impart a comprehensive sense of the past or stir the historical imagination."

It is appropriate to thank the original Bradley Commissioners for their achievements. Some have joined us this evening. John Arévalo of San Antonio's Harlandale High School, for example, has proven to be a strong and effective spokesman for history throughout Texas. Marjorie Bingham of St. Louis Park High School in the Twin Cities area has been active in the OAH and the AHA on various committees and has served as the president of the Organization of History Teachers. Without Marjorie,we could not have progressed as we did. Robert Ferrell of Indiana University is quiet but has earned our respect. Among the most distinguished of all American historians, especially in diplomatic history, Bob has been there for us when we have called upon him, not just during that year with the Bradley Commission, but since then and we thank him for continuing to be for us and with us. Leon Litwack has not only been a distinguished scholar and a prize-winning historian whose many books include **Been In The Storm So Long**, which won the Francis Parkman Prize, but he is also a *legendary* teacher. His classes have been the most popular courses at the University of California at Berkeley. As the President of the Organization of American Historians, he lent prestige and honor to the Bradley Commission and gave weight to its recommendations.

When I first began graduate school thirty-two years ago, I studied with William H. McNeill, who is widely regarded as the "greatest living American historian." The National Commission on the Social Studies recommended the integration of *all* of history up to 1750 and then 1750 to 1900 and 1900 to the present. As many persons noted, "It's a *terrific* curriculum; the only problem is that the only one person in the United States qualified to teach it is William H. McNeill."

And there is Diane Ravitch, a leader in the

trenches since even before the Bradley Commission, and more recently a senior administrator in the United States Department of Education. Through her articles, books, and personal advocacy, she has done as much as any person to keep history alive in the school.

Finally, staff members Elaine Reed and Joe Ribar have pulled this meeting together and have done the necessary work behind the scenes to make our voices heard.

The good news for those concerned about history in schools is that, unlike most reports and commissions, the Bradley Commission Report has not gathered dust. It *has* had an impact.

The Bradley Commission report has been used in the curriculum revision process and/or referenced in the state curriculum framework, in 38 percent of the nation's states in the five years since the report was issued. In addition, it has been used in textbook selection, state board of education meetings, and in presentations to teacher inservice groups. It has been used 91 times, that we can document in local districts, in addition to state frameworks.

More recently, the National Council for History Education has created state level committees to produce newsletters, to meet with state social studies councils, and to recruit at statewide conferences.

More than 50,000 copies of our 32-page booklet, **Building A History Curriculum**, are now in print. We have put it into the hands of state boards of education, of state superintendents of instruction, of chairmen of social studies committees, and tens of thousands of people who simply asked for it. It will continue to have an important role as years go by.

Moreover, hundreds of telephone calls come in every week from persons who want to teach or study history.

Our book, **Historical Literacy: The Case for History in American Education**, has already been through three printings with more than 16,000 copies and is available in paperback. It is the most succinct and powerful statement available on why history is important.

Finally, just during the past two years we have offered nine colloquia, serving 27 school districts with several hundred participants. Our NCHE summer Academy at Ohio State University was so successful that the teachers involved have continued to meet and have even started a newsletter. Our national symposia in Washington and in San Diego attracted more than three hundred people.

When ***History Matters!*** was first issued, it went to only about 2,000 people; more than 12,000 are now on the circulation list. Our efforts have reached Canada, Australia, South Africa, and Europe thanks to the Bradley Foundation, which generously supports the publication.

When the National Council for History Education began in 1990, the leadership of the AHA and the OAH opposed it because a new umbrella organization, the National History Education Network, was about to be created. The NCHE has always supported NHEN, but that group has thus far refused to say that history should be the core of the social studies. Moreover, it took three full years to get NHEN off the ground.

In the intervening three years, NCHE has done good work. That effort now continues under the energetic and forceful leadership of Professor Ted Rabb of Princeton University. We are fortunate that someone of his distinction and energy stepped forward. Rabb has brought on board other distinguished historians, such as Byron Hollinshead, the former president of Oxford University Press and one of the most respected publishers and editors in the United States, and David McCullough, whose very presence here is testimony to the fact that the best historians are willing to lend their weight to this effort.

Finally and most importantly, history has emerged onto the national agenda and is now counted as one of the five subjects about which students need to know. We would like to believe that the Bradley Commission and the NCHE have had something to do with the fact that history is more visible at the national level.

Why have we spent so much effort in this fight? Why do we care whether or not history is taught? We all have our favorite responses, but Tom Corwin, a master teacher at Horace Greeley High School in Chappaqua, New York, recently shared his list with me. Among his suggestions are:

(1) "History enables us to clarify our perceptions

of the world,
(2) History serves as an antidote to personal experience,
(3) History helps free us from the ups and downs of the present,
(4) History provides us with a sense of what is possible,
(5) History shows us how things are connected to one another,
(6) History can help us avoid mistakes, albeit it does not repeat itself,
(7) History teaches us how things got to be this way,
(8) History alerts us to anticipate unexpected consequences, and
(9) History can be uplifting."

My personal answer to why study history, however, refers to our individual lives. Suppose none of us could remember anything before we walked through the door this evening. We would still be wearing the same clothes, and we would still have the same hair color and the same health. But suppose we could not remember the people we had loved, or the games we had played, or the books we had read, or the songs we had sung, or the homes where we had lived. Suppose we could not remember the schools we had attended or the places we had seen. Suppose we could not remember the happiest day of our lives. Suppose we could not remember the worst day. What kind of people would we be?

We would be blobs; we would be robots. But we are not like that. We do remember. And the way we think, the values we have, the way we approach problems and make decisions, are all based on our personal experiences.

To a large extent we are what we remember, what we have known, what we have experienced. History, like happiness, is within us. As Jacques Barzun has written, "Reading history adds to our personal experience, the experience of our tribe, and the rest of humankind." In this sense, nations are like people, and the reason we should teach history, especially in the United States, has to do with the question of personal experience.

The bad news is that too many Americans, and not just our young, have no interest in the past and regard history as irrelevant to modern life. Too many states have weak history requirements. In California, New York, and Ohio, one does not need ever to take history to be certified to teach social studies in the public schools. Michigan and Nebraska do not include history as a graduation requirement. The American Historical Association will not support any statement from the National Council on History Standards that privileges European history in any way.

We could argue for or against the notion that Europe is more important to the American past than Africa or Asia. But the real issue is that half of American students do not take *either* World history *or* Western Civilization. They study the past not at all. But our major professional organizations have tended to fight among themselves rather than to direct their fire at tendencies toward the removal of history from the curriculum altogether.

Over the next few years, we should continue to support the National Council for History Education and its periodical publication ***History Matters!***. We need to fight against the excesses of the National Council for the Social Studies, which recently issued a report challenging the very idea of history as a field worthy of secondary school attention. We must remind teachers, our professional colleagues, and the public that history is not a conservative discipline. As anyone with a passing familiarity with the discipline realizes, our finest historians are more often radical than conservative. But history is neither conservative nor radical, and historians of every ideological persuasion should join the movement to change the perception that teaching history is a reactionary enterprise.

History is especially important during these troubled times. Senator Daniel Patrick Moynihan recently remarked that since 1914, only eight nations in the world have not experienced a revolution in their government. In 1993, cataclysms tend to be less politically driven than based on ethnic, racial, and religious fault lines. Ethnic groups now seek nationhood that were almost unknown to the public five years ago.

The mixing of ethnic pride and political self-determination has created a feeling around the world, which I regard as pernicious, that regards a country as a country only if it is ethnically pure, if it has a single nationality, if it has a single ethnic group. Germany and Japan, for example, are almost the opposite of the United States. There citizenship is more a matter of blood than of residence. So that persons who have *never* lived in

Germany, but have German blood, have rights of citizenship; whereas persons from Turkey, who have lived in Germany their entire lives, are not regarded as German citizens. In Estonia and Latvia, countries whose freedoms we celebrate today, persons who have lived there all of their lives cannot vote and cannot be citizens—because they do not have the "right" blood in their veins.

Although the United States does not have the massive cultural divides that have thus far brought other nations to civil war, we remain the only large-scale, multi-racial, multi-ethnic nation that has ever really worked. Even small-scale experiments in Switzerland, Canada, and Australia are threatened. And the jury is still out on the United States. Too often we have an "us vs. them" mentality, an ugliness associated with feelings of racial and/or ethnic pride. In my view, history is the common denominator which holds us together. Not because the American past is a "story of glory," not because we should study great men, but because it is an epic of people trying to find security, opportunity, and freedom. Our common denominator is our values. What else will hold Americans together in the 21st Century?

Long before his recent personal difficulties, Woody Allen reportedly said, "Humankind is at a crossroad. One path leads to despair and hopelessness, the other to total extinction. Let us pray we have the wisdom to choose wisely." We need not be so pessimistic. As Franklin D. Roosevelt said, "A nation must believe in three things. It must believe in the past; it must believe in the future; it must, above all, believe in the capacity of its people so to learn from the past that they can gain in judgment for the creation of the future." Or perhaps we should end with William Faulkner: "The past isn't dead; it isn't even past, yet."

Social Studies

Graded Course of Study

Four score and seven years ago our fathers brought forth on this continent a new nation conceived in Liberty and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal...that this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom—and that government of the people, by the people, for the people, shall not perish from the earth.

A. Lincoln
Gettysburg
1863

Handouts to accompany remarks on video by Paul Filio, Cincinnati Public Schools

PROGRAM/COURSE LISTINGS

Note: The committee supports the Ohio State Board of Education's recommendation that three social studies units should be required for graduation. The three units* required would be those recommended by the Ohio Board of Education--American History, World History, and American Government/Economics. Advanced placement courses may be offered at all schools, and may be substituted for core courses in U.S. History, American Government, and Economics.

Core Scope and Sequence System-Wide

K	-	Learning and Working Today and Long Ago
1	-	A Child's Place in Space and Time
2	-	People Who Make a Difference
3	-	Famous People, Legends, Celebrations, and Traditions
4	-	Cincinnati History/U.S. Regional Geography
5	-	U.S. History
6	-	World Civilizations & Geography
7	-	World History (500-1500)-1st sem; Ohio Hist & Govt-2nd semester
8	-	American History & Govt to 1877
9	-	Modern World History (1500-2000)
9	-	Modern World History AA
10/11	-	U.S. History
10/11	-	U.S. History AA
10/11/12		U.S. History AP
10/11	-	American Government (.5)/Economics (.5)
10/11	-	American Government AA (.5)/Economics AA (.5)
10/11	-	American Government AP (.5)/Economics AP (.5)

Regular Program Electives Which Can be System-Wide

10	-	Civics (intervention elective for unsuccessful citizenship test students) (.5)
10/11/12	-	Ethnic and Cultural Issues (.5)
10/11/12	-	African and African American History & Culture
10/11/12	-	Appalachian History & Culture (.5)
10/11/12	-	World Problems (.5)
10/11/12	-	Philosophy (.5 or 1)

College Level Program Electives Which Can be System-Wide

10/11/12	-	U.S. History AP
10/11/12	-	Art History AP
11/12	-	European History AP
11/12	-	Psychology AP
11/12	-	American Government AP (.5 or 1 yr)
11/12	-	Comparative Government AP (.5 or 1 yr)
11/12	-	Economics AP (.5 or 1 yr)

* The specific courses taken to complete the three units needed for graduation may vary at Walnut Hills High School.

PROGRAM GOALS

I. Demonstrate an understanding of the development of and interaction among major civilizations

II. Evaluate ways humans interact with the environment

III. Compare values, beliefs, political ideas and institutions within historical and contemporary situations

IV. Evaluate types of conflict and methods of conflict resolution

V. Interpret significant historical developments

VI. Analyze patterns of social, economic and political interaction

PHILOSOPHY

Cultural diversity enriches our city, state, and nation. Cincinnati classrooms today bring together young people of many backgrounds with a broad spectrum of life experiences. To capitalize on this strength, the Cincinnati Public Schools must provide a meaningful and effective social studies program that enables all students to acquire essential understandings to assume the lifelong Office of Citizen, to subscribe to the positive values from our past and present and to discharge the responsibility of participatory citizenship in the future.

The K-12 Social Studies Program demonstrates a strong commitment to a multicultural approach to learning which incorporates respect for cultural diversity in our nation and the world. The underlying principles of this approach are based upon knowledge and skills that allow students to function cross-culturally and to develop self-understanding, self-esteem and pride in our heritage.

The K-12 Social Studies Program reflects the commitment of the Cincinnati Public Schools to improved academic achievement through the belief that all students can learn. Beginning in kindergarten this program provides background knowledge which is an essential part of literacy. Numerous and varied opportunities are provided for students to pursue their unique interests.

History is the integrating subject of the social studies program. Within the context of history, the formulations and insights of the social sciences take on drama, relevance and significance. Students learn geography, economics, and citizenship in an environment in which the recurring themes are taught. These themes which are vital in the search for understanding of ourselves and others, include:

Civilization, cultural diffusion, diversity, and innovation
Human interaction with the environment
Values, beliefs, political ideas, and institutions
Conflicts, conflict resolution, and cooperation
Comparisons of significant historical developments
Patterns of social, economic and political interaction

Finally, history is the organizing element upon which the coherence and usefulness of literature, languages, science, mathematics, and the arts depend.

The K-12 Social Studies Program with a strong multicultural approach equips students with the basic knowledge, attitudes, skills and values necessary to participate as active and effective problem-solving citizens in a global society and encourages all students to reach their potential.

SEQUENCE AND LEVEL/COURSE DESCRIPTIONS

K- Learning and Working Today and Long Ago*

In kindergarten the children begin to understand that school is a place to learn and work. It is time to develop good social behavior in the classroom so that children will have positive learning experiences. Students also explore their world in relationship to their family and friends. The first goal of the curriculum is to explore the need for rules in the classroom, school, community and country. Students learn why we have rules, how rules help us get along with others and how alternative behaviors get different results. Another goal is to help children build a sense of self and self-worth and by assuming individual and group responsibilities in classroom activities. Finally, through well-selected literature, kindergartners begin to develop a sense of historical empathy by comparing themselves with people of times past. Opportunities to explore Japanese language and literature are used to enrich the kindergarten curriculum.

1- A Child's Place in Space and Time*

Children in the first grade learn more about how important it is for people to work together and to accept responsibility. Students learn that working together involves planning, cooperation, respect for the opinions of others and problem-solving skills. The children's growing sense of place and spatial relationships makes it possible to develop a deeper geographic understanding of places and the interrelationship between places both near and far. It is time for new economic learning which focuses on the goods and services that people want and need and the specialized work that people do to manufacture, transport and market such goods and services. The first grade curriculum continues to develop an understanding and appreciation of cultural diversity through a literature-enriched program beginning with literature of the cultural groups represented in the classroom and then moving to the literature of Spanish-speaking people and other cultures.

2 - People who Make a Difference*

At this level, children are helped to develop a beginning sense of history through an approach that is understandable and interesting. They develop an appreciation of the many people who make a difference in their lives, those who supply their daily needs, and those who have helped make their world a better place. Children develop basic economic understandings of human wants and needs and the concepts of interdependence, as they learn how different people within a community depend upon one another. Multicultural understanding and appreciation are enhanced through reading and listening to biographies about the lives of people living in many cultures who have made a difference. An introduction to the language and culture of a refugee population, such as the Cambodians, helps to enrich multicultural learning at this level.

3 - Famous People, Legends, Celebrations and Traditions*

In grade 3, the history of our nation is learned through meeting people, ordinary and extraordinary, through biography, story, folktale and legend. Children make contact with times past and with people whose activities have left their mark on the nation. Children have continuing opportunities to enjoy the literature that brings to life the people of an earlier time. Children compare the past to changes underway and identify some issues that are important to their immediate community. Issues that are expressions of early people of North American civilizations are explored in both historical and geographic perspective. Children develop an appreciation for the ideals of the American heritage.

4 - U. S. Geography: Cincinnati History

Children begin their chronological study of history by asking the question: What is History? Students then start to learn about Cincinnati from prehistory to the present. The cultural diversities of the people of Cincinnati, including introductory literature and language expressions such as German and Hebrew, the issues which divided and united them, and the way they worked and played are studied. The students study the geographic regions of the United States and the major Native American civilizations who inhabited them. They learn how people make a living, and the important landmarks and geographical features which help identify the region. The linking of geological regions to each other and the world are studied, along with some major issues from the news afecting the lives of children at this age. The historic documents (Declaration of Independence, Constitution, Bill of Rights and Northwest Ordinance) are introduced.

5 - Early United States History and Geography

In grade 5 students complete their first systematic study of the United States frm 1000 A. D. through colonization and development of the new nation to 1790. The past and present are linked throughout the course as students study the diversity of peoples who have contributed to the heritage and present life of America, inluding: native Americans and their origins, the transformation of African Americans, exploration and colonization, independence and the development of our Federal government. The significance of the historic documents (Declaration of Independence, the Constitution, the Bill of Rights and the Northwest Ordinance) is emphasized. Students begin to apply the thinking skills, multicultural attitudes, geographic and economic events and concepts to explaining the meaning of historical events. Students continue their involvement in the Choices and Changes program from grade 3. Some critical citizenship concepts are introduced at this grade to provide students a preliminary understanding of ideas deemed important by the State of Ohio on citizenship evaluations in later years.

6 - World Civilizations and Geography to 1000 A. D.

At this level students study the early civilizations of the ancient past. Starting with a review of prehistoric times, the geographic context of world civilizations and its effects on history are emphasized through the study of events that shaped our modern world. Using the motif of the river civilizations, students examine in detail the cultures/societies of such diverse areas as: China, Egypt, India and the Middle East. The course continues with classical Greece, Rome, West Africa and introduction to the early Middle Ages. The units are thematic, historical, and geographical, advancing across continents and students explore connections between the various civilizations. There is an emphasis on links and contributions of early people from different cultural groups throughout the world. With the coming introduction of a State of Ohio citizenship test at this grade level, students shall be prepared with an understanding of the basic ideas/concepts of citizenship deemed important by the State.

7 - History 7 (World Hidstory 1000 - 1500 and Ohio History)

During the first quarter of grade 7 students continue their study of world history which began in grade 6. Students are introduced to the use of themes in history. The main focus is the encounters between the different civilizations during this period. During a brief review of the ancient civilizations already studied, students practice interpreting source materials that help them learn to link the past and the present using examples from law, literature, philosophy, religion, language, technology and the arts of ancient civilizations. Students continue their study by examining medieval civilizations in different parts of the world. In addition, the spread of Islam and its encounter with Christianity and Judaism provided an important link between Africa, Asia and Europe. Students conclude with an introduction to the Renaissance.

The last three quarters include the study of Ohio history, local and state government, geography, cultures and marks the beginning of one and three quarter years of Ohio and American history which concludes at the end of grade 8. Critical events in Ohio's settlement including geographic factors and progress toward statehood, division over slavery and the Civil War, industrial developments, Progressive era of government reform, and achievements of Ohio's culturally diverse people are related to the important historical themes of the social studies program and linked with the student's life today. The Ohio system of government including the legal system, related responsibilities and rights as participating citizens, and highlights of significant documents (e. g. Northwest Ordinance and Ohio Constitution) provide the student with important concepts for future studies, examinations and life in the Office of Citizen.

8 - American History & Government from 1783 to 1877

In grade 8 students continue their systematic multicultural study of American history. Major chronological periods include: the formation of the national government, westward movement, antebellum period, the Civil War and Reconstruction. Students apply geographic and economic concepts to interpreting historic events which affected the present. Students learn to apply concepts from the historic documents (Declaration of Independence, Constitution, Bill of Rights and Northwest Ordinance) and government to enhance their chances of success on the citizenship test which is given in the ninth grade. Throughout the course, students study the themes of American history as they relate to the goals of our social studies program: conflict resolution and the attempt to reintegrate the South into American culture, relations between native Americans and the U. S. government/people, the search for equality by all groups within America,the economic transformation of America including urbanization, industrialization and immigration and the development of our multicultural society. The story of the transformation or adaptation of African Americans, Appalachians and others continues. Students continue to be provided with important concepts for future studies, examinations and life in the Office of Citizen.

9 - World History (1500-2000)*

This course provides students with the background knowledge necessary to understand the position and role of the United States in the world and to introduce students to the role they will play as citizens of the global village. The course begins with a review of basic geographic concepts such as place, location and movement. Students learn to orient themselves within Cincinnati, Ohio, the United States and the world and discover and trace global patterns using both physical and human geography. Students then develop a working definition of culture and the "universals" of all cultures which are applied throughout the course when interpreting significant historical events. Basic economic factors such as scarcity, choice, and the basic economic questions facing different economies are studied ,as examples of the significance of economic forces on historic events. Students review the origins of human time and the development of the earliest cultures throughout the world down to the classical civilizations which are examined in the light of their contributions to the development of western civilization. The review of the Middle Ages and the early modern periods provides students with highlights of watershed events which set the stage for events in the modern world.

The course emphasizes the rise of modern nations, technical and commercial revolutions, colonialism, world conflicts, the rise and fall of totalitarianism ideologies and governments, twentieth century nationalism in Africa, Latin America, Eastern Europe, and the Middle East. Contemporary world issues will provide the focus of the last quarter. Students learn to study these issues including their historic roots, multicultural interactions and current trends. Also, students learn to make predictions concerning these current issues using their critical thinking tools. The dangers of human inhumanity as illustrated in the watershed events of slavery, the Holocaust, totalitarian regimes and Apartheid are confronted. The philosophies and multicultural arts of world civilizations are used to trace the intellectual growth of civilization. Finally, students study the development of the democratic ideal throughout history and its impact upon current events.

9 - World History (AA)*

This course parallels the review, topics, and chronological time period of the world history course taught at this grade level but provides the more challenging academic requirements needed for them to succeed in advanced placement courses. Students preparing for advanced placement courses in higher grade levels may take this course to extend their advanced writing and reading skills, interpret more advanced original source accounts, understand better how different historians may interpret a historic event differently, and compete with high expectations in academic competitions. Successful completion of this course is acceptable as the required world history course in the core sequence.

10 - Civics (1st semester intervention--.5)

Students who do not succeed on the grade 9 Ohio citizenship test may elect to study civics and government to review essential understandings needed to succeed on the exam. In addition to exam preparation students learn basic citizenship and government concepts needed to continue their study of government. Students optioning for this intervention remediation credit are also expected to complete the three social studies units required for graduation.

10/11 - U.S. History*

In this program students review American history from the earliest period and connect the past to the present using links with significant events in Cincinnati history and the contemporary world. The importance of geographic themes and economic decisions which affected U.S. history are an integral part of the course. Basic concepts include the significance of democracy, civil liberties, highlights of the Constitution, changes in the status and achievements of the African American and other cultures that have made the United States great, as well as the identification of the problems and decisions which influenced the past and present.

In the last three quarters of the course, students study the factors that led the United States to become a world leader, the major decisions, events, and people since 1900 which have affected how Americans lived in a multicultural society, major themes such as the changing role of governments, movements for civil liberties, growing internationalizing of companies and the economy, effects of technology on lifestyle and the environment, and others . To the extent feasible students gain self, group, and national pride, as they learn of their personal heritage and role as a participating U.S. citizen.

10/11 - U. S. History AA

Students seeking extensive academic challenges which prepare them for advanced placement courses in grade 12 may take this course. The themes and content emphasis parallel the regular U.S. history course taught at this level, but students read additional original source accounts, practice oral history interviews, extend their learning and apply the basic principles of historical interpretation, analyze different interpretations of historical events, and write critical essays. Experience with document-based questions and use of specialized historical research skills in historical collections in libraries is included. Successful completion of this course fulfills the core requirement for a year of U.S. history.

10/11/12 - U. S. History AP

This advanced placement course is intended for students who wish college level credit. Students study their American heritage in depth from the period of the colonial period to today, including the founding of the U.S. and the significance of democracy and the Constitution, development of the city and states, Civil War, slavery, and Reconstruction, industrialization, emergence from isolationism in 1900, foreign policies of wars and peace and changing ideologies and alliances in the 20th century, Great Depression and changing role of government, Civil Rights movement, changing roles of technology and the arts, immigration, and the changing international economy. Success in the course requires extensive work and the application of advanced study skills to challenging readings, critical essays, document-based questions, and understanding how historical events can be interpreted differently. At the end of the course, students are expected to take the advanced placement examination to determine eligibility for advanced college credit. Successful completion of this course completes the core requirement of a year of U.S. history.

10/11 - American Government (.5)/Economics (.5)*

This program of government and economics is in reality two semester courses which fulfills the state requirement on these areas of study. American Government completes the student's historical, cross cultural and contemporary study of the governmental processes and institutions which affect the citizen's willingness to assume the participatory responsibilities of the Office of Citizen. At this level students are expected to interact on citizenship and multicultural issues and get involved in the observation, statement of views, and legal processes for influencing government and citizen decisions. The study of government includes the Constitution, structure and processes of the branches of government at the national, state, and local levels, how government is influenced, and applications of government in everyday life. Issues which challenge and improve government from civil rights to fiscal responsibility help the student better analyse citizenship issues. Participatory citizenship experiences on government observation, voter registration, election and political involvement are cooperatively planned by the teacher, parent and student to extend the student's knowledge of government.

The study of economics includes the study of basic concepts and questions needed to understand economics and economic systems, along with the various processes and factors needed for making good economic decisions. The course begins with a review of basic economic concepts learned in the student's study of economic factors which affected historical events. In addition to the basic economic concepts of scarcity, economic choice to allocate resources, and decision-making to improve economic efficiency, students study the relationship of demand and supply, how firms organize and compete through pricing of goods and other factors, how the economy as a whole functions and is measured, money and banking, business cycles, the role of government, how international trade affects the economy, and how different economic systems can be compared with the market economy. As appropriate job shadowing experiences may be planned at this level to help the student with career planning decisions Completion of these semester courses helps prepare students for success on the grade 12 citizenship test which will be given by the state of Ohio in 1994.

10/11 - American Government AA (.5)/Economics AA (.5)

This course parallels the course content with the government and economics courses taught at this level but extends the academic challenges for students who may be planning an advanced placement course experience in a later year. Advanced readings beyond the text, planning, conducting, and interpreting political and economic surveys, analysis of election, political unit, and demographic data are included to increase the level of analysis. Students are asked to prepare and analyze one political and one economic case study using the writing process for class analysis. The use of technology including the personal computer is guided and encouraged. Successful completion of these semester courses completes the student core requirement for government and economics.

11/12 - American Government AP (.5)/ Economics AP (.5)

This college level course provides students the opportunity to complete their government requirement while gaining college credit, with successful completion of the spring examination. The course surveys the branches of government, political processes, political parties, civil liberties, civil rights, role of the media and interest groups. Students learn the techniques used by political scientists including analysis, survey interpretation, and evaluation of political documents and communications.

The advanced placement economics program provides students the opportunity to study college level economics at the high school level. Microeconomics study may be offered for a semester at the college level to help students understand the principles of economics that apply to the functions of individual decision-makers, both consumers and producers, within the larger economic system. Macroeconomics is a separate full semester study to help students understand the economy as a whole. Particular emphasis is placed upon the study of national income and price determination, along with the concepts of economic performance measures, economic growth, and international economics. A student who completes both economic semesters will receive a full unit rather than a half-unit of credit. Students who complete the government and one economics advanced placement have successfully completed their core requirement in these subjects.

11/12 - Comparative Government AP (.5)

Students in this college level program study the countries of Great Britain, France, Soviet Union, China, and either India, Mexico, or Nigeria. The course focuses on the sources of power in each government, cleavages, political principles of that form of government, the framework and scope of government processes and the process of political change. At the completion of the course students are expected to complete a test for college level credit.

11/12 - Economics AP

The advanced placement economics program provides students the opportunity to study college level economics at the high school level. The course may be taken for one or two semesters as described in a previous government and economics course description. The purpose of the advanced placement course in microeconomics is to help students understand the principles of economics that apply to the functions of individual decision-makers, both consumers and producers, within the larger economic system. The second semester of a full year course focuses on macroeconomics which provides students with an understanding of the economic system as a whole. Particular emphasis is placed on the study of national income and price determination, along with the concepts of economic performance measures, economic growth, and international economics.

10/11/12 - Ethnic Studies: Ethnic and Cultural Issues (.5)

The ethnic and cultural issues which divide human ethnic groups are the focus of this course. Research on important ethnic topics, institutional and legal factors, case studies from history and contemporary events, and conflict resolution in and out of the school help students learn to extend their knowledge of history and human behavior. In addition to ethnic issues, issues associated with gender, religion, and social class are examined.

10/11/12 - Ethnic Studies: African and African American History and Culture

This course includes approximately one semester of area study on the history and culture of Africa and one semester of study of the achievements and issues of African Americans. The semester on African history includes a unit on the geographic factors in history which have affected the development of various African cultures, ancient Egypt, Ghana, Mali, Songhay, colonial Africa and the slave trade, nationalism movements, Apartheid, and issues facing modern African states.

In this course students will develop respect for African American individuals and culture, learn of the contributions of African Americans, Anglo Americans and others in the quest for equality, learn of different strategies and participate constructively in the political process to improve civil rights for all citizens, distinguish fact and opinion and confront prejudice, understand the significant role of religion within African American culture, describe the unique history of selected African American Cincinnati communities, and identify institutions within and outside the African American community which can work together to improve the quality of life for African Americans.

10/11/12 - Ethnic Studies: Appalachian History and Culture (.5)

This program will help Appalachian and other students better understand and respect Appalachian culture. The course emphasizes the historical, political, economic, and cultural aspects of Appalachian culture. Among the topics studied are the process by which self-understanding and pride are developed in the Appalachian family, how history has changed the political and economic situations of Appalachians, and relations of Appalachians with other cultural groups. The cultural achievements of individuals and groups are identified, as students read both narrative and original source accounts. Students also learn to participate positively in the political process in the Appalachian community.

10/11/12 - World Problems (.5)

Concepts and skills for analyzing issues and solving problems are used in this program to help students gain an understanding of the issues they will face as adult citizens. Domestic issues related to moral, ethical, and legal obligations and conflicts are studied, along with such international issues as the environment, war and peace, prejudice and racism. The problems of relations between nations, as well as the problems of world regions, provide the students with critical information for understanding today's world and making intelligent decisions.

10/11/12 - Philosophy (.5 or 1)

This program introduces students to the great thinkers and ideas of history and today. Philosophy methods of analysis, issues, problems and the application of ethics and moral philosophy to every day life problems are the major aspects of the course. The role of religions as well as the arts are used to help students learn to think and apply the great ideas. Students develop and defend a reflective philosophy of life. Students who take the course for two semesters will study problems of knowledge and philosophy, the relationship of subjects, and the main ideas from western and non-western cultures in more depth.

11/12 - European History AP

This college level program provides students the opportunity to gain college credit by successfully completing the College Board examination in the spring. The course surveys western civilization from 1400 to 1970 including the political, economic, cultural, and intellectual heritage. The changing role of women and minorities, the origins of anti -intellectual movement and forms of racism in European history are also highlighted. Students learn to apply the skills of the historian in reading and interpreting original source accounts, writing critical essays, reading outside depth studies, writing document-based questions, and interpreting history using themes and philosophies.

11/12 - Psychology AP

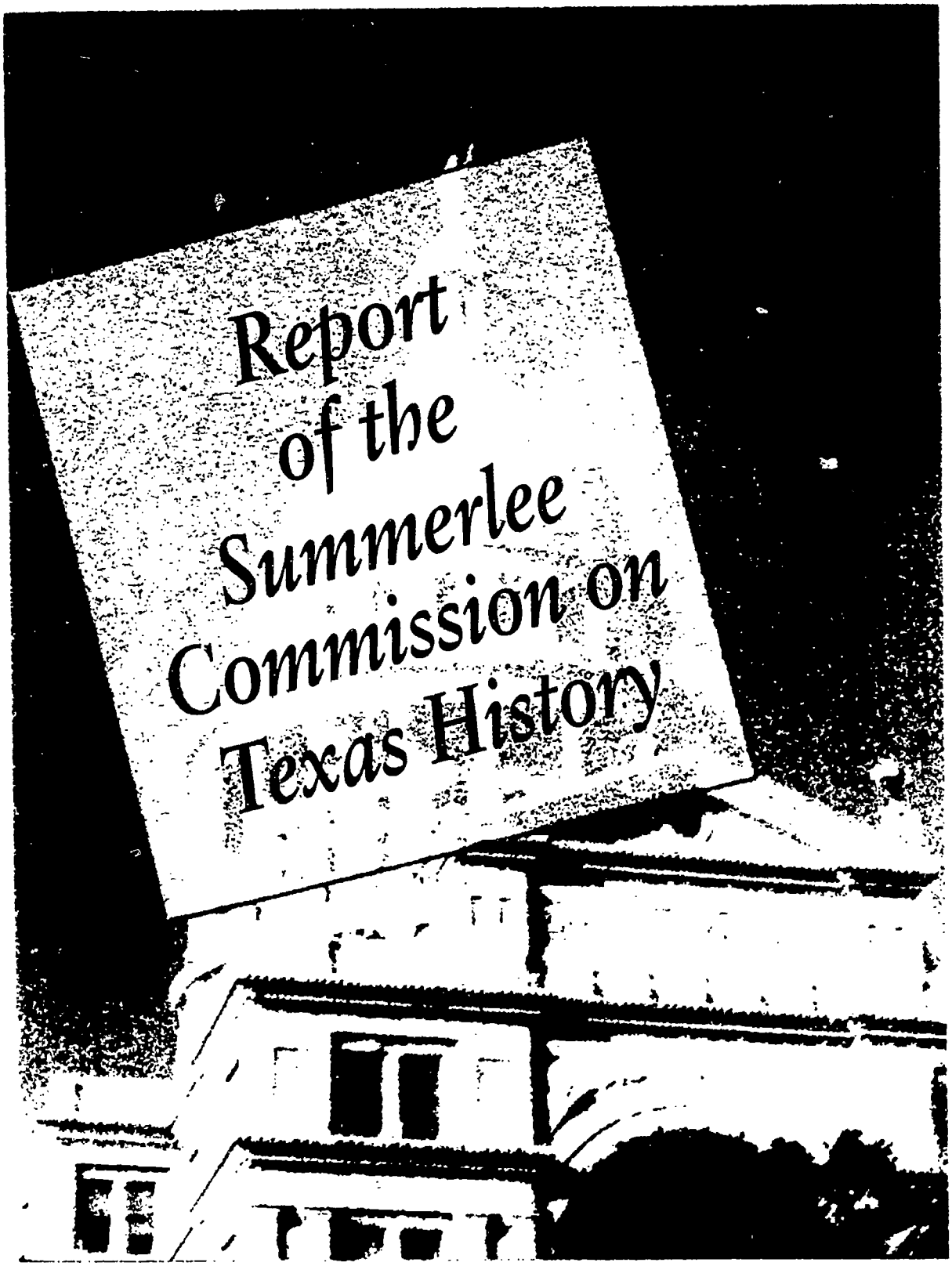
Students study the methods, approaches, history, and major topics of psychology in this college level course. From the biological basis of behavior to the role of developmental psychology and social psychology, the excitement of learning about human behavior is emphasized. Successful completion of the course includes obtaining college level credit from passing the advanced placement examination.

10/11/12 - Art History AP

Art history is a specialized college level course which emphasizes the interpretation of the visual arts. The chief goal of the program is to assist the student in understanding and appreciating key examples of architecture, sculpture, and painting as historical documents. The specific objectives acquaint the student with the historical context within which great art has been produced and to develop skills necessary for recognizing and critically evaluating and comparing art works. Students are expected to achieve satisfactorily on the advanced placement exam for college credit in the spring.

* Program levels and courses marked with an asterisk are the expected sequence of studies for students in social studies in the Cincinnati Public Schools. Some variation occurs beginning with grade nine as students begin preparing for completing college level programs in keeping with individual needs. In grades 10- 12 a full program of electives is offered which provide culminating advanced studies preparing students for participating citizenship and further studies beyond high school, if they choose. Students are expected to complete the program scope and sequence, including the study of Ohio and American history in grades 7-8 and the high school graduation requirements of world history (1 unit), U.S. history (1 unit), and government and economics (1 unit) at the senior high level. Local course options exist in some schools.

Handouts to accompany remarks on video by John Arévalo
Harlandale H.S., San Antonio, Texas



Handouts to accompany remarks on video by John Arévalo
Harlandale H.S., San Antonio, Texas

Primary and Secondary Schools Task Force

★★★

Summerlee Commission on Texas History

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Recommendations

The Primary and Secondary Schools Task Force addresses the following recommendations of the committee findings to the Texas Legislature, State Board of Education, Commissioner of Education, Texas Education Agency, superintendents, teachers, supervisors, parents, students and interested citizens.

Curriculum Recommendations

In the area of curriculum several concerns emerged. One of the concerns was the question of teacher preparation to teach Texas history. At the secondary level, many teachers have social studies composites which allow them to teach any social studies course; therefore, a sociology major may teach Texas history and never have had a course in the subject. The same is true of elementary teachers. Most of them have certification in elementary education. The task force recommends that teachers who teach Texas history should take a college course and/or AAT training courses in methods and content of Texas history.

The second concern is that in the course content many seventh grade teachers do not get past 1900. Therefore, the committee recommends that more time should be spent on twentieth-century Texas in grade 7.

Since Texas history provides students the unique opportunity of studying the events, places, and many contributions of the people who explored, settled and immigrated to our state, Texas history and geography should continue to be a mandated course in the curriculum in grades 4 and 7. The study of Texas history is a microcosm of United States history and the cultures that contributed to make our nation and state unique. It is therefore essential for students to understand who they are as a member of the local and state communities before they can understand their role(s) in the national and international arenas. At the secondary level the essential elements should be more specific and address some areas such as the Mexican War and Reconstruction.

Biographies, legends, and stories of Texas should be woven into the tapestry of Texas history.

Resources and Materials Recommendations

Enrichment materials to enhance the study of Texas history should be made available to Texas history teachers in the form of maps, books, paperbacks, videotapes, filmstrips, computer software.

Textbooks should include more contributions of women and minorities as well as promote critical thinking and problem-solving. Further, all researchers have a moral obligation to share their academic research findings with the students and teachers of Texas. Too often, the scholarly research of academicians is shared with a narrow audience made up primarily of colleagues in the field. The benefit of the research is not always shared with the wider audience: the students and teachers of the state. The fault is not limited, however, to college professors, but with the administration that perpetuates "publish or perish" mentality. While research and publishing is critical to the advancement of education and scholarship, the need for academicians to share their knowledge and expertise with the students and teachers is just as critical. Professors who contribute to and write textbooks should be rewarded with tenure, promotions, and salary incentives the same as those who choose to publish scholarly articles and books. Further, the task force recommends that Texas colleges and universities seek out ways to work cooperatively with school districts, teachers, and students in the form of internships, institutes, workshops, college credit for students and other collaborative endeavors. The University of Texas at San Antonio and The Institute of Texan Cultures should be commended for their outreach programs to Texas teachers and students. The "Teach the Teachers" workshop should be a model for the state and replicated. Regrettably their work is the exception rather than the rule.

Too often, colleges and universities penalize professors who reach out to the public school sector by providing teacher training and/or writing textbooks and do not reward them for their efforts. Some of the real unsung heroes and heroines in colleges and universities are people who have made contributions in education (textbook writing) despite the fact they did not receive credit for helping teachers. There are others who have made a difference but their work is not often a priority in the infrastructure in which they operate.

The same criteria should be applied to educators in the public school sector to share their scholarly research and success with students with a wider audience than their own classroom or school. If ethical standards are adhered to in the textbook adoption process, then the potential conflict of interest of an educator publishing a textbook should be a non-issue.

Colleges and universities should endow chairs in Texas history. The task force found that there are no endowed chairs in Texas history in the entire state. The only two places that teachers can go for assistance in providing resources and/or teacher training are the Texas State Historical Association in Austin and the Institute of Texan Cultures in San Antonio.

In James Michener's book *Texas*, he ends his epic tale by having his character endow a chair of Texas history at The University of Texas. Shouldn't this be done across the state? The Primary and Secondary Schools Task Force challenges colleges and universities as well as the public sector to endow chairs in Texas history throughout the state in observance of the Sesquicentennial of Texas Statehood in 1995. The purpose of these chairs would be to provide teacher training and research in Texas history and to serve as regional centers where materials and resources would be made available to students, teachers, and scholars.

In the final analysis, the colleges and universities of this state have a vested interest in networking and forging partnerships with public schools in the area of social studies, history, geography, and other curriculum areas. To do so will expand their pool of future college students.

The Primary and Secondary Schools Task Force strongly recommends educational field trips to historic sites and points of community interest be funded and woven into the Texas history curriculum. It is ironic that the Alamo is the number one tourist attraction in Texas with over three million visitors a year from throughout the United States and the world, but that many school children in Texas, including those living in San Antonio, are not afforded the opportunity to visit this site and others throughout the state. Numerous requests by teachers were made to include field trips to historic sites. One teacher commented: "My district budget does not permit field trips for social studies in grades 4 or 7. With three Spanish missions in the area ... what a loss of opportunity."

While many districts deny funding for core curriculum field trips to historic sites, the same districts fund thousands, sometimes hundreds of thousands, of dollars for athletic teams to attend tournaments, games, and scouting trips and provide equipment, materials, and resources for an extra-curricular activity denied to regular core curriculum classroom teachers and students.

Teacher Training Recommendations

It was evident to the task force that teacher training is a major priority in improving the quality of instruction in Texas history and all fields. If business and industry spend millions of dollars on training, maintaining and upgrading the skills of their employees, then education must do the same. An investment in the teachers of Texas is an investment in the future of our state.

The Primary and Secondary Schools Task Force recommends that the Summerlee Commission serve as a clearinghouse for grants in Texas history so that teachers and institutions may apply for funding for innovative programs to enrich and enliven the study of Texas history in classrooms across the state. The students and teachers of Texas deserve nothing less.

Handouts to accompany remarks on video by John Arévalo
Harlandale H.S., San Antonio, Texas

THE TASK FORCE FOR THE REVIEW AND REVISION OF SOCIAL STUDIES

Final Report to the State Board of Education

August 1992

Texas Education Agency
Division of Curriculum Development
Social Studies Unit
1701 North Congress Avenue
Austin, TX 78701-1494

PROPOSED SOCIAL STUDIES
PURPOSE, GOALS, AND LEARNER OUTCOMES

PURPOSE

The purpose of the social studies program is the development of appropriate knowledge, processes and beliefs necessary for responsible, participatory citizenship.

GOALS AND LEARNER OUTCOMES

GOAL 1: A commitment to participatory citizenship resulting in civic responsibility and ethical behavior.

LEARNER OUTCOMES: Students will be able to:

(a) demonstrate responsible behavior through social interaction in school and community settings

(b) use rational thought processes to make decisions and offer solutions to problems

(c) accept and respect the rights of others

(d) recognize the characteristics of a democracy and demonstrate individual responsibilities required of members of a democratic society

(e) participate in appropriate civic affairs

(f) formulate and express a personal set of ethical standards and apply these in multiple contexts

GOAL 2: Perspectives of their roles in the larger context of the human experience past, present, and future.

LEARNER OUTCOMES: Students will be able to:

(a) develop self-respect and self-esteem

(b) give examples of how the past has shaped the present and how present actions can influence the future

(c) explain how the human condition varies throughout the world and how individuals can have a positive impact on those human conditions

(d) describe how humans affect the environment and the ecology of the earth

GOAL 3: Connections among history, geography, economics, political and social institutions, traditions, and values.

LEARNER OUTCOMES: Students will be able to:

(a) describe the fundamental concepts of each of the social studies disciplines

(b) explain the connections among geography, history, economics, political science, anthropology, sociology, and psychology

(c) identify societal institutions (family, religion, government, economy, and education) and describe their development as reflections of traditions and values

[d) identify connections of the social studies with other disciplines, (e.g., language arts, science, mathematics, fine arts, etc.)

GOAL 4: An understanding, acceptance, and appreciation of the unity and multicultural diversity of all people in Texas, the United States, and the world.

LEARNER OUTCOMES: Students will be able to:

(a) recognize that the development of states and nations in the western and nonwestern worlds reflects the experiences of people of different racial, cultural, religious, and ethnic groups

(b) analyze the contributions of and interactions among various cultural groups in Texas, the United States, and the world

(c) describe and respect the multicultural aspects of society and the maintenance of the cultural heritage of each individual

(d) describe conflicts and struggles in the quest for human dignity, equality, and freedom for all

(e) describe how cultural groups through interaction and close proximity affect and bring change to each of the cultures

GOAL 5: An understanding of world cultures and the ability to function in a setting of international interdependence.

LEARNER OUTCOMES: Students will be able to:

(a) identify world cultures and describe their growing interdependence within the complexity of world conditions

(b) examine the ways economic systems of the world approach the problem of scarcity

(c) recognize the political, economic, geographic, and cultural barriers that divide people as well as the common human qualities that unite them

(d) analyze how societies struggle with the conflicts between desire for independence and the reality of international interdependence

(e) compare and contrast the economic, geographic, and political concerns of various nations as they attempt to solve problems and create change in their societies

GOAL 6: Skills related to acquiring information, organizing and using information, and establishing appropriate interpersonal and social relationships.

LEARNER OUTCOMES: Students will be able to demonstrate:

(a) reading skills including adequate comprehension, vocabulary, and speed appropriate to the task

(b) study skills including finding information and arranging information in usable form

(c) reference and information search skills including use of the library, special references, maps, globes, graphics, and community resources

(d) technical skills related to electronic devices including the computer, telephone, and interactive media

(e) thinking skills including collecting, classifying, interpreting, analyzing, summarizing, synthesizing, and evaluating information

(f) decision-making skills

(g) ability to adjust the thinking processes to accommodate the issues and knowledge to be learned

(h) effective oral and written communication skills

(i) ability to express convictions, communicate beliefs, listen actively, and recognize the value of responding to needs of others

(j) group interaction skills including serving as leader and follower, setting goals, participating in group decisions, compromising, negotiating, and resolving conflicts

(k) ability to work together for the common good to effect positive changes in school, community, state, and the national and world settings

(l) social and political participation skills, including accepting social responsibilities associated with citizenship in a free society

PROPOSED SOCIAL STUDIES COURSE TITLES FOR THE SCOPE AND SEQUENCE, GRADES 1-12

Proposed Course Titles for Grades 1-6 by the Task Force for the Review and Revision of Social Studies

Grade 1	**Children Exploring Their Environment**
Grade 2	**Children Interacting With Others**
Grade 3	**Communities Around the World**
Grade 4	**Regional Studies: Texas in the Western Hemisphere**
Grade 5	**United States Studies: Developing Our Nation**
Grade 6	**World Cultures**
Grade 7	**Texas Studies: Our Changing State**
Grade 8	**United States Studies: Building a National Identity**
Grade 9	**United States Studies: Assuming World Leadership**
Grade 10	**World Geography Studies**
Grade 11	**World History Studies**
Grade 12	**United States Government Economics and the Free Enterprise System**

Note: As of the publication of this document, the State Board has not approved the proposed course titles for Grades 1-12 nor the scope and sequence for Grades 7-12. (See pages 73-76 for the rationales for grade level designation.)

Grade 9
United States Studies: Assuming World Leadership

United States Studies traces the emergence and growth of the United States as a world power in the 20th century. The course is organized chronologically, yet it focuses on themes, issues, and questions that have challenged people throughout the century and will continue to be relevant in the future. Students first re-examine new frontiers, new industrial strength, and new resources of the post-Civil War period. This background serves as a basis for contrasting the industrial age with the information age and allows students to reflect on the recent changes in the kinds of work Americans do. Changes in the role of the government in American society are traced through the policies of hands-off government of the first decades to those of hands-on government of the post 1920s. The 20th century has been dominated by the age of reform--from the Progressives, the women's movement, and the civil rights movement to the environmentalists' causes. Each movement has been characterized by high hopes and, at times, disappointing setbacks. As students examine the urbanization of America, they make inferences about the impact of city life and leisure time on the American character. The course traces foreign affairs during the 20th century from rejecting to accepting world leadership; for example, from the isolation of post-World War I to the acceptance of world leadership in the fight against communism. Crises, wars, victories, defeats, and peace are studied, using the examples of the World Wars, Korea, Cuba, Vietnam, and the Persian Gulf. As these themes develop, students recognize how people and events of history have shaped the present and will continue to affect the future. Knowledge of historical events, of traditional values, of major issues, and of rights and responsibilities is critical for citizenship in the 21st century.

NOTE: The State Board of Education by rule approves only essential elements for Grades 1-12. Course titles and descriptions, which are based on the essential elements, are provided as guidelines for instructional purposes for school districts.

Grade 9
Essential Elements and Subelements for United States Studies: Assuming World Leadership

1. SOCIAL STUDIES SKILLS/PROCESSES. The student shall be provided opportunities to:

   a. locate, gather, analyze, synthesize, and evaluate information from a variety of sources (e.g., current news sources, reference works, data bases, interviews, video, media, telecommunication networks)
   b. synthesize information gathered from research to support a point of view expressed in oral and written forms
   c. differentiate between factual statements and personal opinions as they are reflected in points of view
   d. differentiate between primary and secondary sources
   e. place historical events in proper sequence
   f. identify the main idea from a social studies selection
   g. construct and interpret social studies data from a variety of sources (e.g., maps, globes, cartoons, pictures, charts, graphs, tables, time lines)
   h. draw conclusions, make inferences, and formulate and support generalizations,using social studies data
   i. predict probable future outcomes
   j. identify cause-and-effect relationships in social studies contexts
   k. compare and contrast social studies concepts and information
   l. use and apply problem-solving and decision-making skills

2. CITIZENSHIP. The student shall be provided opportunities to:

   a. participate in the democratic process in order to understand the importance of involvement in governmental and civic affairs
   b. examine public policy issues relating to citizenship
   c. demonstrate the use of compromise and negotiation to resolve conflicts and differences
   d. analyze the unity and diversity brought about by multicultural contributions to our civic heritage

e. identify rights and responsibilities as members of various groups (e.g., family, school, community, state, nation)
f. assess and apply standards of justice and ethics to make judgments about people, institutions, policies, and decisions

3. ECONOMICS. The student shall be provided opportunities to:

a. analyze the impac` of labor unions, business structures, and technological innovation on industry and agriculture
b. explain the economic impact of various wars and conflicts on the United States
c. analyze the economic, political, and social impacts of the business cycle on he lives of people
d. analyze the evolving relationship between government and the economy from the New Deal to the present
e. describe the influences of the American economic system on the standards of living of Americans
f. recognize that citizens by their political and economic actions influence the economy

4. HISTORY. The student shall be provided opportunities to:

a. review the development of the nation from the beginning to its emergence as an industrial and world power
b. analyze controversy and change produced by reform movements
c. trace the role of the United States as a developing world power in World War I, World War II, the Korean Conflict, the Vietnam War, and the Persian Gulf Crisis
d. analyze American foreign policy issues during the 20th century
e. analyze major social changes during selected periods
f. analyze selected major social and political issues of contemporary America
g. identify significant Americans of various racial, ethnic, and cultural groups who contributed to change in the United States in the 20th century (e.g., explorers, statesmen, reformers, inventors, military leaders, entertainers, sports figures, literary figures)

5. GOVERNMENT. The student shall be provided opportunities to:

   a. describe the reform movements and major political campaigns with reference to issues, leaders, alignments, coalitions, and results
   b. evaluate the political, social, and economic impact of major Supreme Court decisions
   c. describe the changing relationship among the three branches of government
   d. examine Constitutional implications inherent in major political and social issues
   e. evaluate the impact of the media on the American political system

6. GEOGRAPHY. The student shall be provided opportunities to:

   a. locate places in the United States and the world, using a variety of maps, globes, and grids
   b. describe the relative location of the United States in the world
   c. apply geographic tools to interpret data presented in various forms
   d. trace the transformation of the United States from a rural to an urban society
   e. analyze the demographic changes that resulted from immigration
   f. describe the effects of development patterns on rural and urban areas
   g. analyze how transportation, communication, and technological advances influenced the nation's development as a super power and created the information age
   h. evaluate the impact of population growth and modernization on the environment

7. PSYCHOLOGY, SOCIOLOGY, AND ANTHROPOLOGY. The student shall be provided opportunities to:

   a. describe the causes of immigration and its effects on the way of life in the United States
   b. describe the acculturation of racial, ethnic, cultural, and religious groups in the United States, citing their contributions to our society
   c. evaluate the major struggle for equal rights--political, economic, and social--during the 20th century
   d. analyze developments in art, music, literature, drama, and architecture
   e. describe changes in daily life in the United States in the 20th century

Grade 11
World History Studies

In World History Studies, students investigate continuity and change in the human experience, exploring great traditions that have developed around the world. Beginning with the classical period, study centers on significant institutions that have formed the foundations of many later civilizations. An analysis of the feudal societies of Europe and Asia, which were based on religion, militarism, and autocratic rule, allow students to explore order and stability as important qualities of civilizations. The transformation from these traditional societies to secular nation-states is traced by examining the period of the Renaissance and the rise of the West. A major turning point in the history of the world occurred during the Age of Revolutions, resulting in irrevocable changes in ideas, political systems, technology, and commerce. Europeans used these innovations to gain control of the world as they scrambled for colonial empires. The dominant theme of the 20th century, the struggle among nationalistic states for superiority in Europe and around the world, provides the setting for students to analyze the roots of worldwide conflict. World History Studies concludes with an analysis of decolonization movements, the emergence of new nations in the non-Western world, and the legacy of Western domination. Finally, the course prepares students to apply historical perspectives to issues and problems in their own world as they seek to solve them.

NOTE: The State Board of Education by rule approves only essential elements for Grades 1-12. Course titles and descriptions, which are based on the essential elements, are provided as guidelines for instructional purposes for school districts.

Grade 11
Essential Elements and Subelements for World History Studies

1. SOCIAL STUDIES SKILLS/PROCESSES. The student shall be provided opportunities to:

   a. locate, gather, analyze, synthesize, and evaluate information from a variety of sources (e.g., current news sources, reference works, data bases, interviews, video, media, telecommunication networks)
   b. synthesize information gathered from research to support a point of view expressed in oral and written forms
   c. differentiate between factual statements and personal opinions as they are reflected in points of view
   d. differentiate between primary and secondary sources
   e. place historical events in proper sequence
   f. identify the main idea from a social studies selection
   g. construct and interpret social studies data from a variety of sources (e.g., maps, globes, cartoons, pictures, charts, graphs, tables, time lines)
   h. draw conclusions, make inferences, and formulate and support generalizations using social studies data
   i. predict probable future outcomes
   j. identify cause-and-effect relationships in social studies contexts
   k. compare and contrast social studies concepts and information
   l. use and apply problem-solving and decision-making skills

2. CITIZENSHIP. The student shall be provided opportunities to:

   a. analyze ways societies have cooperated to solve humanitarian problems
   b. trace the importance of the development of civic identity in cultures and civilizations
   c. describe the role of the individual in society in different times and places
   d. describe the responsibilities and rights of the individual in society

3. ECONOMICS The student shall be provided opportunities to:

   a. explain why civilizations develop economic systems
   b. trace the development of economic ideas and institutions
   c. examine how the exchange of economic ideas, goods, and services changes societies
   d. analyze how economic conditions contribute to political stability or instability
   e. trace the development and decline of the communist economic system
   f. examine how innovation and technology contribute to international economic interdependence

4. HISTORY. The student shall be provided opportunities to:

   a. examine the study of history, its definition, and its methods
   b. analyze the rise, common characteristics, and legacies of civilizations during the classical period (e.g., Greece, Rome, Africa [Kuan], India [Gupta], China [Han])
   c. determine reasons for stability in traditional civilizations (religion, feudalism, manor system)
   d. examine the transformation from traditional European societies to powerful nations (Renaissance, Reformation, nation-states, expansion)
   e. analyze the transformation in ideas, politics, technology, commerce, and industry during the Age of Revolution
   f. analyze the influence of colonialism on non-European societies (Latin America, Africa, Middle East, Asia)
   g. examine how nationalism and imperialism caused conflict among European nations
   h. examine conflict as the overriding problem in the first half of the 20th century and the resulting influences
   i. examine contemporary issues in the interdependent world

5. GOVERNMENT. The student shall be provided opportunities to:

   a. explain why societies develop political institutions
   b. trace the development of political ideas and institutions

c. trace the development of representative government
d. analyze government's role in organizing society
e. describe the role of government and the nature of law in the development of civilizations

6. GEOGRAPHY. The student shall be provided opportunities to:

a. locate and describe major physical features of the world and places of historical significance
b. locate and describe places of strategic importance to various civilizations
c. apply geographic tools to interpret data presented in various forms
d. explain how the physical environment of an area influences its historical development
e. analyze geographic influences on human settlement patterns and the development of urban centers
f. describe ways societies adapt to and modify their physical environments
g. analyze the influence of transportation, communication and technological advances on the development of world civilizations

7. PSYCHOLOGY, SOCIOLOGY, AND ANTHROPOLOGY. The student shall be provided opportunities to:

a. explain methods used by social scientists to investigate human experience
b. analyze the impact of migrations on cultural change
c. analyze cultural interaction during selected periods
d. describe daily life in selected places and periods
e. analyze how religions have influenced societies
f. explain how the arts reflect human experience

RESEARCH ON CHILDREN'S LEARNING OF HISTORY: ISSUES AND IMPLICATIONS

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Two immediate prior questions derive from the title of this paper: What is learning? and What is History? We will begin the discussion with a brief answer to these prior questions, for one's perspective on these central questions mediate the selection and interpretation of relevant research.

Learning and Cognitive Development

Piaget's view that development progressed naturalistically through a more or less invariant and universal sequence of stages has dominated educational research on learning and development for several decades. This theory suggested that stage-wise thinking was essentially unaffected by learning, and that the level of instruction should be geared to the stage of development (see Hallam 1971). In addition, behaviorist views that learning is linear, is acquired by assembling bits of simpler learnings (Shepard, 1991), and is prompted by stimulus-response connections have remained popular. Behaviorism has given us behavioral objectives, criterion-referenced testing, and linear learning hierarchies. Many think that these theories have limited the complexity and depth of instruction and the development of higher order thinking in students (as well as the creativity of teachers and curriculum developers).

Today, competing conceptions of learning and development from cognitive and constructivist psychology (Armento, 1986, 1991; Voss, 1986; Wittrock, 1974) are taking hold in the educational research and practice communities. Learning is viewed as domain-specific and as the active construction of mental schemas, a process in which students take information, interpret it, connect it to what they already know, and use it to reorganize their mental structures. The progression is from simpler mental structures to more complex and differentiated structures (Shepard, 1991) rather than as a progression from comprehension to application to analysis to evaluation (a la Bloom). Information stored in the brain is visualized more as a semantic map (graphic organizer, concept map) than as a linear listing of information. As learning becomes more complex, information is more organized into hierarchical, causal, and relational patterns (Voss, 1986). More complex learning is more contextualized, also, in that it is couched in time and space, and elaborated by the specifics of a situation or event or issue.

Lev Vygotsky's views that cognitive development is largely dependent upon learning, and that the learning of "scientific" concepts affects prior learning are currently rivaling Piaget's genetic assumptions. For Russian psychologist, Vygotsky, (see Vygotsky, 1962, 1978), learning is a sociocultural process by which "children grow into the intellectual life of those around them" (1978, p. 88). Vygotsky held that instruction should be targeted to the "zone of proximal development" or "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (1978, p. 86). Vygotsky also proposed that the acquisition of scientific concepts (from the natural and social sciences, for example) mediated all prior knowledge, in that the learner used these new structures to reorganize intuitive, "everyday" concepts and to organize new incoming information (see also, Bruner, 1985; Cole, 1985; Kozulin, 1986; Schmittau, 1993; Wertsch, 1985; and Yaroshevsky, 1989). Such a theory of development suggests a very different kind of instruction than that deriving from Piagetian theory.

What Is History?

Based on the recommendations of the Bradley Commission on History in Schools (1988), the National Council for History Education has proposed that history courses: combine analytical, chronological narrative with in depth studies; deal with relationships between facts and concepts; carry significant compelling themes and questions; teach the concepts of the social sciences in the context of dramatic historical content; include concurrent studies of literature, philosophy, and the arts; be multicultural and inclusive of all people; provide sophisticated understanding of the origins of democratic ideas; offer chances for active learning and the development of critical historical habits of the mind; and be taught by a wide diversity of pedagogical methods (Message and Mission Statement).

For this paper, I've chosen to focus on selected research on only three aspects of teaching history:

• "History as a story well told";
• History as higher order, analytical thinking; and
• History as Social Science conceptual knowledge.

I've selected studies that derive from cognitive approaches to psychology and that have some promising instructional implications.

Research on Teaching History as a Story Well-Told

In part, some think that to learn history is to learn a story: to know the major characters, the events, and the simple causal relations among the events (Perfetti, et.al., 1993). For many children, school learning of history may be similar to learning a story whether the story is read to them by the teacher or whether they themselves read the story from a text. How much history students learn from this approach is in large part a function of how well they comprehend meaning from narrative text. This is related to word recognition and reading skill as well as the nature and extent of background knowledge students have on the particular historical content (Beck and Carpenter, 1986; Spilich, et.al., 1979).

The comprehension of stories depends not only on the reader's ability to identify story components (Stein and Glenn, 1979), but also on the reader's ability to establish story coherence through causal relations or connections linking events (Trabasso & van den Broek, 1985). To test students' ability to use causal reasoning in their comprehension of an historical reading, Perfetti, et. al. (1992) had six university students read four textbook-like versions of the history of the Panama Canal. Subjects were good readers (tested by the Nelson-Denny Reading Comprehension test), but knew moderately little historical knowledge (tested by a content test on Panama Canal and a section of the New York State Board of Regents Exam in History).

In the Perfetti study, subjects met individually with experimenters eight times, 3 - 4 days apart, in meetings lasting about an hour each. The session began with the subject reading an on line computer version of the text; the four versions of the Panama Canal history varied in length, detail, and perspective taking on issues. Following the reading of the text, students carried out a constant sequence of tasks, including writing a summary of the reading; answering comprehension questions orally; answering probing questions for detail and causal connections; and answering 22 open ended reasoning questions.

To assess student responses, Perfetti and colleagues first constructed an idealized template of possible responses based on the information in the texts: **core events (18)** were those that must be mentioned to tell a complete story, while **noncore events (21)** could be omitted without affecting the story; each event unit had supporting detail. In addition, the readings included examples of author bias, inconsistencies among the texts, incompleteness, and conflicting views.

Students were able to distinguish core events from noncore events, and, in general, increased their naming of events with the addition of each reading, naming 21% of core events following the first reading, 27% after the second reading, 33% following the third reading; but only 25% after the fourth reading. Core event information was the only type of knowledge to show an increase over the four reading assignments. The length of summaries did not change appreciably over the four assignments.

Three of the text selections included distinct author perspective, and five of the six subjects were able to detect bias, although one of these only thought about bias upon being questioned. Subjects recognized inconsistencies in the details given on a core event, and asked questions seeking more information on historical context than was given in the readings. Students were swayed in their opinions about issues, with opinions being affected by the text read most recently. Five of the six subjects changed opinions at least half of the time, with the sixth being consistently pro-American in views. Students showed little spontaneous interest in the possible role that other documents might have in helping them come to conclusions; they did not mention that treaties, cables, official orders, or other types of documents might aid in their opinion-formation, and did not name primary source documents when asked: "What else would you like to know?" Even though students were given two primary source documents following the first reading (Hay-Herran and Hay-Bunau-Varilla Treaties), only one of the subjects read these.

In a similar study with fifth grade students, Britt, Bell and Perfetti (1990) found that these younger students could learn the basic story line after reading the text, but were more likely to focus on the noncore events rather than the major core events. The fifth graders focused on an interesting tangential episode about problems with malaria during the building of the canal rather than on the events linking the U.S. with Columbia and Panama. The high interest value of presenting

history as a story is substantiated by the work of Levstik (1986, 1989, and Downey and Levstik, 1991) in which she reports both student general comprehension and interest in reading historical literature. However, Levstik (1986) reports only a few students were spontaneously critical of literary sources, and that much of student inquiry and comprehension demanded teacher guidance and questioning.

Since younger students bring fewer reading skills and less prior background knowledge to bear on historical content than college students, it seems reasonable to expect the instruction and/or the instructor to assist with comprehension and analysis of history presented as a story. How well do elementary social studies texts do in the process of assisting students in their comprehension of historical content? In a critique of four fith grade texts' treatment of the American Revolution, Beck and McKeown (1988) found that the major approach taken is one of merely giving information rather than engineering it to bring about understanding (p. 3c). The texts assumed prior knowledge that is unrealistic for the target audience, and did little to direct student attention to the most salient information through questioning, highlighting, use of review, or focus questioning. Major concepts and events were often included with little explanation or definition. And, causal connections were not clearly illuminated in the narrative.

The Britt, et. al. (1990) study would suggest that younger students will have difficulty finding the major points independently and that they may tend to focus on the more interesting, but relatively unimportant information in the narrative. This is particularly problematic as text material becomes more "interesting" and as children read more historical novels and other literature used to enhance their knowledge of the cultural and social aspects of historical events and to enhance their overall interest in studying history and the social studies.

The extent and depth of a student's prior knowledge influences the quality of understanding derived from narrative reading. Voss and his colleagues (Chiesi, Spilich, & Voss, 1979; and Spilich, Vesonder, Chiesi, & Voss, 1979) have found that the quality of text recall differed between people with high and low knowledge of a topic. Low knowledge readers (including children) are more apt to recall information peripheral to the main ideas and are less able to draw inferences than high knowledge readers (Pearson, Hansen, & Gordon).

Curricular implications deriving from the research on "teaching history as a story" include:

- Sufficient attention should be given to reviewing, building and strengthening students' prior knowledge on a topic before the reading of the "story";
- Written text materials and classroom instruction should demonstrate **coherence** and **considerateness**. Coherence refers to the extent to which the sequence of ideas and events in a text makes sense and the extent to which the text makes the nature of events and ideas and their relationships apparent (Beck, McKeown, Omanson, & Pople, 1984).

Considerateness has to do with utilizing the design of the text to enhance the reader's access to information and to the relationships among concepts (Anderson and Armbruster, 1984).

- Instuctional activities should focus on building comprehension of the core concepts, events, and causal linkages between and among core events.
- Students should practice identifying core events, causal explanations, and supporting details in their historical studies.

History as Higher Order, Analytical Thinking

College students in the Perfetti, et. al. (1992) study discussed above demonstrated little interest in primary source documents; thus, the investigators designed a second study to examine student understanding of and use of documents as evidence in historical reasoning. This time the curricular content revolved around four controversial problems situated in the period of the acquisition of the Panama Canal; a large number of primary, secondary and intermediate documents were available to subjects. (Example of controversy: the extent to which the U.S. participated in the Panamanian revolution; primary documents: excerpts from letters, treaties, official correspondence; secondary documents: written after the event, by a nonparticipant; intermediate documents: document written to defend one's actions or the actions of others...clearly an interpretation of an event or action.)

This experiment was carried out in three sessions; students were given a controversial problem related to the Panama Canal, some factual information in a text-like format and asked to formulate an opinion. They could select documents from a menu of options to study until they felt they had formulated an informed opinion on the controversy. (Some students had access only to primary, others to secondary documents).

Then, they were to write a one-page essay expressing their opinion. For the essay writing, students were not to refer to the documents, but did have access to names and dates listed in the documents to minimize recall of factual data problems. Students also ranked the documents according to their usefulness and their trustworthiness.

Now that students were confronted with problems, they showed an appreciation for the value of documents. Their understanding of and reasoning about controversial problems in history was affected by having access to primary documents. Students who had access to the primary documents used these more in their essays than did students having access to the secondary and intermediate documents. The authors speculated that exposure to the primary sources increases students' sensitivity to the possibility of citing sources in connection with arguments. Interestingly, when students have access to primary source documents, they rank the textbook selection as less trustworthy than the documents. However, those students having access to only secondary documents ranked the textbook as trustworthy as the documents.

The complexity of thinking, interpretation, and reflection demanded by a problem centered/document based study of history reflects the goals of "historical literacy" more than the history as story approach does. The major contstraints on such an approach in the upper elementary and middle grades would be reading skill, domain-specific knowledge, and nondomain reasoning skills (interpretation of specific kinds of data) (Perfetti, et. al., 1992). In addition, since teaching history as interpretation is time intensive, instructional targets for breadth of coverage must be addressed.

In a study examining how people perceive historical causation, Voss and his colleagues (Voss, Carretero, Kennet, & Silfies, 1992), asked thirty-two undergraduate and graduate students to write an essay to describe what they thought "produced the downfall of the Soviet Union"; then, they were asked to indicate "why the riots in Tienamen Square did not produce the collapse of the People's Republic of China." Essays were analyzed for the content and patterns of causal reasoning employed. In general, the demonstrated reasoning was relatively simple, with little justification given to support causal reasoning. All subjects, though, did indicate multiple causes. The role of prior domain-specific knowledge appears to be the major factor in producing causal reasoning differences, with those subjects having more knowledge better able to give more complex causal reasoning and more detailed substantiation for those factors.

This Voss study again reinforces the important role domain-specific knowledge plays in higher order thinking processes such as causal reasoning. In addition, the studies reported in this section demonstrate student ability to perform higher order cognitive processes using historical data, given carefully structured instructional experiences. There is little reason to believe that upper elementary and middle school students could not perform similar cognitive processing, given appropriate instruction.

History as Social Science Conceptual Knowledge

The concepts of the social sciences (anthropology, sociology, psychology, economics, geography, and political science) are included in an interdisciplinary approach to the teaching of history. Thus, concepts such as culture, region, interdependence, democracy, state, scarcity, exchange, inflation, church, class, revolution, policy, economy, and so on are used very often in text or inquiry approaches to the study of history. A number of instructional and learning problems are apt to arise given the heavy concept load in historical narratives:

- Often, social science concepts are simply used in the narrative, without difinition or elaboration; many of the specialized concepts are rather simple "words" such as the word "state" or "region"; however, these concepts have specialized meanings. When "history" or chronology is the organizing curricular framework, authors may neglect to develop the meanings of the many conceptual terms embedded in the text. For younger students or those with weak vocabulary development, the concept load may inhibit learning (Peel, 1967).
- Often social science concepts may have a contemporary meaning for students, but the way the concept is used in a particular time and place may differ from the "everyday" meaning of the term. Such phenomena as church, commerce, democracy, state, empire, take on new attributes and qualifiers given their particular historical context. It is important in instruction, that students are assisted in seeing the essential definition of the concept, but also the way the idea is manifested over time and geographical space (Berti, 1992).
- In contemporary analyses of social studies/history texts, researchers have found very inadequate attention to the purposeful development

of conceptual knowledge. In most cases, terms are used without any attention given to definitions or examples or non-examples (Beck and McKeown, 1988; Berti, 1992).

• Many social science concepts are abstract, relational in their definitions, and often demand the knowledge of embedded prior concepts; these are difficult to learn. Yet, little purposeful instruction is conducted on these concepts (Armento, 1978).

The phenomenon of concept learning is one of the best-researched areas in psychology; the wealth of this knowledge could easily be brought to bear on the development of more powerful instructional materials and more effective teacher behavior.

Closing Notes

• Cognitive psychology offers new ways of conceptualizing the learning of history and new ways of conducting research on the learning and teaching of history.

• Learning history has many aspects, such as learning the embedded social science conceptual knowledge or learning from narrative text. Some of these areas are well-researched (by reading researchers, for example) and this knoweldge should be applicable to the learning of history.

• In addition, selected contemporary researchers (especially those at the University of Pittsburgh at the Learning Research and Development Center, are conducting cutting edge research applying cognitive perspective to the learning of history.

• Principles for the development of coherent and considerate text as well as for sound concept development are well esteblished and should be addressed and applied by all curriculum writers.

• There is much to be known; however, we know more about the teaching and learning of history than we are using in the training of teachers or in the development of curriculum.

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THEIR FUTURE DID NOT WORK--WILL OURS?
Thoughts on American Political History in the Wake of the Cold War

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"I have seen the future and it works." *Lincoln Steffens, American journalist visiting Communist Russia in 1919.*

In the winter of 1918-1919 President Woodrow Wilson sent a group of Americans headed by diplomat William C. Bullitt to evaluate the situation in Russia. World War I had ended. The Russian Revolution was in progress. Lenin and the Bolsheviks were taking control of what would become the Soviet Union. Lincoln Steffens, one of America's leading journalists, was a member of that commission. He is remembered as one of the "Muckrakers," reform-minded investigative journalists active in the U. S. before the war. By the time of his visit to Lenin, Steffens had become convinced that the U. S. system based on democracy and capitalism was failing, and that a revolutionary change was essential to bring economic and social justice to an industrialized society. He believed that the Russian Revolution was the herald of that world-wide change. So confident was he that this was the case that he could write "I have seen the future and it works" even before he had arrived in Russia to visit Lenin. In the years after that, his statement of hope as if it were fact became a famous tribute to the Soviet experiment. Many American intellectuals came to agree with Steffens that the U. S. system would eventually be replaced by socialism. The American writer Justin Kaplan in his biography **Lincoln Steffens** provides an example of this attitude: "From a distance of twenty years and more, . . .(Steffens') recollection was colored *by his knowledge that history had proved to be on Lenin's side, . . .*" (p. 221, italics added) Kaplan's work was published in 1974. Recent events have demonstrated the error of Steffens and Kaplan and the many who agreed with them.

The recent changes in Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union have astonished the world. The end of the Cold War, an event that we had not expected in our lifetime, has taken place. Suddenly the global confrontation of East and West has disappeared, and the structure of international relations has completely changed. Americans are confronted with the complexities of a multi-polar world. The hoped-for new world order seems for now to be the old world disorder. Has fear been the principal source of national unity since World War II? Does that mean that unleashed internal disunion--cultural animosities and excessive individualism --is the outcome of the end of the Cold War? These global uncertainties have so preoccupied Americans that they have given little thought to the fact that the collapse of Communism will also have a significant impact upon democracy itself and upon the way we see the 20th century history of our own country. In the years ahead, all teachers of American history and American government will need to evaluate their teaching in light of these epochal changes.

I. DEMOCRACY TESTED

At first glance the collapse of the Soviet Empire in 1989 led to an assumption that the road ahead is clear for democracy. In fact the reverse is true. Democracy faces what is probably its most critical test. Contrary to the expectations of Lincoln Steffens and so many of his fellow intellectuals, socialism, the future that they envisioned, did not work. Advocates of democracy around the world are confident that democracy will work. While democracy may well offer the best hope for people emerging from the failure of Communism, the success of democracy is far from guaranteed. Complicated political, economic and social problems will not be solved automatically. Democracy is an historical process, not an instant transformation. The American democratic experiment has lasted for over 200 years, but that fact should not lead to a false sense of security. Contrary to the expectations of Lincoln Steffens, his future did not work. We Americans need to ask ourselves: What about the future of American democracy? Will it work?

In their attempt to establish democracy, many people of the former Communist countries look to the United States for guidance. In order for us to give them advice, we must review our own experience. The current need for such a review provides a tremendous classroom opportunity. For students and teachers alike the relevance of democracy is being dramatized. Just what is democracy? To what extent is the United States an example of what democracy should be? What is the record, what is the history of American de-

mocracy? The purpose of history is neither to justify nor to glorify the past but simply to try to understand it. A realistic look at American democracy in action is what is needed, both for Americans and for those who seek our advice. This process might be called "Job Training for Citizenship."

The process of democracy is one of trying to learn from mistakes; its basic rule: "keep trying and never give up." In the words of American historian W. E. B. Du Bois, "The theory of democracy is not that the will of the people is always right, but rather that normal human beings of average intelligence will, if given the chance, learn the right and best course by bitter experience." (**American Historical Review**, XV [1910], p. 791, quoted in **The American Spirit** by Thomas A. Bailey, D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, 1968, p. 471) Du Bois saw clearly the purpose of freedom. That purpose is not simply to enable individuals to search for private personal fulfillment but also to enable them to participate, through trial and error, in the struggle for progress. If people do not understand this essentially experimental nature of the democratic process, disappointment will almost certainly lead to disillusionment and a sense of failure. In such situations, people are tempted to give power to someone who "knows what he is doing" and let "the great leader" solve the problems. The view of Italian Fascist dictator Mussolini was that "the people do not want to rule, but to be ruled and left in peace." As events unfold we will have a chance to see which of these two diametrically opposed views is correct.

If we Americans want to help the people emerging from Communism, we should first look at ourselves. How well is democracy working in the United States? How well is it understood? Americans are so proud of a system which has endured for two centuries that they fail to realize that the answer to the question "Will the American system last the next 200 years?" depends more on what we know and do today than upon the knowledge and actions of the Framers of the Constitution at the close of the 18th century. They did their part. Will we do ours? In our satisfaction that Communism failed, it is important for us to remember that final outcomes are not determined by what we want but by what we are willing to work for. In our emphasis on the Bill of Rights, can we keep in mind the body of the Constitution which precedes them, the part upon which those rights depend, the part which might be called the Bill of Responsibilities.

We Americans tend to pay lip service to democracy while ignoring such fundamentals as participation in elections, the key element of the democratic process. In the United States today fewer than half of those eligible to vote actually register to do so. And of those registered, usually fewer than half vote. These are the approximate numbers for General Elections. In Primary Elections for the selection of nominees, the turnout is even lower. Large numbers of people have little enthusiasm for the candidates who run for public office, yet they refuse to participate in the process by which they are selected. People will say they "believe" in democracy, but they hold in contempt the political process which is at its heart. It makes no sense to love democracy and hate politics, its essential mechanism. Americans do not seem to grasp the fact that the word "politics" and the word "policy" are intimately related. Politics in a democracy requires that the people participate in the determination of public policy. In a democracy the people play a key role in deciding what to do. When people do not play that role, when they in fact have contempt for it, how can their nation be truly a democracy, no matter how admirable its political structure? Americans tend to revere their Constitution. What value is there in reverence when we fail to carry out the responsibilities assigned to us in that document?

Democracy is a continuous process of experimentation. The future is unknown. The present is never completely clear. Even the past has not necessarily given up all its secrets. The people of a democracy always find themselves in the midst of uncertainties like these. Political power in a democracy is supposed to be exercised by the people on themselves. In the Communist experiment, government had total power; the people had none. That is the basic reason that it failed. The central theory of the Marxists has been the dictatorship of the proletariat: government must have unlimited power in order to be able to impose and enforce a utopia for the people. Communism failed. One of the truths it illustrated is Lord Acton's famous aphorism: "Power tends to corrupt. Absolute power corrupts absolutely."

The failure of Communism does not mean that democracy will automatically succeed. Not only is it true that a government with too much power will not work, there is a real danger that government with too little power will not work either. In 1933 George Bernard Shaw made the following comment: "When you came to examine the American Constitution, you found that it was not really a constitution, but a Charter of Anarchism. It is

not an instrument of government; it is a guarantee to the whole American nation that it never should be governed at all. And that is exactly what the Americans wanted." **(The U. S. Constitution Bicentennial, A "We the People" Resource Book,** The American Bar Association and the American Library Association, Chicago 1987, p. 42) We Americans often blame government for failure to solve our problems, implying that the government does not represent us. Perhaps the problem is that it does. Where limitless diversity in public attitudes is a cherished right, it is very difficult for a government which reflects that diversity to resolve its differences sufficiently to take decisive action. How can democratic government in the United States form a problem-solving consensus unless the people it represents develop a consensus themselves? How can such a public consensus evolve without widespread study of the problems and participation in the search for possible solutions?

SEPARATION OF POWERS

One of the most cherished institutions in American democracy is the separation of powers. There is no question that there is great value in this watchdog system, where each of the three branches of government can keep watch on the other two. But this is only part of the theory. The founders of our political system saw that an excess of governmental power is a great danger to human freedom. The Fascist and Communist governments of our time have demonstrated the accuracy of that perception. And yet there is a critical difference between a government of limited powers, subject to popular control, and a government paralyzed by structural gridlock. The Founders in their desire to guard us from the excessive power of government may have laid the foundation for just such a gridlock. To protect the people from the excessive political power they created a governmental structure which had the effect of hobbling government. That structure included a Chief Executive whose powers are limited, required continually to confront an independent Congress which is itself divided into two competing houses. With a government of such limited powers, the Framers sought to enable the largely self-sustaining people of their agrarian society to be relatively free from governmental interference. The agrarian society in which the Founders lived no longer exists in the United States. In the industrial society of the 20th century, the fact that government is hobbled does not guarantee that the people will be free. The Founders did not foresee that in an industrial society concentrations of economic power can also threaten freedom. In the simpler economy of an agrarian society, the majority of the people are economically independent. In an industrial society, they are economically interdependent. The Communist attempt to solve this problem has failed. The problem remains. Since it is unlikely that we will undertake structural reform to eliminate the problems created by the separation of powers, it is essential for us to understand the problems inherent in the separation of powers and seek ways in which to try to overcome these problems through more effective communication and coordination. That is what President Woodrow Wilson was doing when he addressed both houses of the Congress, the first President to do so since Washington.

II. LOOKING BACK FROM BEYOND THE COLD WAR

The collapse of Communism may well require us to revise many of our traditional interpretations of 20th-century American history. Much of that tradition has been based on assumptions about capitalism, socialism, right and left, conservative and liberal. In the light of what has happened what do these terms mean today? Constant reinterpretation is basic to our understanding of human experience. As events retreat ever farther into the past, emotional involvement in them recedes and people are able to evaluate them and understand them more dispassionately. In addition to increased detachment, knowledge that contemporaries did not have is often acquired. We now have information which Steffens could not have known when he died in 1936. What was the future for him is part of the past for us. As we look back from beyond the Cold War, our past will look different to us now that the Berlin Wall has come down.

As the 19th century drew to a close it seemed clear to many Americans that our political system was not meeting the needs of a rapidly changing industrial society. Concentrations of wealth were subverting our political system to meet the needs of those with economic power, enabling them to exploit the people and limit their freedom. To many intellectuals like Lincoln Steffens, the American system did not work. Some other system would have to be found. For him and many others the answer seemed to be Marxism. That was what was in Steffens' mind on that fateful trip to Lenin in 1919 when he wrote the words "I have

seen the future and it works." For him American democracy had failed. In Marxism/Leninism he saw the wave of the future. It did not work out that way.

Observers of the first Russian Revolution thought they knew what the outcome would be. Observers of the present Russian upheaval should not make the same mistake. Because much of the history of the 20th century has been written against the assumption that ". . .history had proved to be on Lenin's side, . . ." (from Kaplan's biography of Steffens quoted earlier) it is vital to see where erroneous conclusions may have followed from those assumptions. Upheavals always create uncertainties about the future. This one also creates uncertainties about the past.

IDEOLOGY

If democracy is to succeed, if its future is to work, it will be because the American people have come to grips with the unfolding panorama of historical process. That process reveals that freedom is not an end. It is a beginning, an opportunity to look for solutions to problems. Advocates of democracy have long held that the inherent nature of change means that if problems are to be solved, freedom to respond to them is essential. To be successful those responses should be shaped by shared hopes for a better future. When those hopes are forced into a rigid blueprint for the achievement of that future, they have become an ideology. Because ideologues approach problems with preconceived ideas of what the future will hold, they threaten the existence of democracy, which depends upon open minds. Flexibility is essential in order to deal effectively with change. By tending to restrict freedom, ideology limits capacity for solving problems.

Especially in times of rapid and unpredictable change, a flexible pragmatism is the vital perspective for research in all the human studies. One of the most serious problems faced today in Western scholarship is that because Marxist assumptions seemed so convincing for so many for so long, it will not be easy to sort out Marx's valid assessment of economic and social injustice in the 19th century from the error of the authoritarian means which Marxists advocated. Authoritarianism will not work because it sees its primary function as the preservation of its own power. It seeks to control the nature of change, when in fact its rigidity prevents successful response to change.

We Americans can learn much from the failure of Communism. For example, one of the principles that the Communist experience emphasize is the counterproductive nature of violent revolution. Far from accelerating progressive change, the Russian revolution put the brakes on it. It imposed an authoritarianism which was so self-serving and inflexible as to make it virtually paralyzed. Now that the Communist structure seems to be finally disappearing, many of the serious problems which existed before it began are revealed to be still in place. They had been hidden by the Communist curtain. Perhaps the most obvious example of this deadly static condition can be found today in the Balkan Peninsula where the Communist regime was expected by its advocates to integrate divergent ethnic groups. The bitter, age-old divisions that existed prior to Communism are still there. Marxism failed to heal them. If they are to be healed, some other approach must be taken.

In the immediate post-Cold War era, it is a good time for both those who think of themselves as liberals and those who think of themselves as conservatives to take stock of where they have been and where they are heading. Recent events have combined to reveal that the political assumptions which have dominated them for more than a century are now obsolete. Such a review will certainly take note of the ideological bankruptcy of the left since the sordid reality of implemented Marxism has been opened for all to see. In that sense the right has triumphed. But a deeper inquiry into our conventional concepts of political ideology reveals the equivalent emptiness on the right.

Over the years, the grip of the Communists on the countries behind the Iron Curtain took on an aura of permanence. During all that time the defeat of Communism became the primary objective of self-styled conservatives. Suddenly their objective, which had seemed almost beyond reach, has become a reality. Anti-Communism can no longer sustain a broad political movement. What will the objective of self-styled conservatives be now that Communism has been revealed as a failure? For far too long we have confined our options to what we think of as liberalism and conservatism. If one of these failed, we would tend to think that the only alternative was the other. Since both are now in question, the time has come to search for more accurate alternatives.

MUNN V. ILLINOIS

In the United States, the basis of government activism in economic matters is not found in

Marxism. At least in part it is found in the English common law and the principles of constitutional government. In *Munn v. Illinois* (1877) Chief Justice Morrison Waite of the United States Supreme Court upheld the majority opinion that government regulation of railroad rates is constitutional. In that case such regulation was determined to be an appropriate exercise of the inherent power of government in the United States to protect the safety, health, and general welfare of the community.

Waite, who had been appointed Chief Justice in 1874 by President Grant, stated in part : "When one becomes a member of society, he necessarily parts with some rights or privileges which, as an individual not affected by his relations with others, he might retain. 'A body politic,' as aptly defined in the preamble of the constitution of Massachusetts, 'is a social compact by which the whole people covenants with each citizen, and each citizen with the whole people that all shall be governed by certain laws for the common good.' This does not confer power upon the whole people to control rights which are purely and exclusively private; but it does authorize the establishment of laws requiring each citizen to so conduct himself, and so use his own property, as not unnecessarily to injure another. . . .When private property is devoted to a public use, it is subject to public regulation."

THE PROGRESSIVE ERA

Excessive individualism is destructive of democracy. It makes the development of common ideals and common efforts impossible. A sense of community and shared values inherited from the 19th century made possible the reforms of the Progressive Era in the opening of the 20th. They were based on the same principles as those spelled by Chief Justice Waite in *Munn v. Illinois*, repeated here for emphasis: "When one becomes a member of society, he necessarily parts with some rights or privileges which, as an individual not affected by his relations with others, he might retain." Looking back on the Progressive Era from beyond the Cold War may provide as useful a model for reform at the end of the 20th century as it was at its beginning.

There was intense controversy over economic injustice in the industrial society in the second half of the 19th century. On what was called the extreme left was the idea that revolution would inevitably bring the dictatorship of the proletariat to force economic justice and democracy upon the industrial society. On the opposite extreme, the primary focus was upon the struggle against the left. Lacking in positive ideas as to how to solve the problems of the industrialized society, committed in fact to the idea that those problems would solve themselves, the so called right devoted its effort to the defeat of the so called left. Before World War I, American Progressivism rejected both views. Progressivism was not a political party. It was a political movement supported by a majority of the American people, a response to the problems of industrialization within the context of American democracy. Under the leadership of Presidents Theodore Roosevelt and Woodrow Wilson and such state governors as Hiram Johnson of California and Robert La Follette of Wisconsin, Americans began to develop a mechanism for resolution of the major political and economic problems of our industrialized democracy.

In 1914 World War I diverted attention from this vital effort. Except for the brief, Depression-related experimentation of the New Deal, we have not yet picked up where we left off. The leaders of the American Progressive movement had come to understand that we would have to use Hamiltonian means to achieve Jeffersonian ends. In the traditional interpretation of the major political controversy of the 1790's it has been thought that these views were opposites. In our classrooms students still get the idea that Jefferson (the good guy), the champion of individual rights and Hamilton (the bad guy), the advocate of active government, were on opposite ends of the spectrum. American Progressives saw that in an industrialized America they are allies: an active government is necessary in order to safeguard individual liberty. The result was an attempt to work out a balance between the need for freedom and the need for economic development, a recognition of the need to preserve and enhance the dynamic, creative economic force of a free-enterprise economy and at the same time shape that enterprise in the interest of economic justice.

Three examples illustrate American Progressivism in action: Pure Food and Drug Laws, Public Utilities Commissions, and the Federal Reserve Board. As our industrial economy expanded to the national market, the distance between producer and consumer increased to a point where individual consumers could no longer check on the methods of production. Upton Sinclair, one of Steffens' fellow Muckrakers (and fellow socialists) illustrated this in **The Jungle** (1906). Sinclair revealed in sickening detail the horrors of the American meat industry. In earlier days of local pro-

duction for local consumption people could see and smell the cleanliness and sanitation (or lack thereof) of their neighborhood butcher. Butchers who sold bad meat were easily held accountable. In a national market economy the direct control of producers by their customers could not take place. Government regulation was needed. In a national market economy, that regulation would have to come from the national government. In 1906 the the Pure Food and Drug Act and the Meat Inspection Act became law.

With the development of public utilities for the production and distribution of gas and electricity for lighting and heating, the problem of fair pricing emerged. These were basic needs which the householder had to have. In most areas there was no competition for these services, so the consumer was at the mercy of the producer. Progressives confronted this problem at the state level. The action in California is an example. The state legislature was found to be an ineffective agency for dealing with this problem. Legislative response to consumers would fix prices so low that production could not be financed. If the political response was to the producers, prices would be set unfairly high. The answer to the problem was a Public Utilities Commission which had the power to evaluate the needs of producers and the needs of consumers in a quasi-judicial setting and thus set prices which would be fair to both sides.

As the national market economy expanded after the Civil War, a reliable money supply was needed both for a functioning economy and for economic growth. In its simplest form, the controversy was between creditors and debtors. Creditors wanted the value of the currency to be maintained at a high level (the Gold Standard) in order to safeguard the money they had loaned. Debtors wanted the currency devalued (Free Silver) in order to reduce their debt load. Over many years the efforts of the direct political process in the Congress failed to solve this problem. In 1913 the Federal Reserve Board was established to monitor the system of credit in much the same way that Public Utilities Commissions established fair prices for heating and lighting: a quasi-judicial process which attempts to respond to evolving conditions and economic justice.

Both ends of the political spectrum were wrong about Progressivism. Liberals thought it was not enough government control; conservatives thought it was too much. The Progressive Era illustrated the possibility that in a democracy with a free enterprise system, government intervention in the interest of economic justice is not "socialism" and therefore it is not "socialistic." In the years after the turn of the century, American Progressives, both Republican and Democrat, were engaging in a pioneer effort to balance the need for freedom and the need for economic justice in an industrialized democracy.

REAGAN ECONOMICS

The election of Ronald Reagan in 1980 was seen by those who thought of themselves as conservatives as a triumph of their political and economic values. One of the most important of conservative values had always been thought to be prudent financial policy. Opposition to the "tax and spend" policies they attributed to their opponents was a central rallying cry of their campaigns. Who could have imagined that an administration calling itself conservative would engage in a massive program of "borrow and spend?" Under the eight years of the Reagan's presidency the United States more than doubled its national debt--more debt in eight years than in the previous 200. American conservatives were so devoted to what they thought of as the "free enterprise system" that they opposed government interference in that freedom. "Government is not the solution. Government is the problem" was a frequently-heard slogan. "Get the government off our backs and out of our pockets" was also a recurring refrain. Out of that attitude came the scandal of the Savings and Loan institutions in the United States, bequeathing another legacy of debt to Reagan's successors. Public confidence in the Savings and Loan system was based on the fact that deposits were insured by the Federal government (a legacy of the New Deal). Policies of reduced and ineffective regulation under Reagan economics encouraged many Savings and Loan managers to take unwise investment risks, confident that if those investments failed, the U. S. government, i. e. the U. S. taxpayer, would pay the bill. The conservatives had been confident that a return to the unrestrained capitalism of the 19th century would produce widespread prosperity. Instead they helped to produce a United States so burdened with debt that its economic development may be severely stunted indefinitely. Many Americans had been led to believe that a return to the capitalistic dreams of a century ago would lead us to prosperity. They were sold the idea that taxes could be cut and at the same time government expenditures for defense could be massively increased and that the result of these two moves would wipe out the deficit and reduce the

national debt. The results are now evident.

The Reagan presidency is an example of another troubling reality of democracy. Ronald Reagan was a popular candidate and a popular president. There is no question that he was the people's choice. Yet the consequences of the economic policies of his administration have been devastating. The effective functioning of American democracy depends upon the our ability to learn from our mistakes and to apply that learning to future political decisions.

Both the collapse of Communism and the failure of Reagan economics ought eventually to lead us to the conclusion that both Marxism and unrestrained capitalism are obsolete 19th century concepts. As the 20th century draws to a close, perhaps we can catch up to the political acumen we had almost a century ago when the Progressive Era began. That combination of political liberty and limited economic regulation was a system which was beginning to work when World War I diverted our attention away from domestic reform. Monuments to its achievement still serve the nation at both state and national levels.

The traditional political spectrum no longer means anything: "right" is not conservative, "left" is not liberal. And neither one works. Once we understand that, we ought to be able to look at our problems without ideological preconceptions. For problem solving, the pragmatic approach works best. Almost a century ago we called that approach American Progressivism.

REGULATING OURSELVES

The 20th century has been dominated by World War, its interim, and its aftermath. It is customary to speak of World War I and World War II. That cataclysm may be better understood as one World War with a twenty-year truce dividing its two parts. The consequences of the first part dominated us in that interim: a decade of fragile prosperity and isolationism called Normalcy, the collapse of the stockmarket ushering in the Great Depression and the New Deal. With Hitler's invasion of Poland in September 1939, World War resumed. The end of that war in 1945 was followed by some forty years of global stalemate called the Cold War in which the Soviet Union and the West faced off against each other, paralyzing both sides. Human experience is often better understood as a succession of eras rather than a numerical sequence of years. Looked at that way, the 20th century might be said to have begun in 1914, the end of the era of U. S. industrialization and the beginning of the era of global war. The global war era may now be behind us, perhaps as a result of economic exhaustion.

When war interfered in 1914 we were in the Progressive Era. Rejecting both socialism and unrestrained capitalism, we were having some success working out an effective relationship between the individual and government in an industrial democracy. It is time to re-examine that relationship in order to learn how it might best be developed and extended. As Chief Justice Waite emphasized, in the human community, the term "free" does not mean unrestrained. An important source of regulation is the interior restraint that individuals freely place upon themselves. Over the centuries individual human beings have found the source of that inner restraint in an awareness of shared experience, a deep sense that the life of each person is not simply a private matter but one that is involved with the lives of others.

Many years ago in an institute for history teachers at Stanford University, historian Arnold Toynbee emphasized that the roots of Western Civilization are in the Judeo/Christian tradition. "How can the tree continue to live and flourish," he asked, "if the roots are dead or dying?" This idea seems particularly relevant today. Exiled Soviet writer Alexander Solzhenitsyn, born in the Caucasus in December 1918 at about the same time that Lincoln Steffens was on his way to visit Lenin, recognized the relevance of that idea in his 1978 address to the Harvard commencement. After a penetrating analysis of both Soviet and American systems, he concluded:

"If humanism were right in declaring that man is born to be happy, he would not be born to die. Since his body is doomed to die, his task on earth evidently must be of a more spiritual nature. It cannot be unrestrained enjoyment of everyday life. It cannot be the search for the best ways to obtain material goods and then cheerfully get the most out of them. It has to be the fulfillment of a permanent earnest duty so that one's life journey may become an experience of moral growth, so that one may leave life a better human being than one started it. It is imperative to review the table of widespread human values. Its present incorrectness is astounding. It is not possible that assessment of the President's performance be reduced to the question of how much money one makes or of unlimited availability of gasoline. *Only voluntary inspired self-restraint can raise man above the world stream of materialism.*

"It would be retrogression to attach oneself today to the ossified formulas of the Enlightenment. Social dogmatism leaves us completely helpless in front of the trials of our times.

"Even if we are spared destruction by war, our lives will have to change if we want to save life from self-destruction. We cannot avoid revising the fundamental definitions of human life and human society. Is it true that man is above everything? Is there no Superior Spirit above him? Is it right that man's life and society's activities have to be determined by material expansion in the first place? Is it permissible to promote such expansion to the detriment of our spiritual integrity?

"If the world has not come to its end, it has approached a major turn in history, equal in importance to the turn from the Middle Ages to the Renaissance. It will exact from us a spiritual upsurge, we shall have to rise to a new height of vision, to a new level of life where our physical nature will not be cursed as in the Middle Ages, but, even more importantly, our spiritual being will not be trampled upon as in the Modern Era.

"This ascension will be similar to climbing onto the next anthropological stage. No one on earth has any other way left but upward." (italics added; **Harvard Gazette**, June 8, 1978)

CLOSING THOUGHTS

These are fascinating times in human affairs. For both teachers and students of American history, the responsibility is as great as is the fascination. The chance for a just, prosperous, and peaceful future depends upon how well we Americans understand democracy, how deeply we are committed to it, and how much we have learned from the American experience. "A people cannot at the same time be both ignorant and free." (attributed to Thomas Jefferson.)

[Author's Note: "The author invites correspondence. Application of historical principles to current events requires speculation. And speculation needs the sorting out that can only come with the exchange of ideas. The basic concept for this paper (originally entitled "The Future Did Not Work") was completed October 29, 1991. I note this here in order to emphasize the fact that the work was done before the era of Candidate/President Bill Clinton, who is an American Progressive. It may well be that much of his difficulty with the media lies in the fact that both liberals and conservatives have little understanding of centrist, pragmatic problem solvers. Ideologues tend to think that pragmatists are unprincipled, while problem solvers see that ideologues are both inflexible and ineffective. Let's write or talk about all this."]

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A History of A HISTORY OF US
Introduction of the Author by a Publisher

Byron Hollinshead
NCHE Trustee
President, American Historical Publications

I feel as if I've spent a good chunk of my life listening to historians--the opportunity to retaliate is almost too delicious to contemplate.

In fact I've had a wonderful time with some wonderful historians and I'd like to talk about this experience because I think it might help to illuminate our topic which is writing and publishing history for children.

I got into history publishing by accident and with limited qualifications. I was the humanities editor at Oxford University Press when the history editor retired back in the early 60s. Times were tough and it was decided by the powers-that-be that since Oxford was doing very little history publishing on this side of the Atlantic I would be the caretaker of the list. I had taken a survey course in American history at Princeton which I found such a turn off--my fault I'm sure--that I never took another course in a department which included such stars as Professors Craig, Harbison, Strayer, Goldman, and the legendary Buzzer Hall. Much to my later regret. I did take a marvelous history course in the Politics department--Alpheus Mason's American Political Thought--and I later became his editor for a revised version of **Free Government in the Making**, the book that derived from the course and is one of the great American anthologies.

It's hard to believe in view of Oxford, New York's present distinction in the field but in the early 60s the only book of importance on the New York list was Morison and Commager's 2 volume **Growth of the American Republic**, a college textbook grown from Morison's **Oxford History of the United States** which after a stint as a Harmsworth Professor he wrote for Oxford students whom he found abysmally ignorant of American history (some might say happily ignorant). The **GAR** had not been revised for eleven years because Morison and Commager were no longer speaking to each other, but I didn't know enough at the time to be daunted by these towering figures, so with no idea of what I was getting into, I went off to Boston first and then to Amherst. Surprisingly each agreed to cooperate and we solved the communication problem by Morison's taking sole responsibility for Volume I, with the exception of the Civil War which went to Commager, and Commager taking Volume II, except for World War II which was assigned to the Admiral. Morison finished his part on time and even took account of some of the many comments and suggestions I had fed to him from various readers. Commager got the Civil War done which allowed us to go ahead with Vol. I, but that was it. Despite letters, phone calls and offers to help I was unable to get a manuscript from Amherst. Finally I appealed to Morison who on January 22nd, 1962, wrote the following letter to his estranged collaborator:

Quo usque tandem abutere, Felix, patentia nostra? Quam diu etiam procrastinatio tua nos eludet? Nihilne te furor officinae typographinae Oxoniae, nihil afflicatio socii tui Samuelis, nihil anxietas bonorum omnium magistrum atque discipulorum moverunt?

In other words, when, where and if will editio quinto of the well-known work, Progressus Rei Publicae Americanae, be finished? Deadline after deadline has been passed. Volume I is out, printed, in circulation, but it will be but feeble support for our old age without its twin, Volume II. The latter can never now be out this coming springtime; will it even appear when the autumn leaves fall at Vallambrosa? Our competitors advance apace. The faith of our adopters is almost shattered. Please do something, at once; and stay put until all is done!

Commager's manuscript arrived in a couple of months.

Morison was a great narrative historian. He was also a terrific editor of his own material. He normally did at least three drafts--the first draft was typed triple spaced with each line running only halfway across the page so as to accommodate revisions and additions. He was very responsive to a certain kind of outside editorial work: suggestions, requests for clarification, pointing out apparent inconsistencies. He was also grateful for careful copyediting. He wasn't at all interested in having an editor do any rewriting and at the stage of his career when I knew him no editor would have been foolish enough to try.

The best edition of the **GAR** was the 6th which was revised by Bill Leuchtenburg. With consummate skill, Bill incorporated the comments of a number of critical readers, respected the style and approach of the original authors but truly put

his own stamp on the books. I don't know of another historian who has Bill's ability to pack so much information and critical insight into a compelling narrative presentation.

I worked with some other fine historians at Oxford: Chester Starr, whose **History of the Ancient World** was not only a leading textbook but a main selection of the History Book Club. Chester later wanted to do an ancient history for high schools which we wound up publishing in three paperbacks: **Early Man, The Ancient Greeks** and **The Ancient Romans** because the market wasn't big enough for a school publisher. Aimed at the 9th grade level, the first adoption for the three books came from Stanford. I told this to a fellow editor, Jim Guiher at Prentice Hall and he said: "You know, I think you're on to something." I worked with Bill McNeill on two books and anyone who knows Bill and his work understands what a mind stretching experience that was. And I worked with Nicholas Riasanovsky on his **History of Russia** which is now in its sixth edition. With these projects and a lot of others I had become completely absorbed in history and, in fact, managed to hive off some of my other subject responsibilities, though, at the same time, acquiring administrative duties that finally did me in as an editor.

My most exciting project at OUP was the multi volume **Oxford History of the United States** under the editorship of Dick Hofstadter and Vann Woodward. Dick agreed to be a general editor if Vann would join him and Vann agreed because of his admiration and friendship with Dick. Our process in both the planning of the series and assigning authors was to read the books of prospective candidates for each volume and then discuss them. I remember thinking how amazing it was for me to be getting paid to discuss current scholarship in American history with Richard Hofstadter and Vann Woodward--an experience beyond a graduate student's wildest dreams. Of course I wasn't getting paid very much.

Vann is one of the most thoughtful people I know. I really liked his recent book **Thinking Back** in which he reviews his previous books and reaction to them from others and his own second thoughts on the material. A very difficult task and totally I believe successful.

When I left Oxford and became president of **American Heritage**, one of my first acts was to persuade David McCullough to be chairman of our Editorial Advisory Board. David and I had been good friends for years. He worked at **American Heritage** before the flood (that's his book **The Johnstown Flood**) and he was and is one of the great practitioners of narrative history which he combines with prodigious research. We put together an active and wonderful editorial board--along with David, we had Jack Garraty, Alan Brinkley, Paul Nagel, Dan Aaron, Jean Strouse, Bill Leuchtenburg and Byron Dobell, the editor. We discussed lots of ideas for articles, but for Byron Dobell and me the signal to pursue a subject came when McCullough said "That's a great story." A great story. I hadn't thought about that much at Oxford--at least not consciously--but that, of course, is the key element in publishing history for a general reader.

So how does this experience with a lot of different historians relate to Joy Hakim and her history of US. Well, there is a direct connection since it was Paul Nagel who put me in touch with Joy but it is much more than that. **A History of US** is by far the most interesting project I've ever been involved with and Joy Hakim combines many, probably all, of the qualities of my favorite historians. She's an indefatigable researcher and like many of our best historians she loves to do her research on site. She has a marvelous ability to make imaginative connections, she's always thinking, and she involves the reader in her thought processes. She's grateful for intelligent criticism, completely open to suggestions and she has that ability that only the best writers have of turning a good suggestion into a better result. And she adds a special gift which is the ability to write for children so that they are engaged and challenged to think about what they are reading while enjoying every minute of it. It's a writer's equivalent to perfect pitch. She guards this gift with passion and conviction and woe be unto the editor who tries to homogenize her material by the application of word lists, prescribed lengths for sentences, for chapters, the maximum number of pages or other pseudo educational or market formulae. There's a terrific description of good children's writers that appeared in the New Yorker--written by Jean Stafford some years ago when she was their regular reviewer of children's books.

"Writers of books intended to be read by children can be placed in two general categories. There are those who took childhood seriously as they lived through it and respected themselves as children, so as adults they can remember the early ways they took through experience.

"Some of these ways were plain and sunlit, and some were harsh and tangled and ominous, but all of them, travelled for the first time, were surprising and important. These writers re-

member how they collected and inspected information and why they were gluttonous for certain kinds and stupefied by others. Above all, they remember the books that pleased them and the writers whose worlds they could inhabit with full franchise and without embarrassment. As children, they were devout and incessant readers....They savored unexpected words like truncheon and blunderbuss, cohort and constable, samite, brougham, comfit, curmudgeon. They can recall the emotion of childhood and the sensations, the cabals of it and the ethics. Childhood is not a tolerant time of life, but it is governed by a rather grand and reckless integrity: the child goes headlong to the root of the matter--if he is not deflected--although he has not yet discovered the heart of it. This first group of writers maintain a tact, a courtliness of address to their audience, no matter how colloquial or extravagant or absurd or soberly instructive the performance may be. They are good writers.

"The others are bad. They seem to have gone through childhood so swiftly and heedlessly that they had no time to master the rules of the language (which cannot be picked up later on) or to record the weathers and landscapes of their Hells and Utopias."

If Joy Hakim is such a wonderful writer, which she is, and such a gifted historian, which she is, how come all the difficulty getting her books published? That story tells us a lot about what's wrong with history education and with educational publishing. I'll hit some highlights. A full recounting would take weeks.

Paul Nagel called me about four years ago and told me that a friend had written some very good history books for children, was having trouble getting them published and could I help. There were two good reasons to decline: I was then publishing two magazines, **Americana** and **MHQ**, but no books--having departed **American Heritage** after the landing of Malcolm Forbes's yacht--and second I had no experience with children's books. But Paul is an old friend so I said sure, ask her to send some material and I'll suggest some possible publishers. A week later a large carton arrived with the complete manuscripts of five books--the first five in Joy Hakim's **A History of US**. Then the same day a phone call from Joy. Had the manuscripts arrived? And what did I think of them? I told her they just got here that morning and since I was involved in one or two other things I hadn't had a chance to look at them yet. She seemed nice on the phone but I did get a sense of persistence. The next day I opened the box and, sure enough, the total manuscript was approximately eighteen inches high. On top of that it had been produced on one of those awful dot-matrix printers which made it even more uninviting. Muttering a few words about historians and their friends I figured what the heck, I'll dip into it in a couple of places and try to think of someone to ship it off to. So that evening I picked up the introduction to the first volume. Three days later I had finished reading all five manuscripts--totally enthralled by what I had read and more than somewhat embarrassed and surprised by how much I had learned. I called a good friend who was the CEO of a major educational publisher with a so-called innovative publishing division. Don, I said, you will be indebted to me for the rest of your life. I'm sending you a project for your innovative publishing division which is marvelous--publish it as soon as possible. After six months of deliberations and several enthusiastic readers' reports they rejected the books as too innovative.

I tried a large publisher with a strong trade and children's program and a large and prosperous school division, sending it to a friend who was Executive VP who read some of the manuscript and liked it a lot. This time the same reaction as Joy had been getting from others--the school department said it was too lively and "reads like a trade book." The trade department said it was too educational and one or two editors had some minor nits to pick.

Off to another large publisher, this time through the retired CEO who was still active on the board and with the strong support of another board member--a prominent educator who happens to be in the audience. It was assigned to an editor who loved it. Sailed through the review process, only to be derailed because one reviewer who scanned the table of contents said it appeared that there wasn't enough coverage of blacks and women. (There is, in fact, a lot, and it's marvelous.)

I then tried a smaller school publisher who really liked the material but declined because they had recently been bloodied by a variety of interest groups who attacked their eighth grade American history text. At this point Joy said she was running out of money, thought she better find a job and give up trying to finish the last four books.

By now I was as obsessed with the project as Joy was and determined that she should finish it and get it published. I talked to Roger Kennedy and Betty Sharpe at the National Museum of American History about collaborating on publishing the materials serially as a children's mag-

azine. With encouragement from Roger though no commitment I scraped up enough money to give Joy a good sized advance so she could finish the last four books.

Meanwhile we continued to look for a book publisher and finally hooked up with Oxford who had previously turned the project down.

And the rest is history--or is it? The books are going to be published and so is the children's magazine, **Past Times**, which will use the stories from **A History of US** and those of other writers and will be published in association with the Smithsonian. There have been rave reviews from historians: Bernie Weisberger, Jim McPherson, David Donald and others; from educators Chester Finn, Ernest Boyer, Diane Ravitch, Albert Shanker, Gilbert Sewall--several foundations have provided support. **The American Educator** did a great cover story with excerpts. Kids love the books. The teachers who have used the materials in class are enthusiastic. But kids don't buy books (which, by the way, is the by-word of educational publishing). Jim McPherson is unlikely to use these 5th grade books at Princeton (though we could be surprised) and Ernest Boyer does not control a large adoption at the Carnegie Foundation. Are all those publishers crazy who turned this project down? The answer is a definite maybe.

Most kids hate big textbooks. They are clunky, dull and uninviting, despite graphic presentations that rival MTV. But elementary school teachers, many of whom have little training in history, find textbooks reassuring, though teachers seem to be not much involved in textbook decisions. Furthermore, we discovered in doing some market research that even when American history is listed on the fifth grade curriculum it frequently isn't taught. Or as several teachers have told me--history is scheduled for the last period in the afternoon and the teacher never gets to it. Teachers and students in elementary school are held accountable mainly for reading skills and math skills. History certainly doesn't help math and unfortunately, because most history textbooks are not readable, it often doesn't help reading either.

Which gets me back to the question of the sanity of the publishers who declined this series. Obviously, I think they were wrong to turn the project down, though probably not crazy. I believe that the books will make a significant contribution to history education, will be a huge success and sooner, rather than later, but my guess is that, initially at least, they are going to be used mostly as readers and not as social studies textbooks. But then all the best history books at every level are readers. Parkman, Morison, Mattingly, McCullough. One teacher told me they would be good for "content reading." I'm thinking--let's see, this period we have content reading and next period "no content reading." I've also been told they fit the whole language approach--not suitable for the half language approach but good for whole language.

Still, there is no doubt that the series does represent a realization of many of the recommendations that have been made by reform groups and thoughtful individuals. They are what the Bradley Commission report called for--"engaging books with memorable content" that "tap the same vein of curiosity and imagination that popular culture exploits for commercial gain." Keiran Egan in several books and articles has stressed the link between the engagement of the imagination of young children and their capacity and desire to learn. One kid wrote "reading these books is like going on a tour with Mrs. Hakim as our tour leader." Another said "you can paint a picture in your mind about what's really happening" (a rather more eloquent version of George Steiner's definition of history as "exact imagining"). **A History of US** also works well with the so-called comer approach to school reform--the increased participation of parents in the schools and in their direct involvement with course materials. We've now had a number of parents who have read the books to and with their children and it's a real toss-up as to which age group is finding them more enjoyable.

There is a final point that I think gives this series an appeal for both children and adults. Without being unduly celebratory, **A History of US** constantly, even insistently, reminds us all of the possibilities inherent in the American democratic system and reminds us of the many people--famous and not so famous--who have strived and sacrificed to try to narrow the gap between the reality and the ideal of social justice for all.

It's a great story (as McCullough would say) and nobody tells it better than Joy Hakim.

ORGANIZING QUESTIONS FOR STANDARDS IN WORLD HISTORY

I. The Beginnings of Human Societies
II. Early Civilizations (to 1000 B. C.)
III. Systems of Society and Culture (1000 B.C. to A. D. 300)
IV. Interactions (A. D. 100 - 1200)
V. Emergence of the First Global Age (1200 - 1700)
VI. Forces That Shaped the Modern World (1600 - 1800)
VII. Patterns of Modernity in the 19th Century (1800 - 1900)
VIII. The Contemporary World (20th Century)

I. The Beginnings of Human Societies

The emphasis in this section is on the process by which homo sapiens acquired control of environmental resources and established settled life, rather than hominid evolution and the emergence of homo sapiens. The study of this period is intended to be the foundation for understanding the natural basis of human societies, the ecological context of human life, and the beginnings of humanity as a creator of culture.

1. How and where did human beings emerge?
2. When and why did some societies make the transition from hunter/gatherers to settled life?
3. What were the consequences of the different ways that peoples in different places used and controlled their food resources?
4. How did different peoples develop tools and technology, and what effects did these developments have?
5. What are the different instances of the Neolithic revolution as a process of human adaptation from hunting to a full metal-using economy?
6. How do we know and what are the problems of knowing?

II. Early Civilizations (to 1000 BCE)

Section II is structured to stimulate thinking about the transition from Neolithic cultures to the more complex social, economic and political structures characteristic of early civilizations. It is intended to develop an understanding of their geographical and environmental contexts, the relationship between agricultural development and the emergence of urban centers, and the creation of specialized social roles--priests, scribes, warriors, merchants, craftsmen, etc. In this section there is also the introduction of comparative analyses of societies, religions and systems of political control.

1. What is a civilization?
2. What were the first urban civilizations and where did they arise?
3. How did scale, political centralization and degree of interaction with other societies contribute to the development of early civilizations?
4. How did the non-urban societies, in which most people of the world lived, differ from the urban, and what were their characteristics and accomplishments?
5. What do we learn about the development of societies by comparison of the early civilizations?
6. How do we know?

III. Systems of Society and Culture (1000 BCE - 300 CE)

Section III introduces a systematic approach to the types of political systems that emerged from 1000 BCE to 300 CE, their forms of administration, their modes of expansion, the importance of population migration, and the impact of war and colonization. It also presents thematically those religious and cultural developments that transcended political boundaries in time and space during this period. The political ideas and religious beliefs highlighted in the thematic questions are those that were not only important in this period, but also had enduring effects on later historical development. An important theme is how different ideas of good government, justice, and individual morality were developed in the context of different cultural and political traditions. Art and literature are also thematically integrated with the discussion of social and political developments. Study of these systems of society and culture sets the stage for the later discussion of their interactions in subsequent epochs.

Emergence of Systems of State and Society

1. What types of states developed at this time?
2. How were these early states and societies administered and governed?
3. How did these early states and societies expand?
4. As states and societies grew, how did ideas of society and societal structure change?
5. As states grew, how did they organize and control economic activities?
6. How do we know?

Emergence of Systems of Thought, Belief and Art

1. How and why did religious systems arise and spread?
2. What were the origins of science and medicine?
3. How did different ideas of good government, justice and individual morality develop?
4. How were the values of these societies expressed in art and literature?
5. How do we know?

IV. Interactions (100 - 1200)

The thematic questions of Section IV present the

cultural, political and social history of several regions of the world introduced earlier, with an emphasis on how expanding trade and migration accelerated the spread of contacts and interactions between Europe, Asia and Africa. The rise of Islam, the expansion of Christianity, and the formation of medieval Europe after the fall of the Roman Empire, are integrated into the larger context of interactions among diverse cultural traditions. Study of the consolidation of distinctive features of Chinese society and thought during the Tang and Song dynasties establishes a foundation for understanding aspects of East Asian history studied in later periods. The questions on the early history of Japan, and the "Classical Age" of India, are similarly part of an intellectual base for comprehending later developments. A thematic treatment of kingdoms in Africa links themes introduced in Section III (African kin-based political systems) with later political and economic history.

1. What movements of people and cultures created new connections among the regions of the world?
2. How did the Islamic Caliphate arise, expand and build upon earlier traditions of religion and state?
3. How did a new social and cultural order emerge in Europe after the fall of the Western Roman Empire?
4. What were the characteristics and consequences of the flourishing of Tang and Song China?
5. How did the development of early Japan reflect interactions within East Asia?
6. What were the characteristics of Indian society and culture during the Classical Age?
7. What were the political, economic and cultural characteristics of African empires in this era?
8. How do we know?

V. Emergence of the First Global Age (1200 - 1700)

The focus in Section V is on the creation of the first "global age." Thematic questions cluster around the intensification of economic and cultural contacts by the creation and expansion of land-based empires, as well as maritime exploration and commerce. Within this interactive matrix, the questions also address the internal transformation of Europe during the period of the Renaissance and the Reformation, the growing importance of science, and the increasing conflicts between royal absolutism and constitutionalism. The theme of "globalization" is continued in the questions on the Americas, and the creation of the Atlantic slave trade.

1. What forces contributed to the expansion of regional economic systems into global systems during this period?
2. How did globalization occur through contacts by land?
3. How did globalization occur through contacts by sea?
4. What were the most important causes of Europe's internal transformation during this first global age?
5. How did the Americas change in the first global age?
6. What was the importance of Slavery, the Atlantic Slave Trade, and the "South Atlantic System" in the formation of the first global age?
7. How do we know?

VI. Forces that Shaped the Modern World (1600 - 1800)

The questions of Section VI are designed to provide a basis for understanding the emergence of forces that transformed the world -- the nation state system, capitalism, science, technology, wars, and revolutions. Also introduced are questions focusing on the cultural expression of different regions of the world, and the reciprocal relations between them. Selected features of the cultures of the Islamic world, India, Japan, and Europe highlight the thematic questions, to provide a base for understanding artistic and literary developments within these areas. Attention is also drawn to the cultural interactions of the 18th century by highlighting the European enthusiasm for Chinese art, porcelains, and gardens, and the Japanese enthusiasm for European culture and science (called "Dutch Learning").

1. How did early nation states emerge, and what were their effects?
2. How did capitalism, science, technology and the agricultural revolution transform economic and social relations?
3. How did revolutions, wars and overseas migrations change societies and international relations?
4. What were the cultural expressions of the different regions of the world, and what were the reciprocal relations among them?
5. How do we know?

VII. Patterns of Modernity in the 19th Century (1800 - 1900)

Section VII builds on the themes introduced in Section VI, but places greater stress on social and economic history, and the growing influence of various ideologies on politics. Questions relating to socialism, nationalism, racism, and imperialism, link ideas to political developments in Europe, Asia, Africa, and the Americas. Attention is also drawn to the spread of industrialization, reform movements, revolutions, national unification and independence movements. Questions focusing on the shift in the internal power relations of Europe, caused by the unification of Germany and Italy, and the strengthening of European imperialism in Asia and Africa, create a basis for understanding World War I, as well as many conflicts and problems treated in the final section, on the twentieth century.

1. What were the variant patterns of modernization in the nineteenth century?
2. What new ideologies became important in the nine-

teenth century, and what were their consequences?
3. How did human migrations and changes in population affect societies?
4. How did wars of national independence, wars of national unification, reform and revolution transform societies, national politics, and international relations?
5. How did imperialism transform the world?
6. How do we know?

VIII. The Contemporary World (20th Century)

The concluding questions on the contemporary world are designed to organize coherently the global changes stimulated by two world wars, and the decline or collapse of empires. Economic forces, revolutions, liberation movements, science, and technology are placed in a global context. The cluster of historical developments related to cultural identity, race, ethnicity, and gender are also globally organized. Finally, questions on elite and popular culture attempt to relate the arts to the history of the twentieth century world.

1. How has the nature of war changed in the 20th century, and what have been the causes and consequences of war in the various regions of the world?
2. What has been the nature of revolutions and national liberation movements in the twentieth century?
3. What were the dominant political, economic and social issues after world War II?
4. How have race, ethnicity, and gender affected political and social systems in various parts of the world?
5. How have economic forces, in conjunction with science and technology, shaped human societies and the global relations between them?
6. What are the problems, prospects and consequences of the relationship between global cultural forces and local cultural diversity?
7. How do we know?

Handout to accompany remarks on video by Elaine W. Reed (p.1 of 3)

Required in Grades 9-12 **U.S. History** **World History**

State	1987	1992	1987	1992
Alaska	0	0	0	0
Alabama	1	1	0	1
Arkansas	1	1.5	0	1 World History OR World Cultures
Arizona	1	1.5 Includes AZ History	0	1 World History/Geog
California	1	1	1	1
Colorado	1	1.5	1 World History/ Global Studies	1
Connecticut	1	Core Competencies include U. S. Hist. and Govt.	0	0
Delaware	1	1	0	0
Florida	1	1	1	2
Georgia	1 yr. Am. Hist. AND Govt.	1	1 yr. World History OR World Geography	1 yr. World History OR World Geography
Hawaii	1 yr. U. S. Hist. AND Govt.	1 yr. U. S. Hist. AND Govt.	1	1
Iowa	1	Outcomes-based; include U. S. Hist	0	Outcomes-based; include World Hist. and cultures
Idaho	1	1	0	1
Illinois	1	1	0	0
Indiana	1	1	0	0
Kansas	1	1	0	2 World History OR World Geography
Kentucky	1	1	0	1 World Civs. for College-bound only
Louisiana	1	1	1 yr. World Hist. OR Geog. OR Western Civs	1 yr. World Hist. OR Geog. OR Western Civs.
Massachusetts	1	1	0	0

= Gain = Loss

Handout to accompany remarks on video by Elaine W. Reed (p.2 of 3)

Required in Grades 9-12 **U.S. History** **World History**

State	1987	1992	1987	1992
Maryland	1	0	0	0
Maine	1	1	0	0
Michigan	0	0	0	0
Minnesota	1 yr. Am. STUDIES	1 yr. Am. STUDIES	0	0
Missouri	1	0	0	0
Mississippi	1	1	0	1
Montana	1	1 yr. U. S. Hist/ Psych/Soc	0	1 World History; 1 World Hist/Geog
North Carolina	1	1	0	1 World Hist OR World Geog OR World Cultures
North Dakota	1	1	1	1
Nebraska	0	1 yr. survey or 2 yrs. split chronologically.	0	0
New Hampshire	1	1 Nat'l. and State Hist. AND Govt.	0	1 World History OR Global Studies
New Jersey	2	2	1 yr. World History/ World Studies	1 World History/ World Cultures
New Mexico	1	1 yr. History-Geog. of U. S.	0	1 World Hist-Geog
Nevada	1	3 includes state history and govt.	0	0
New York	1 yr. History AND Govt.	1	2 Global Studies	2 Global Studies
Ohio	.5 yr.	.5 yr.	0	0
Oklahoma	1	Outcomes-based	.5 yr.	Outcomes-based
Oregon	1	1	1 Global Studies	1 Global Studies
Pennsylvania	1	0 U.S. offered, but no longer required	0	0

= Gain = Loss

Handout to accompany remarks on video by Elaine W. Reed (p.3 of 3)

Required in Grades 9-12	U.S. History		World History	
State	**1987**	**1992**	**1987**	**1992**
Rhode Island	1 History AND Govt	2 History AND Govt.	0	0
South Carolina	1	1	0	0
South Dakota	1	1	0	0
Tennessee	1	1	0	0
Texas	1	1	1 yr. World Hist. Studies OR World Geog. Studies	1 yr. World Hist. Studies OR World Geog. Studies
Utah	1 U. S. STUDIES OR A.P. American	1 U. S. STUDIES OR A.P. American	.5 yr. Ancient or Modern World Civ.	1 yr. WorldHistory Ancient thru Modern
Virginia	1	1	1 World History OR World Geography	1 World History OR World Geography
Vermont	1	1	1 World History OR Global Studies	1 World History OR Global Studies
Washington	1 yr. History AND Govt.	1 yr History AND Govt.	1 Yr. Contemp. World Hist, Geog and Problems	1 Yr. Contemp. World Hist, Geog and Problems
Wisconsin	1	1 or 2	1 World History OR World Geog	1 World Hist and Geog to 1700 OR
West Virginia	1	2 U. S. combined with World.	1 World Cultures	3 combined with U..S.
Wyoming	0	1	0	1 World History OR World Cultures

= Gain = Loss

Historic Alliance:
How We Made a $250,000 History Video for Less Than $2,000

George McDaniel
Executive Director
Drayton Hall

Whether we are historians, teachers, or museum educators, a question we always ask ourselves is: How is what we are teaching being received? What is actually being learned? The answer often remains a mystery, so we must be open to the possibility of alternatives to our intentions.

A story told me by a Civil War historian in Atlanta illustrates this. He swears it is true. It seems he was asked to give a tour to a visiting group of journalists of Kennesaw Mountain, a National Park Service site. Located about 20 miles north of Atlanta, the site marks an important battle in Sherman's campaign for Atlanta.

As my friend toured the grounds with the journalists, he explained the strategies and tactics of the Union and Confederate forces and detailed specific points of assault. At the tour's end, he asked if there were questions. Silence. He asked again. Finally, one of the journalists raised his hand and asked, " Could you please tell me why all the Civil War battles were fought at National Park Service sites?"

And in a flash of inspiration, he responded, "Because that's where all the cannons were."

So you never know. You should never assume that what you are teaching is being received and passed through filters of prior knowledge like your own.

In 1978 I met James Scribber in St. Mary's County, Maryland. He was born in 1878, the son of freed slaves. He was 100 years old. I was a graduate student in the history department of Duke University and was writing my dissertation on the traditional houses and material culture of African-American slaves, tenant farmers, and landowners in the South. I was there with James Scribber because of a variety of experiences. One was my experience as a teacher of history in high schools, in which I had encountered first hand the dearth of information about African-American history and the prevalence of the misguided interpretation of slavery as a more or less benign institution in textbooks, as described earlier by Leon Litwack in this conference. I was interested in trying to change that.

I was also there with James Scribber because of the professors in graduate school who had inspired and equipped me to pursue what I was most interested in studying, to follow my own star.

Last, I was there because of books I had read. I will cite four of particular influence. The first is **Pattern in Material Culture in the Eastern United States** by folklorist Henry Glassie, which, for me, had legitimized my interest in historical houses and artifacts as a serious scholarly exercise and given me my first comprehensive view of the field. The second is **A Little Commonwealth: Family Life in Plimoth Plantation** by John Demos, one of the first books I read that had taken historical houses and material culture as evidence to be used to answer specific questions in American history.

The third book is John Blassingame's **The Slave Community**, in which the illustrations of slave houses had sparked my curiosity to ask what slave houses were actually like. How were they constructed? By whom? How many rooms were there? How were they furnished? How was life lived in them? Might African traditions be apparent?

The fourth was the set of **Foxfire** books by the students of Eliot Wigginton in north Georgia. These books were the products of Wigginton's urging his high school students to go out in their Appalachian communities and interview elderly people about the ways of life and work they had known growing up. The students thereby learned about the history in their own back yard, then brought that back to their classrooms, and from it wrote magazines and books. I had asked myself, "Is there a way we can take students today, and go out in the field and learn about slavery, sharecropping, and other historical ways of life in the South?" Such subjects hardly appeared in museums, textbooks, and classrooms in the 1970s.

Thus, I was there to talk to James Scribber, to learn from somebody who had lived a century of history, who "had worn the shoe." Scribber had been born in Georgia, the son of recently emancipated slaves who, he said, had fled the violence in the state after the Civil War and had sought refuge in southern Maryland, the region south of Washington, D.C. I was in the region because I had received a fellowship from the Smithsonian Institution to do my research, and southern Maryland was rich in agricultural history.

People in the community had told me about Scribber because he knew first hand the life of a sharecropper. David McCullough spoke earlier about the importance of enabling students and readers to "see" what it was like actually to be there. I was there because I hoped Scribber could help me "see." He knew what it was like to live in a log house with a log chimney, with a dirt floor that was "like cement," with one room downstairs and another upstairs where children slept on quilts spread on the floor. He had lived in a house typical of those of thousands of families in the South, Black and white, up to the early 1900s. His family had cooked over an open hearth, not even a wood stove. Transportation, he said, had been by foot or by wagon or horseback -- no automobiles, no railroad travel for this sharecropper family. Communication was by word of mouth.

Interviews with him proved to be central to my dissertation and later to my book, **Hearth and Home: Preserving a People's Culture**, but the job market by then had taken me to Memphis. Meanwhile, Scribber continued to live into the early 1980s 200 yards from a school, yet not once did a teacher or a student visit him to learn of the history he knew. The plantation on which he had grown up was open to the public as a historic site, yet no one from it visited him to learn of life in one room log houses like the one still standing on exhibit there. When Scribber died, there was no retrieval of the history he knew.

But this loss was not so much the students' or the teachers' fault, because they had not received encouragement, much less instructions, for community field work in the curriculum materials they were given. No textbooks prompted them to look for history in their own backyard. Historians were not urging them to do so. The training of teachers, whether in undergraduate or graduate school or in staff development, did not promulgate such ideas.

No one urged students and teachers to look for connections between the history in their own backyard and that of the nation. Our question then is: How do we connect students to their history? How do we engage them? I would urge that we use the community resources that we have at hand as bridges to the history of our nation and the world. We should begin with what the students already know, with what they have experienced, what they have at hand.

In order to do so, we need to form alliances. We cannot do it alone. Teachers, historians, museum professionals, and community people need to work together.

I would like to add a word about museums and historic sites as educational resources, for they have been overlooked too often in this conference and by many historians. Betty Sharpe, deputy assistant director of public programs at the Smithsonian Institution, spoke earlier about the importance of historical museums as beyond-school "classrooms" for the teaching of history. They offer visitors direct encounters with real things from the past and reach millions of people. The annual attendance of the Smithsonian's National Museum of American History, for example, is five and a half million. The National Trust for Historic Preservation owns and operates 18 historic properties across the nation, attracting over 500,000 visitors annually. One of those properties, Drayton Hall, of which I am director, reaches about 60,000 a year through regular admissions and about 5,000 students for special hands-on programs on site.

History has assumed increasing economic significance, for tourism has become one of the leading industries in America. In South Carolina, tourism is the second leading industry, outranking agriculture. Within tourism, heritage tourism -- that is, visits to historical sites, places and museums -- is the fastest growing sector. These increasing audiences are opening up new and expanding markets for jobs related to history.

Thus, we have historical resources in our communities, schools and museums ready to utilize them, and growing audiences of interested students and adults. A model for how these elements may be strung together is the videotape of an archaeological excavation an African-American tenant house site that we recently produced at Drayton Hall.

First, a word about the National Trust for Historic Preservation and Drayton Hall. The National Trust is a private, non-profit organization with about 250,000 members, headquartered in Washington, DC. Each of its historical properties offer educational programs for schools and teachers on site and off. Its Heritage Education Office serves as a clearinghouse for heritage education programs nationwide and has created models for partnerships among schools, communities, museums, and preservation organizations. In association with the National Park Service and the National Council for Social Studies, this Office recently published "Teaching with Historic Places," a series of curriculum-based lesson plans connecting sites on the National Register of Historic Places to specific themes of American history. Contact the National Trust for more information

about these initiatives.

As for Drayton Hall, it is a historical plantation near Charleston, SC. Begun in 1738, when George Washington was six years old, and completed in 1742, the main house stands as one of the most important examples of colonial architecture in the nation. Owned by seven succeeding generations, the house was not substantially altered, so that much of the original structure and decorative details remain. In fact, the last time some of the principal rooms were painted was in 1885, that being only the second coat since 1742. Today Drayton Hall stands as a National Historic Landmark, the highest rank an historic site may receive in America.

In 1974 it was acquired from the Drayton family by the National Trust for Historic Preservation, the Historic Charleston Foundation, and the State of South Carolina. Today the core of the plantation, with its main house, grounds, and archaeological sites of slave houses, tenant houses, and outbuildings, is open to the public. Because much of the interior is original and because the original furnishings were dispersed in the 1840s, the house is unfurnished, and guided tours play to the imagination of visitors.

I came there in 1989 as director and was concerned that the main house of the plantation stood alone. Little evidence remained above ground of the scores of African-American families who made up the plantation during slavery and after emancipation, for the slave and tenant houses had been pulled down as they were abandoned. However, they did remain as archaeological sites. Could they be used to present the larger context? As David McCullough reminded us, opportunities await us, if we are resourceful.

I would now like to outline three steps in terms of being "resourceful," because we are all stretched for money. First, look for resources within your specific organization -- that is, within your museum, your school, or university. In this case, we used the staff of the museum for research as well as our limited collection of documents and funds, not to mention the archaeological site itself.

Second, look for networks in the system in which your organization is a part, whether it be a school system, university system, collection of state or municipal museums, or other agencies. In this case, Drayton Hall is a property of the National Trust, so we turned to the archaeologists of the Trust. You may be with a college or university but also part of a statewide system that will provide in-kind resources for your use. Or, you may be with a school and could turn to resources at the state or district levels. The point is to network within the wider organization.

Third, look beyond your organization. In this case, we hired a teacher in our community during the summer to assist in our research, especially in our oral history interviews in the local African-American community, of which this project was one part. We also hired an intern from a nearby college. Among his principal assignments for the summer was to research and produce drawings of the tenant house we were to excavate, based on oral history interviews he was to conduct with the former resident. These drawings included elevations of the exterior, furnishing plans of the rooms, and sketches of the homestead layout of house, yards, outbuildings, and gardens.

We also turned to a nearby university, Coastal Carolina University, and to a member of its faculty, Charles Joyner, who has written a pioneering book on African American life during slavery and who had extensive experience in producing programs about history for public television. He brought with him the Media Center from Coastal Carolina to videotape with professional quality the excavations and oral history interviews with the former resident, Richmond Bowens.

Why are these networks important? The answer is illustrated by the result of this initiative -- a videotape of a quality commensurate with that of public television. It will enable us to reach audiences at Drayton Hall for years to come, who were not witness to the excavation. It will also extend what we learned at Drayton Hall to audiences nationwide through public television networks and through schools, universities, museums, and preservation organizations.

The videotape features an innovative archaeological excavation of an African-American tenant house at Drayton Hall, the home of Richmond Bowens, who was born there in 1908, the grandson of freed slaves. He is currently on property staff. The immediate purpose for Drayton Hall was to help convey the story of the African-American people who lived and worked on the plantation for generations. In a broader sense, the videotape seeks to explain to viewers how archaeologists work and what we can learn from archaeology. Specifically, it seeks to dispel the image reinforced by "Indiana Jones" movies of archaeology as a quest for valuable artifacts, bereft of context.

The videotape also shows how archaeology and the research of oral histories, photographs,

and written documents can reinforce one another to provide a more complete and accurate picture. For example, interviews with the former resident, Richmond Bowens, enhanced the human dimension of the site, especially as he examined the artifacts unearthed and reminisced about members of his family associated with them. His recollections corrected the enumeration of members of his household by the U.S. Census of 1910, for it had listed eleven persons representing four extended families in the house, yet Bowens recalled that only he and his parents lived here, while his grandmother, aunts, and uncles lived in four other houses respectively. The archaeological excavation corroborated his recollection that the house was built in the late 1800s and was not a slave house that continued in use after emancipation. Photographs of Bowens' father, mother, and of himself as a youth further enabled viewers to visualize and thereby empathize more fully with the people who lived there.

In addition to enabling production of the videotape, the alliances provided additional benefits. I have been informed that costs for videotape production for public television purposes are normally from $5,000 to $10,000 a minute. Ours was a 28 minute production. Because of the alliances we developed, the total costs for out-of-pocket expenses, not including salaries, was about $2000.

Thus by working together, individuals and organizations can create educational products that build bridges between the history in their own backyards and the nation at large. They can engage students in history by connecting them to places where history actually occurred and to people who lived the experience, who "wore the shoe." The site could be below ground or above ground -- a house, church, school, farm, neighborhood, or main street. By working together, they will find that the budget need not be the obstacle preventing them from reaching their goals. They will also find that such programs heighten chances that what is being taught is received and passed through filters of shared prior knowledge.

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