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The State of State History: Teacher Perceptions Regarding the Place and Purpose of State History in K–12 Social Studies

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The State of State History: Teacher Perceptions Regarding the Place and Purpose
of State History in K–12 Social Studies

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy in Curriculum and Instruction

by

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Abstract

Social studies, history, and state history courses, in general, have long been broadly considered the least significant of the four core content courses in K – 12 education. State history is required and/or taught inconsistently throughout the 50 states, and in some cases, not at all. Teacher preparation and on-going support to teach state history in K – 12 education is also inconsistent and often disregarded. The purpose of this exploratory qualitative survey and interview study was to investigate teacher perceptions regarding place and purpose of state history in K – 12 social studies, and to identify teacher dispositions toward the teaching and learning of state history. Social studies classes are an excellent time to teach, model, and promote good citizenship, and tolerance. It is a time for students to begin to explore, understand, and respect opinions that may differ from their own, within the context of state History, Geography, United States History, World Studies, Economics, Civics, and American Government. Social studies class is one of the greatest places in which students can learn life skills that will carry beyond the classroom. A well-placed state history course can serve as a launching pad for a student to develop skills and aptitudes that will benefit them throughout an academic career. It can also be a course in which a student can make unique, significant, meaningful, personal connections to history at a local, state, and/or regional level. This often undervalued and overlooked course is neglected in peer-reviewed academic literature, thus warranting the need for an introductory study of this nature and leading to the call for future related research.

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~C/SEH 2019

Posthumous Dedications

Larry Malley, as you toast for eternity in your Irish pub in the sky, this is also for you.
You started me down this crazy state history journey, and I thank you.

For my Moona and my Meme. I am so grateful to have had you in my life. Your
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~SEH, 2019

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Chapter One - Introduction and Overview

Social studies, history, and state history courses, in general, have long been broadly considered the least significant of the four core content courses in K – 12 education (Kalaidis, 2013). The National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) has administered a variety of surveys and conducted a myriad of studies noting the decline of time spent on social studies, specifically since the enactment of *No Child Left Behind* legislation (see *Appendix A*). Often overlooked and undervalued because of the lack of and/or inconsistency of national or state standardized tests, social studies class time is often forfeited for remediation in tested areas, wholly embedded in English Language Arts (ELA) curriculum and/or enrichment courses.

A 2007 study from the Center of Education Policy supports this allegation: 62 percent of elementary schools, and more than 20 percent of middle schools, increased time for English language arts and/or math since No Child Left Behind passed. At the same time, 36 percent of schools decreased the time allocated to the social studies. According to a study from the National Center for Education Statistics, this adds up to a net loss of four weeks of social studies instruction per academic year” (Kalaidis, 2013, n.p.).

The NCES went on to note the following in a study from the 2012 school year:

Public schools, on average, in 2011–12, eighth-graders in public schools spent more time in a typical full week on instruction in English (6.5 hours and 19.4 percent of time) than on any other subject reported. There were no measurable differences in the time they spent on instruction in mathematics, social studies, or science” (NCES, 2017).

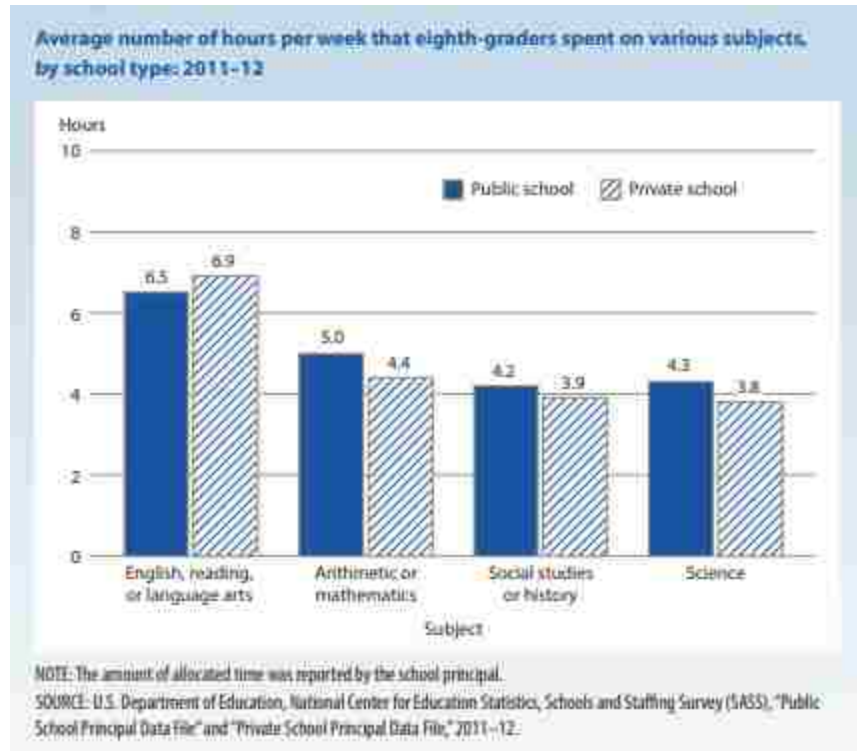


Figure 1.1, Average Number of Hours Per Week Eighth Graders Spend on Various Subjects, NCES, 2017

The lack of emphasis on state history is unfortunate since in my experience as an educator, I have found state history to be an important element in a student’s ability to practice critical thinking, empathy, and analysis skills; to reinforce fundamental writing and reading skills, and to develop civic engagement habits, a strong call to service, a sense of place, and community and carrying out of citizenship duties. In a modern world, many people ask, “Why study history?” Peter Stearns, a well-known Harvard-educated historian, professor and member of the American Historical Association eloquently answered the age-old question:

Why study history? The answer is because we virtually must, to gain access to the laboratory of human experience. When we study it reasonably well, and so acquire some usable habits of mind, as well as some basic data about the forces that affect our own lives, we emerge with relevant skills and an enhanced capacity for informed citizenship, critical thinking, and simple awareness. The uses of history are varied. Studying history can help us develop some literally “salable” skills, but its study must not be pinned down to the narrowest utilitarianism. Some history - that confined to personal recollections about changes and continuities in the immediate environment - is essential to function

beyond childhood. Some history depends on personal taste, where one finds beauty, the joy of discovery, or intellectual challenge. Between the inescapable minimum and the pleasure of deep commitment comes the history that, through cumulative skill in interpreting the unfolding human record, provides a real grasp of how the world works (Stearns, 1985, n.p.).

Within the curriculum and teaching of social studies and history courses, state history exists as a marginalized subset of an already marginalized subject, often relegated to intermingling with geography courses, or as a single unit in a United States history course that must already contend with hundreds of years of national history. Yet, at least 37 states require some ‘stand-alone’ teaching of state history somewhere between grades 3 and 9, which would lead one to believe that there must be unique value to its study. While it is possible to examine documentary evidence in the form of state standards to ascertain the justification for teaching state history, an exploration of state history teachers’ beliefs about this could prove more enlightening. This study seeks to explore the perceptions of state history teachers regarding the benefits of learning state history as a unique branch of the social studies. If social studies is the subject through which students prepare to become citizens, then it stands to reason that learning more about one’s state would only further that goal in a nation as broad and diverse as the United States. According to the National Council for Social Studies (NCSS), “The primary purpose of social studies is to help young people develop the ability to make informed and reasoned decisions for the public good as citizens of a culturally diverse, democratic society in an interdependent world” (NCSS, 2018, n.p.). Making more direct, personal connections for students with this content is essential, and the seemingly obvious place to start is with state and local history – a more personal approach. The embattled path of social studies and history education and curriculum in general; curriculum and standards debates and inconsistencies; personal learning experiences and perceptions of pre-service social studies teachers, have all

contributed to the diminished stature of state history as viable, meaningful content and learning vehicle in the social studies curriculum hierarchy.

In some states, specifically in Arkansas, pre-service elementary teachers are required to take an Arkansas History course, most often through the history department, as opposed to an education methods course, and this often impacts their perception of the course and content, which can later impact that of their students as well. Secondary social studies education majors also must take a state history course for certification. Without applicable strategies for implementation in a future classroom, the content could be seen as dry and uninteresting. Unfortunately, as Strauss contends, "...there's a battle between content and methods, and methods is losing, even though methods is the more useful of the two – the one that will transform students' minds from recall to that of independence and inquiry" (2017, n.p.). This notion not only applies to students in a K - 12 classroom, but also to a pre-service teacher pursuing licensure. Effective teaching is not only having a vast content knowledge, but having the relationship-building and strategy skills an educator's toolkit needs to make content relevant.

My roles as a social studies classroom educator of sixteen years, a teacher leader, a professional development presenter, and a curriculum writer have led me to firmly believe that social studies classes are an excellent time to teach, model, and promote good citizenship and tolerance. It is a time for students to begin to explore, understand, and respect opinions that may differ from their own, within the context of Arkansas History, Geography, United States History, World Studies, Economics, Civics, and American Government. Social studies class should be one of the greatest places for students to learn life skills that will carry beyond the classroom. Through a state history course taught at the middle level (of which I am a huge advocate), a student can glean an understanding of history, geography, economics, civics, sociology,

psychology, and anthropology - a foundation upon which they can build as they move to a higher level, specialized social studies classes. I have an intrinsic respect for state history and a belief in its importance in the social studies educational hierarchy. Having grown up in Texas, where the state's history is highly prized, I felt that many of my Arkansas students were lacking a sense of pride in their own home state and had a lack of awareness of the amazing, rich tapestry that creates the state history of Arkansas - as well as a lack of awareness of the relationship with an impact on the rest of the world that Arkansas has. I made it my daily mission to model to my students my pride in and love of Arkansas; the importance of embracing your state and its history, and to be a respectful, tolerant, contributing citizen of your community, state, and nation. State history courses can be an excellent opportunity for teachers to embrace cross-curricular planning – i.e. to be a support and reinforcement to Language Arts classes as they navigate through district, state, and national guidelines such as Common Core standards.

Unfortunately, the research base on the topic of state history is relatively scant when compared with other areas in the social studies. As the literature review for this dissertation revealed, a great deal of the available literature is interesting but anecdotal, and much of the information is related to homeschooling. The fact that anecdotal evidence can be found far more easily and frequently than peer reviewed academic research is further evidence that this study serves an important purpose in the realm of state history. The existence of significant gaps in solid peer-reviewed, research-based, data-driven literature on the necessity of state history courses in the social studies course hierarchy punctuates the need for attention.

Statement of the Problem/Purpose of the Study

State history is required and/or taught inconsistently throughout the 50 states, and in some cases, not at all. Teacher preparation and on-going support to teach state history in K – 12 education is also inconsistent and often disregarded. The purpose of this exploratory qualitative survey and interview study was to investigate teacher perceptions regarding place and purpose of state history in the overall K – 12 social studies curriculum pedagogy, and to identify teacher dispositions toward the teaching and learning of state history.

Research Question

The following three-part question guided the study:

How do state history teachers value and/or perceive the teaching and learning of state history?

- A. How do teachers perceive the value of state history content?
- B. What significance do teachers place on the teaching and learning of state history within a student’s educational experience?
- C. How do teachers perceive the benefits that state history can specifically provide students within the broader range of skills, aptitudes, and dispositions that students receive when learning history in general?

Methodology Overview

Teachers’ overall attitudes and perceptions regarding the teaching of state history were surveyed. A questionnaire was initially distributed via email to potential respondents through state social studies organizations, their listservs and state departments of education (social studies curriculum directors). Purposeful sampling was employed because it is crucial for the

study's participants to be state history teachers and purposeful sampling provides for, "particular settings, persons, or events are deliberately selected for the important information they can provide that cannot be gotten as well from other choices" (Maxwell, 1997, p. 87).

After an initial analysis of the data to develop a summative description of responses, a subset of the initial participants were invited to take part in an intensive, semi-structured (Merriam, 2009; Hatch, 2002, p. 94), open-ended follow-up phone interview, based on their questionnaire responses. Questionnaire responses informed the development of the interview questions, but were "open to digressions... the interviews move in the direction that the informant takes it" (Hatch, 2002, p. 95). The questionnaire was intentionally designed to inform decision-making when crafting interview questions. Merriam describes the semi-structured interview as "the middle", between structured and unstructured formats, where questions are more flexibly worded, and the order of questions being asked is not pre-determined. This format allows the researcher to respond to the situation at hand (Merriam, 2009, p. 90).

Data analysis focused on general categories/topics and perceptions, status of state history, benefits of state history being taught, evidence of these benefits, issues facing teachers of state history and ways in which it could improve. The data was interpreted using a social constructivist framework to understand participating teachers' perceptions and answer the research questions. The idea of "social constructivism" connects in a positive way to the value and the how and why of a student learning state history (sense of place/Place-Based Education, as defined in Chapter Two), but could skew in a negative direction when considering teacher's dispositions towards the value of teaching state history, so follow-up interview questions were asked regarding peers', colleagues', families', and the community's perceptions of a state history course and those who teach state history.

Finally, to enhance the credibility of the study and account for researcher bias, triangulation of questionnaire responses, interview data, and submission of artifacts from respondents were requested to strengthen findings.

Assumptions of the Study

During the course of research and data collection to determine teachers' perceptions of teaching state history, several basic assumptions were made:

1. Participants would provide honest answers and would volunteer in good faith.
2. Participants would be participatory and respond in a timely fashion.
3. The researcher would at all times, strive to address personal bias through the use of data.

Limitations of the Study

Questionnaires were sent to a variety of state social studies associations and other relevant professional organizations, but limitations were present. Direct access to all teachers who are currently teaching state history courses could not be guaranteed, nor could a minimum number of viable responses. Those who did respond were offered a nominal incentive for participation (gift card drawing). This could have been viewed as extrinsic motivation to respond to the survey questionnaire.

Time was also a limitation. Additionally, participants would "self-select" into the sample, therefore most likely representing "best-case" scenarios of responses of those who teach and/or support state history initiatives in that state.

"If social studies is to prosper as a viable discipline in Kindergarten - 12 schools, it has to adequately define itself. Beyond mission statements, social studies educators need the resources to discuss openly the pedagogical aims and practices that define who we are and what we do in this profession. Though numerous studies have examined social studies teachers' practices and offered rich findings (Au, 2007; Gradwell, 2006; Grant, 2003; van Hover, 2006; VanSledright, 2011), these studies are limited in the context and replication of their results" (Fitchett, 2013, p. 17).

Chapter Two - Review of the Literature

Overview and Process

In the 2009 book *Qualitative Research*, Merriam states that besides providing a foundation – a theoretical framework – for the problem to be investigated, the literature review can demonstrate how the present study advances, refines or revises what is already known” (p. 72). She goes on to discuss that a literature review can identify research to cite that supports the framing of a study and to justify the necessity of the current study (p. 73).

Although she states that “conducting a literature review follows no prescribed path,” the process for this review was broadly based on Creswell’s five steps for a literature review which include identification of key terms related to the topic; locating resources; selecting and critically evaluating literature; organizing the literature, and writing the review itself (Creswell, 2012, p. 81). Academic libraries, databases, Google Scholar, broad internet searches, professional journals, established reference lists or bibliographies of associated works (such as those of Barnes, Evans, Kerns, Ravitch, Saxe, VanSledright, etc.) were cross-referenced (“snowballing”) and sources were evaluated for relevance and accuracy. Upon reaching a point of ‘saturation’ (as labeled by Merriam), or repeatedly encountering the same works and no longer locating new or current sources on the study topic, an extensive literature review was completed (p. 75).

Ultimately, the literature review for this study generated information on and required analysis of the following significant topics: the history of teaching history; early debates and modern reforms related to social studies and history education; the state and/or status of state and local history; social studies and history curriculum; concerns for the future of state history; the purpose of and rationale for teaching state history at all, and best practices in the teaching of state

history and Place-Based Education (PBE). Although specifically focused on *state* history, much of the literature directed the research towards general history (world, United States, etc.) and social studies. The location of state-specific literature was extremely limited.

The History of Teaching History

As will be documented throughout this section, at one point or another, inconsistency, fluctuation, ambiguity, debate, backlash, and irritation have all seemed to attach themselves to the teaching of not only state history, but social studies and history in K – 12 public schools across the United States. There are even debates and discrepancies over broadly naming and defining the content as social studies, social sciences or deferring only to specific genres such as history, geography, economics, and so on. Ronald Evans details this baseline ongoing battle of what to call this genre of study in his book, *Social Studies Wars* (2004), often referring to the what and how of teaching social studies and history as a “civil war” itself (Evans, 2004, p. 4). Many believe referring to content and curriculum as “social studies” diminishes the importance of actual history courses. Evans describes the “chaotic” state of what would later become ‘social studies’ in 1861 as “isolated fields of curriculum.” In the 1940s, Evans cites ongoing wars of words between a Teachers College, Columbia University professor named Erling M. Hunt and the American public, who believed the teaching of American History had been overtaken or replaced by something called “social studies,” wherein Hunt had to define social studies as an umbrella term for history, geography, economics, civics, sociology, and current events (Evans, 2004, p. 87).

The National Council for Social Studies, formed in 1921, drafted resolutions at its 1942 convention continuing the expected focus on the teaching of American History along with the

aforementioned ‘social studies’ subjects (Evans, 2004, p. 87). Despite valiant efforts by organizations such as The National Council on Social Studies (NCSS); the C3 Teachers collaborative; the National Council for History Education (NCHE), and Teachinghistory.org among others to establish national standards or benchmarks for curriculum planning and pedagogy, the subject is not “officially” formally tested on a national level. Social studies and history are unlike English Language Arts, Mathematics, and soon Science, in regard to mandated, formalized, common assessments, so discrepancies exist in at which grade levels certain subjects are taught, graduation requirements, emphasis in elementary or secondary courses (or both), materials selection and breadth of content. In the United States, history and social studies teachers in public schools struggle.

Early debates. The roller coaster ride for state history courses can be seen as early as 1877 in a case study of a Louisiana State History course in public schools. Louis J. Nicolosi presented a paper to the Louisiana historical society in 1971, documenting records of a textbook for a grammar school state history course in 1877, but none for high school. In 1893, an academic consortium, which included future U.S. President Woodrow Wilson, recommended a course of history studies beginning in fifth grade that included U.S. History and government; French and English history, and mythology. This was reviewed and eventually evolved into a four-course pedagogy in 1899, none of which addressed or included state history specifically. Finally, in 1916, it was recommended that fourth graders study state history (Ravitch, 1985, p. 56). In 1897, the situation reversed, with a state history text and course in high school instead of in the elementary grades. In 1926, state history was reduced to a single semester and relocated to the sixth grade, with community history in fourth grade and parish history in fifth grade. In 1931, the sixth grade semester course remained, but an optional eighth grade semester course was

added – this course would teach the “meaning” of history rather than just the facts. The 1933 state historical bulletin referenced “social studies” for the first time as well as “Louisiana Studies.” In 1945, Louisiana history found its long-term home in the eighth grade and was a year-long course with a study of geography, with an emphasis on history and exploration, French and Spanish control, the War Between the States, industry and society and local and state government. Much of the content was diminished in this semester course, however, being relegated to the memorization of the governors and studying the economic driving force of local communities such as cotton or sugar cane.

In 1966, the Louisiana State Department of Education formed a review committee with teachers and professors alike and a revision was ordered. New materials were introduced, and courses expanded. However, it was noted that most resources “emphasize the uniqueness of the state, but neglect interstate relationships, and indicate the influence of national trends, if at all, only in context of the single state reaction” (Nicolosi, 1971, pp. 35 – 45). The state’s history was being taught in isolation. At this time, in the late 1960s and 1970s, Louisiana pre-service teachers were only required to take one three-hour course in Louisiana history or geography to teach it – a notion that Nicolosi considered glaringly inadequate. Today, Louisiana receives an overall grade of ‘C’ for all its social studies pedagogy from the Fordham Institute State of State of US history standards, 2011 report. “Starting in 5th grade, the content and sequence defined in the benchmarks do not match those outlined in the grade-level expectations. The benchmarks explicitly cover all of American history in 5th through 8th grades, and briefly recapitulate earlier periods at the high school level before moving to the twentieth century. But the expectations split U.S. history content across grades five, seven, and high school” (Stern, 2011, *Appendix B*, no. 19). Grade 8 is where the Louisiana history course remains.

While this all-too-familiar labyrinth of courses, content and curriculum was being navigated in Louisiana (as well as other states, still to this day), the national social studies scene was organizing. The NCSS was formed in 1921 and its influence as a leader in curriculum development and reform remains strong. In fact, it is the largest US organization to focus solely on social studies education. Originally formed by professors from Teachers College, Columbia University, the original goal was to merge the social studies disciplines and education in general and calm historic disunity and strife. *Appendix C* provides an overview of other early 20th-century social studies touchstones.

This ‘strife’ continued to be documented in a 1938 journal article about the importance of the state history content, placement, and the teaching of Pennsylvania state history in its schools. The articles lamented the “weak [curriculum] framework on which to erect a structure of permanent worth,” (Koehler, 1938, p. 52) referring to the broad objectives and limited time spent on state studies in sixth grade. Koehler, at the time, an instructor at the State Teachers College in East Stroudsburg, Pennsylvania, stated that in an attempt to improve state history instruction in Pennsylvania public schools in 1938, it was discovered that “teachers are not properly trained, and the syllabi are inadequate both as to type of material and proper levels for instruction” (Koehler, 1938, p. 53), and, 80 years later, the same issues persist.

Modern reforms. A 2007 survey of district superintendents conducted by the Center on Education Policy revealed that a considerable percentage (36%) reported decreased class time for the social studies since the passage of No Child Left Behind (NCLB) in 2002 (Loveless, 2014). Talk of technology integration and personalized learning in future schools began to grow exponentially during the late 1990s and early 21st century, further pushing the focus on history and social studies education and curriculum from the forefront.

The early 2000s continued to see politics weigh heavily on education and standards with additional implementation of NCLB and Common Core. A study by the Fordham Center in 2011 determined that schools had lost 18 hours of social studies instruction to English and math during a school year due to these political curriculum movements (Brasof, 2012, n.p.). Common Core shifted the focus away from history and into literacy – a seemingly positive collaboration, but an imbalance in the approach. Additionally, states were “asked” to adopt the standards in exchange for federal funding. By 2012, most states had adopted the standards, though Alaska, Indiana, Minnesota, Nebraska South Carolina, Puerto Rico, Texas, and Virginia did not. As of 2017, many states that did adopt had lessened or abandoned expectations by districts to adhere to Common Core (Common Core Standards, 2017). Some used them as a guide in revising state guidelines, but many sidelined the document as a whole, or as a primary guide to inform learning directives.

President Obama’s Race to the Top (RTTT) initiative was a competitive, grant-funded initiative that favored applications from states that adopted “college and career ready” standards and measured student growth that used data to improve instruction (Department of Education, 2009, p. 2). In 2011, U.S. Secretary of Education Arne Duncan wrote a letter which included the statement: “President Obama and I reject the notion that the social studies is a peripheral offering that can be cut from schools to meet [Adequate Yearly Progress] or to satisfy those wanting to save money during a fiscal crunch. Today more than ever, the social studies are not a luxury, but a necessity. We need to fix [No Child Left Behind] so that school leaders do not feel forced to ignore the vital components of a good education” (Kalaidis, 2013, n.p.).

Although the program seemed to favor STEM programs, it did mention guidelines to increase the length of the school day or school year calendar to allow for time to be added back

in scheduling to teach history, art, and so on. However, this one mention is the only mention of history in the executive summary, so no tremendous progress was from yet another revolutionary promise of reform. With the new administration having taken office in January 2017, it is now in the history books. The focus has again shifted cutting or eliminating Obama-era education reform programs in favor of school-choice programs and a career tech focus (Cramer, 2017, n.p.).

In spite of limited recognition of the need for change by RTTT, marked progress with state and national social studies/history standards was made, due in part to the efforts of NCSS, which published the College, Career, and Civic Life Framework for Social Studies State Standards (C3) in 2016. According to NCSS, the C3 Framework "...[it] was developed to serve two audiences: for states to upgrade their state social studies standards and for practitioners - local school districts, schools, teachers, and curriculum writers - to strengthen their social studies programs. Its objectives are to: a) enhance the rigor of the social studies disciplines; b) build critical thinking, problem-solving, and participatory skills to become engaged citizens; and c) align academic programs to the Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy in History/Social Studies" (NCSS, 2013). Many states are now beginning to revise CCSS and NCLB-influenced state standards documents based on this new publication.

As recently as July 2017, debate was occurring in Tennessee over the proposed adoption and upcoming vote of revised state history standards for the 2019 – 2020 school year. Tennessee officially voted to move completely away from Common Core to this new, in-state draft of guidelines (Tatter, 2016). The proposal added a required semester of Tennessee history to fifth-grade studies. The new standards would also "sprinkle" additional Tennessee history information throughout the K – 12 curricula and offer an upper-grade level elective Tennessee history course

that delves deeper into the state's past (Gonzalez, 2017, n.p.). According to an article in *Tennessean*, there are 14% fewer standards to be taught in social studies under this proposal (Pignolet, 2017, n.p.). However, despite the overall reduction in the number of standards and many courses being combined, two of the new standards cover Tennessee's government, the development of West Tennessee, and Memphis' history as a center for cotton and slave trade. (Pignolet, 2017, n.p.). Certain topics related to music history and civil rights were reinstated in the curriculum document as a result of specific public feedback.

Iowa has also made recent strides in reviving the teaching of state history. Iowa lawmakers reviewed standards when they learned that testing accountability was driving most of what was taught – making state history a renewed priority. Iowa History Advisory Council's report included recommendations for:

- incentivizing teacher preparation programs at state colleges and universities to require content in the field of Iowa history;
- promoting professional development opportunities for Iowa teachers focused on best practices in the teaching and learning of state and local history;
- creating a variety of Iowa history curriculum materials that support new history standards, as well as a website to serve as the “hub” for such resources;
- recognizing a state historian to advocate for and discuss Iowa history in K-12 classrooms; and
- ensuring adequate staffing within the education department of the State Historical Society of Iowa

(Kirby, 2016, n.p.).

Indiana also made advances as a state attempting to re-focus on its own history. In 2017, Indiana Public Law 162 was enacted, requiring an elective course of Indiana Studies as a Core 40 graduation requirement (Indiana General Assembly, 2017, np). These states (Tennessee, Iowa, Indiana and others) are representative of the on-going struggle and debate on how and

what to teach in social studies (or even to call it ‘social studies’) especially on history sequence, scope, and pedagogy, which certainly brings into question the proper placement and utilization of state history courses. In this review of educational reform and changes to social studies and history curriculum since the 1950s, state history is rarely, if ever, mentioned.

The State of State and Local History (and History and Social Studies Teaching in General)

In an educational world dominated by the importance of standardized testing – sometimes there are so many tests that the number is actually hard even really know, according to Kimberly Hefling of the Associated Press:

Many states and districts require additional testing beyond the federally mandated exams. A Center for American Progress snapshot of 14 districts in seven states found that students take as many as 20 standardized assessments annually and an average of 10 tests in grades three to eight. The group said these students spend on average 1.6 percent of instructional time or less taking tests. Preliminary research by the Council of the Great City Schools, which represents large urban districts, found that students take an average of 113 standardized tests between pre-K and 12th grade. It said testing time for 11th graders was as high as 27 days, or 15 percent of the school year, in one district and that didn’t count Advanced Placement, career and technical education course and college entrance exams” (2015, p.1).

...a subject such as history that is officially assessed in less than half of the states, has little chance of ever being “validated” or legitimized if this is the process for doing so, when students already seem to be over-tested. A 2014 report by the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) showed that only “Eighteen percent of America high school students were proficient in U.S. History. When colleges such as Stanford decline to require Western Civilization classes or high schools propose changing their curriculum so that history is only taught from 1877 onward (such as in North Carolina), it is merely a blip on the news cycle” (Markowicz, 2017). The Education Commission of the States completed a 50-state review in

April 2018, identifying those states that test social studies achievements in one capacity or another (see *Appendix D*). Most states administer a version of the U.S. citizenship test, with only Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Ohio, Oklahoma, Texas, Virginia, and Wisconsin specifically requiring U.S. history and/or state history exams in some capacity. In October of 2018, *Education Week* conducted a study where “The results show that while most states require students to study civics, just eight require them to take a yearlong civics or government class in order to graduate. In comparison, a year of U.S. history is a graduation requirement in 31 states. This comes on top of any U.S. and state history mandates focused on the lower grades. When it comes to testing, though, the requirements break down a bit more evenly. Fifteen states require students to take a U.S. history exam, compared to 19 states for civics. But students are not necessarily required to pass some of these exams, and, in the case of civics, the assessment used in some states is essentially a version of the 100-question test taken by immigrants seeking citizenship status” (Sawchuck, 2018). The piece also produced a composite, interactive map depicting results as well as a comprehensive data chart on which states require what, which can be accessed by scanning the QR code below. And although these results were interesting, they were disheartening – for the state of social studies and history education in general, the state of our nation and citizenry, but even more so that there was no mention or consider of *state* courses or curriculum whatsoever – a disappointing trend seen throughout this study.

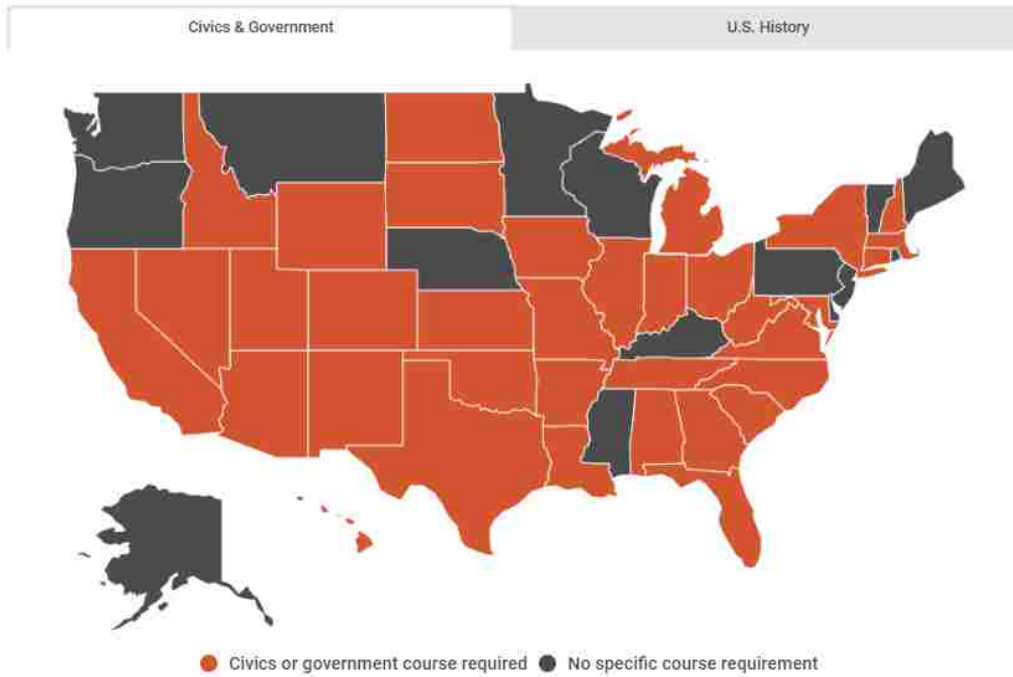


Figure 2.1, Are Students Required to Study U.S. History and Civics? Education Week, 2019 (Interactive map: <https://www.edweek.org/ew/section/multimedia/data-most-states-require-history-but-not.html>)

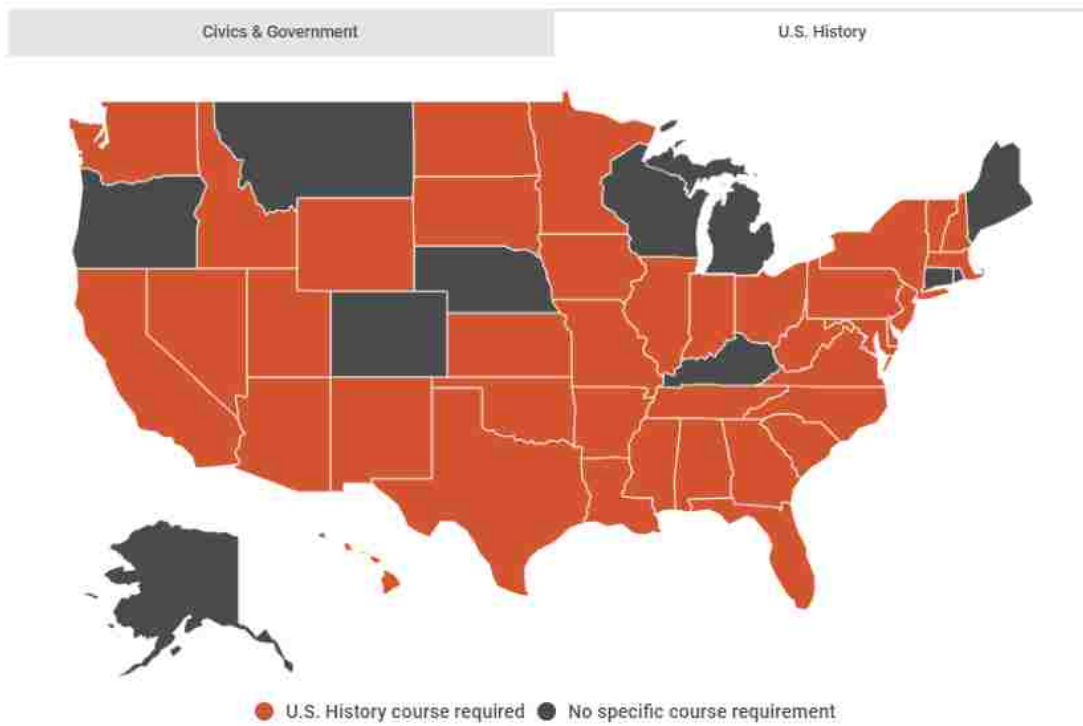


Figure 2.2, re Students Required to Study U.S. History and Civics? Education Week, 2019 (Interactive map: <https://www.edweek.org/ew/section/multimedia/data-most-states-require-history-but-not.html>)

Curriculum. Elementary state history curriculum is notorious for relying on lessons about holidays, state fairs, and festivals, and local and regional heroes - not on the individual roles of states in the larger national global economic landscape; how a state contributes to environmental initiatives or conservation and preservation; not about immigrants in the local and state community; not about scientific advancements and gender issues in a specific state; not on geography in relation to food production, transportation and strategic military initiatives of the past; not in rich oral histories or using technology to expand learning. In *Georgia on my Mind: Writing the “New” State History textbook in the Post-Loewen World*, the author Roberts quotes Loewen, author of a Mississippi state history textbook and *Lies My Teacher Told Me*, as saying that ‘heroification’ “the process of textbook authors making historical figures into heroes” as one of the major weaknesses of history textbooks (Roberts, 2013, p. 48). Loewen recently released an introduction for his 1995 publication adding additional fire to the textbook flames targeting them as the entity that is weakening or diminishing meaningful history and social studies education.

Most textbooks, he [Loewen] noted, contain no footnotes, no way for students to trace the author’s historical arguments, analyze them, or contest them. So why, Loewen asked, would students bother to feel invested in interrogating the complexities of American values if they had few opportunities to contest the textbook narrative?

They [textbooks] present history to get students to ‘learn’ it. They should help students learn how to learn history, he said. We aren’t just learning about the past to satisfy our curiosity - we are learning about the past to do our jobs as Americans.

Different curriculum efforts, including the Evanston, Ill,-based DBQ Project, the UC-Berkeley History Social Sciences Project, the Choices Program at Brown University, and the Reading Like A Historian project, begun by Wineburg and colleagues at Stanford, have all set out to do what Loewen has called for.

They prioritize students doing the work of history, by putting primary sources at the center of the history classroom and having students grapple with those sources, often by using a provocative question as a starting point.
(Sawchuck, 2018)

Bolstering Loewen's argument, state history, as it is currently taught, led the editor of the *Ohio History Journal* to suggest that state history, in its current practice, has outlived its usefulness as a category of study, perspective, and analysis (Barnes, 2016).

Texas, and its history with social studies curriculum and textbook selection procedures, have long been at the center of many debates regarding the what and how of teaching history. In September 2018, members of the Texas Board of Education sat through proceedings to evaluate and revise existing 2010 curriculum standards with a Confederate flag looming ominously (and strangely) in the background for a portion of the proceedings. Debates related to the 'relative significance' of the Alamo and a conservative white historical lens in a state where the population will be majority minority within two to five years. "As the Texas debate situation illuminates, what students learn about U.S. history varies depending on where they attend school and is frequently filtered through the political and demographic makeup of different communities. The tension over Texas's history standards is partly explained by its rapidly changing demographics, where Hispanics - some of whom can trace their roots to the opposing side at the Alamo battle - are expected to become a plurality of the population within the next five years, potentially by 2024. The 2010 standards in that state, written largely by a conservative-leaning board, make some assertions that have led even right-leaning reviewers like the Thomas B. Fordham Institute to label them "a string of politically and religiously motivated historical distortions" " (Sawchuck, 2018). The key element of this quote being "what students learn about U.S. history varies depending on where they attend school, and is frequently filtered through the political and demographic makeup of different communities" which lends itself to the idea of Place-Based Education (PBE) and the possible socio-cultural and socio-economic impact on what and how students learn has to do with where they learn. This concept is rooted in

the sciences, but certainly makes sense in historical, geographical, civic, and service-learning settings as well.

Some suggest that one way to re-instate the usefulness of state and local history is through the lens of the aforementioned ‘Place-Based Education.’ Elfer (2011) argues that the linking of classrooms and communities is essential in continuing to have relevant state history education. He goes on to suggest that local historic sites and museums should be regularly be visited – and that students and their families are the “raw materials” for writing assignments and project-based learning – doing the legwork and physically placing themselves in or near the history and culture of a community and state. Risinger cites the validity of practicing historical reasoning in writing and research skills that can be honed using the internet with various resources and lessons provided for educators (Risinger, 2010, p. 76). Elfer affirms this notion as well - this applies to those who are five-generation families of a community, or to those who are transient (Elfer, 2011, n.p.). Cooper (2007, n.p.) references the argument of Gilman (1992), saying “state and local history is a natural place for demonstrating the interplay between the individual and the universal. To leave out state and local history is to leave the student in a vacuum where no recognition is made to the local area and its contribution to the American story. State and local history is the perfect vehicle to allow students to see how an area is directly involved with changes over time” (Gilman, 1992, p. 9).

In a February 2017 study from the University of Minnesota – Twin Cities, Katherine Ann Linnemanstons and Catherine M. Jordan outline the following functional definition of Place-Based Education. PBE is “one of the most effective approaches to promoting recognition in students of the interconnectedness of themselves, their environment, and the topics they learn in class” (Smith, 2002; Theobald, 1997). PBE is an approach to education in which the local

environment, both built and natural, is used as a context to reinforce ideas (Sobel, 2004)” (Linnemanstons and Jordan, 2017). The study goes on to classify PBE as an all-encompassing, cross-curricular pedagogy, not just a strategy. They cite higher engagement from students when PBE tactics are used, even though their study found that less than 10% of teachers surveyed had any formal professional development or training before attempting to integrate PBE strategies.

PBE, guiding students to develop a ‘sense of place’ and the social constructivist theory lend themselves perfectly to Gilman’s statement, state history as a course and the parameters of this study. Jennifer E. Cross from the Department of Sociology at Colorado State university describes ‘sense of place’ as the following: We all grow up with stories of places that teach us both about the history of that place and of our relationship to it (Cross, 2001, p.6). Students “construct” their knowledge by utilizing previous knowledge to evaluate experiences, personal views, and cultural backgrounds (University College of Dublin, 2019) and these skills and attributes can be honed when the content itself is something with which they are somewhat familiar or can touch, feel or see – something in their hometown, local region or state. Social constructivism was developed in the 1930s by Lev Vygotsky. “Every function in the child's cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level and, later on, on the individual level; first, between people (interpsychological) and then inside the child (intrapsychological). This applies equally to voluntary attention, to logical memory, and to the formation of concepts. All the higher functions originate as actual relationships between individuals” (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 57). Further, Vygotsky’s Zone of Proximal Development is innately facilitated by a state history course, thus the use of this approach for this qualitative study. Nowhere is there a content vehicle in social studies that seems more conducive to this idea than a state history course. The aforementioned lack of professional development specific to the teaching of state history in most

states requires teachers to employ the tactics of collaborative learning and gaining knowledge from community constructs as well. Further solidifying the use of this study approach - the topic itself could be viewed as a living embodiment of Vygotsky's construct.

One anecdotal example of the power of place-based learning was shared in a blog post published by Edutopia. The author was Grace Whitmore and she was writing about her experience at Hood River Middle School – this struck a chord during the research and literature review process and brings to life the notion of ‘sense of place’. "All I needed during middle school was to feel a part of something and connecting to my community brought me that" (Whitmore, 2016, n.p.). Grace goes on to recount that her most vivid memories of middle school were *outside* the classroom – interacting in her community, working with local adults, making a connection to her physical, cultural and social surroundings.

The Stream Survey project in eighth grade was especially memorable. My science class could have done online research to find stream data for our research report, but we didn't. Most days in class, I walked down to nearby Culvert Creek to collect my own data. I observed how the surrounding neighborhood affected the creek health, and talked to residents about why they enjoy living near the creek. Simple enough, this was a classic example of learning by doing in the community. And as someone still in the public school system -- a high school sophomore -- I can tell you that it works. With place-based learning, this simple connection from student to creek to neighborhood brought me a sense of cause and effect that I never quite found in a textbook. My schooling at HRMS was full of local connections, including collaborations with community partners. Community music leaders guest-taught our band classes, a plant scientist showed me how to prune trees, and my literacy class read stories to the nearby elementary school. Connections were important to me.
(Whitmore, 2016, n.p.)

Pockets of educators and piecemeal school districts across the country are working to strengthen social studies pedagogy, identify target goals, and purpose of the courses and increase student engagement and efficacy, but efforts are inconsistent – there is no consistent national

dictate - thus circling back to the arguments for and against standardized testing. Would that enhance the value of a state history course and social studies content and pedagogy as a whole?

The connection the teachers make is that this teaching isn't just more interesting and engaging for students. It's that they are also learning the tools that make for good citizenship. "I tell students that this is the most important class they're going to have all year," White said. "It's going to teach you how to think about what people are saying to you." Reed said, "In reality, students are learning to discern truth. It's a gift they take with them the rest of their lives, the gift of questioning. (Sawchuck, 2018).

Laura Haspela, a Hood River Middle School teacher validates the aforementioned sentiment of importance.

Placed-based learning works in any setting. Place can be understanding your transportation system," explains Haspela. When I used to work at a school in an inner city, place was figuring out how to use the Metro. Even if you think your location isn't suitable for place-based learning, it can be whatever is outside your window, says Haspela. Some schools I've worked with had a barren landscape, and when we talked to them about Place-Based Education, they were like, 'What's interesting about going out in our schoolyard? It's just sand. It's bare, and there's tumbleweed everywhere.' Once you start going out, and the kids are looking closely, they find insects, and then insects become their whole curriculum for the fall. It doesn't have to be Tetons or bison. (Hood River Middle School, 2016, n.p.)

This thoughtful yet pragmatic approach further solidifies the sensible, simple connection of a state history course and developing students' sense of place through Place-Based Education strategies. One of Haspela's colleagues, Sarah Segal, a HRMS sixth-grade literacy, social studies, science, and language arts teacher, goes further to discuss connections to national social studies standards such a 'C3 Framework' which validates and reinforces her stance on the value of Place-Based Education.

I understand it is necessary to establish clear skill development for all kids to have a solid foundation, which Common Core does. However, where do they go from there? C3 prepares kids for college, career, and living a civically engaged life. Essentially, standards can provide the skills necessary for students to express inspiration," adds Segal. Whether researching, designing, and creating a historical museum, discovering and promoting national celebration of a local civil rights hero, or discussing the significance

of protecting local rivers, ignite thought. Know your standards well, know your place well, and figure out ways to inspire your students.
(Hood River Middle School, 2016, n.p.)

Place-Based education, although intriguing and with many touted benefits and possibilities, is not all sunshine and roses as the cure-all to what ails state history. Three Australian researchers and professors, Peter McInerney, John Smyth and Barry Down, wrote an intriguing piece entitled, ‘Coming to a place near you?’ The politics and possibilities of a critical pedagogy of place-based education, in which they discussed many positives and some concerns regarding the practice. They also addressed the idea of learning locally in a global society, which many others had not wholly broached. They began by saying, “It may seem something of a paradox that in a globalized age where notions of interdependence, interconnectedness, and common destinies abound, the ‘local’, with its diversity of cultures, languages, histories, and geographies, continues to exercise a powerful grip on the human imagination. The ties that bind us have global connections but are anchored in a strong sense of locality” (McInerney, et al, 2011, p. 3). Some may see this as a weakness, but instead, it seems to speak to the nature of this study, bolstering the relevance. McInerney and company cite Gruenewald by sharing:

According to Gruenewald (2003), the movement lacks a single theoretical tradition, instead its practices can be connected to experiential learning, constructivism, outdoor education, environmental and ecological education, bioregional education, democratic education, multicultural education, community-based education, critical ... [and] other approaches that are concerned with context and the value of learning from and nurturing specific places, communities or regions. (p. 3)

In the piece, McInerney and colleagues warn not to “romanticize” or idealize the notion of place in the development young people’s identifies as it is still developing. They cite the work of Sobel in relation to another of their concerns:

Invoking the image of Russian nesting dolls, Sobel (2005), argues that ‘it makes developmental sense to proceed from the near to the far’ (p. 20) when designing children's learning experiences. Decrying the lack of attention to the local in the early years, Sobel writes: I'm anxiously awaiting a good explanation of why it's more important for sixth graders to know the order of planets from Mars to Pluto. Wouldn't it be more useful to develop a knowledge of the geography of the town the second grader lives in? (p. 21).

While we could agree with Sobel about the doubtful value of memorising the names of the planets, restricting learning in the early years to the schoolyard and local neighbourhood appears somewhat myopic.
(McInerney, et al, 2011, p. 10)

Pros and cons aside, PBE research and literature does have a unique connection and could afford limitless possibilities as a validation and support of or vital link to state history education.

McInerney's team concludes the article with this: “[PBE] should be regarded as one of a number of pedagogies that have the potential to promote civic engagement, democratic practices, an ethic of care for others and the environment, and the fostering of values that are largely absent from individualistic and utilitarian approaches to schooling” (McInerney, et al, 2011, p. 13).

State History: Concerns for the Future

Arkansas does require a three-hour college course for elementary education and secondary social studies education majors and periodic recurrent Arkansas history PD, and it also has a legislative lobbyist group that has been effective in preserving state history education up until this point (Arkansas History Education Coalition). Arkansas also touts a good selection of online and print resources for teachers and students, a robust state historical society and council for social studies. In 1997, the state legislature passed a bill requiring emphasis on Arkansas history in fourth and fifth grades and a full semester to be taught somewhere between seventh and twelfth grades. Although that law is still intact, guidelines requiring continuing professional

development for educators have been diminished – thus contributing to the negative perception problem of (Arkansas) state history for many teachers. In 2013, Act 969 diminished the on-going professional development requirements for social studies teachers in Arkansas history.

Currently, only two hours of Arkansas history professional development is required every four years for Arkansas history teachers (Arkansas State Legislature).

In 2006, the state of Maryland convened a team to survey perceptions of teaching history in elementary schools in the time of No Child Left Behind legislation. Eighty-eight percent of those surveyed responded that teaching history in elementary was a “low priority,” and sixty-three percent of principals concurred. Despite this feeling, the majority of elementary curriculums reflect history teaching, on paper. This often circles back to the aforementioned “holidays and heroes curriculum” as the cornerstone of elementary lessons because of lack of content knowledge on the elementary teachers part or lack of how to teach history in their setting (VanSledright, 2012, p.1). Markowicz provides a personal anecdote in her 2017 article as a parent of a first-grader in a New York City public school: “I’ve also seen even the “holiday curriculum” in short supply. First grade might seem young, but it’s my daughter’s third year in the New York City public school system after Pre-K and Kindergarten. She goes to one of the finest public schools in the city, yet knows about George Washington exclusively from the soundtrack of the Broadway show “Hamilton.” She wouldn’t be able to tell you who discovered America. So far, she has encountered no mention of any historical figure except for Martin Luther King Jr. This isn’t a knock on King, obviously. He’s a hero in our house. But he can’t be the sum total of historical figures our kids learn about in even early elementary school (Markowicz, 2017).

Fueling this issue may be the noted decline in history majors, furthering the negative connotation associated with studying, learning, and teaching history and related subjects. “As Julia Brookins reported in the March 2016 issue of *Perspectives on History*: “The number of history BAs and BSs completed in the United States fell for the third time in four years, this time by 9.1 percent from the previous year, from 34,360 to 31,233 [in 2014].” According to the most recent data, this steep decline has continued, with only 28,157 history majors graduating in 2015 (a decline of 9.8 percent from 2014) (Sturtevant, 2017, n.p.) Further, The U. S. Department of Education confirms that the numbers of students earning a bachelor’s degree in history fell 10% between 2014 and 2015. In 2015, history departments conferred a little over 27,000 history degrees (Townsend, 2017, p.1). Fewer history degrees are awarded to women which speaks to possibly a lower interest in teaching history as a majority of education majors are female and a majority of history majors are male (see *Appendix E*) (National Center for Education Statistics, 2018).

Belanger (2011) notes that there has not been a reconciliation of properly preparing students of history to become history teachers. She notes that historian Michael Sherry was quoted as saying, “the truth is that many of us... still regard it [teaching] as not only less rewarded, but less sophisticated and demanding than scholarship – simply, the easier thing to do, or otherwise less worth of note” (Belanger, 2011, p. 1079). She sums up her reflections by stating that future teachers should not merely be trained to be historians but be integrated into a community of scholars that values reflective teaching practices (Balenger, 2011, p. 1088) – potentially reducing the impact personal learning experiences may have had on future teaching demeanor.

History and State History: Purpose and Rationale

Social studies education and history education in K – 12 schools have always struggled with establishing a clear identity and have dealt with a cyclical struggle to find purpose and place within the hierarchy of elementary and secondary education, as well as in teacher preparation programs. Is it history? Is it social studies (geography and culture – more generic or amateur and/or broad)? Is it social sciences (economics, sociology, political science, psychology – more scientific and/or specific)? The nomenclature and definitions even cause debate. In *Social Studies Wars*, Evans writes that “The key question haunting social studies remains the issue of its definition and its vision, and of the approaches to the field that were practiced in schools” (Evans, 2004, p. 178).

So, what is the purpose or desired outcome of teaching all of the above? Why do we (the collective ‘we’ as in a society, a nation, an education system) teach history? Why do we learn it? Why do we *NEED* to teach and learn history? Emblematic responses often include *to guarantee meaningful, necessary contributions of citizens in a democratic society* (Barton, 2004, p. 12); *not to repeat mistakes, to advance society, to instill a sense of pride, to establish identity* and so on. Evans cites an unpublished, yet seemingly insightful, University of Pennsylvania dissertation by A. O. Roorbach which determined that “history was taught to “help students understand the sacred antiquities and appreciate classical literature” (Evans, 2004, p. 5). According to Segall, “although history education proports primarily to inform students about the past, it has as much, if not more, to do with the preset and the future.... History education is first and foremost about the production of identity” (2010, p. 125). With history and social studies being the least frequently nationally tested “core” content area in grades K – 12, is its purpose diminished or does the *production of identity* factor to give it merit? Or as P.J. Rogers quips, “as beings

endowed with memory, we cannot have a perception of the present that is not strongly influenced by a version of the past – some sort of version – which we have internalized,’ surmising that biologically and psychologically, we have no choice but to be influenced by historic memories (Dickinson, Lee & Rogers, p. 1984, 20). On the other end of the spectrum, at the turn of the twentieth century, history was thought to serve a “social goal to Americanize immigrants” (Evans, 2004, p. 15), a sentiment that in a 2019 world would certainly spark outrage.

The pedagogical purpose of history and social studies education has changed in rolling waves or reform and reinvention over time. It has been impacted by politics, societal changes, the economy, wars and the like. There is also the eternal argument of how history is taught and what *type* of discipline it actually is - academic or amateur – historians demanding the former, but reality often perpetuating or necessitating the latter. David Lowenthal aptly and affectionately discusses “history as amateur scholarship” in Stearns, Seixas and Wineburg’s 2000 publication, *Knowing, Teaching and Learning History*.

More than any other academic profession, history is amateur in its approach, its appeal, and its apparatus. Unlike the physical and social sciences, history has no technical jargon and requires no grounding in some arcane aspect of nature or human nature. Its practitioners generally strive to be accessibly straightforward, even to the point of eschewing theory entirely... Not only are we inclined to think anyone *can* learn history; we are inclined to feel that everyone *should learn history*. Only geography among other disciplines makes similar claims to universality... History’s amateur character leaves it highly vulnerable, however, to assaults on the integrity of historical knowledge. Nonhistorians misconceive amateur as dilettante. And because it is open to all and matters so passionately to so many, history is readily seized on as a weapon for this or that cause, or this or that faith... But just because history is amateur, does not mean that it is easy.
(pp. 63 – 64)

So, what is the purpose of learning and teaching an “amateur” subject like history and the *why* of doing it? P.J. Rogers continues to support the biological memory argument by simply and eloquently summarizing it as, “A version of the past – some sort of version – has already affected

every child by the time he enters school. Without historical education there will be nothing to monitor the development of the framework within which he will come (largely) to see the world, and the problem of adult misconception will be perpetuated” (Dickinson, Lee & Rogers, 1984, p. 21).

Barton and Levstik discuss this reality in *Teaching History for the Common Good*, by using a sociocultural analysis to identify “what people do in concrete settings rather than the conceptual or procedural knowledge assumed to exist in their heads” (Barton, 2004, p. 7).

The “Four Stances” or combinations of purpose and practice in learning history are what students are expected to do when they learn history:

- *Identify – one of the most common expectation is for students to glean a connection between someone or something in the past and themselves (creating a sense of individual or familial roots, becoming part of an imagined community or accepting the past as a ‘warrant’ or ‘charter for contemporary society’;
- *Analyze - students are asked to make “casual linkages” in history – i.e. cause and effect, developing generalizations and learning how accounts are made;
- *Respond morally – to condemn those who did wrong and to commemorate, admire and celebrate those who did right;
- *Display – exhibit knowledge about the past and achieve a successful assessment result (Barton, 2004, p. 7 - 8).

Barton goes on to identify socio-cultural *tools* that students must utilize when learning history and when engaging in the above four “stances.” These tools involve utilizing historical narratives, narratives of individual achievement and motivation, the story of national freedom and progress, historical inquiry, historical empathy are identified to help students make sense of the past (Barton, 2004, p. 10 – 11).

Barton also notes that the academic assumption is often made that children and adults innately employ these tools to engage in cultural activities and interactions around their own history and society. However, many people counter with an argument of apathy and lack of baseline knowledge in the citizenry. Based on a mid-1990s survey of 1,500 Americans conducted by Roy Rosenzweig and David Thelen, participants claimed regular immersion with “history” by volunteering at local historical organizations, constructing family genealogies, restoring old homes, playing war-strategy games and collecting memorabilia. But is this the “wrong” kind of history? Respondents felt more drawn to personal experiences of people in their past rather than public events or national narratives – they favored direct engagement (museums, oral history with relatives working on historical hobbies) (Barton, 2004, p. 12 – 13). Some believe K – 12 students “know” even less. Some believe they know more about “culture” and not actual or academic “history” (Barton, 2004, p. 17).

So, is the purpose or goal of history and social studies classes to teach learners how to use academic tools to vet and place in context the “history” they learn in societal settings? Is it to make personal connections to past events? Is it to score “ready” on a standardized exam? Is it to build a sense of responsibility and obligation as a citizen? Is it all or none of these? Wineburg eloquently reminds researchers and educators that students are already ‘historic beings’ When they arrive in a classroom. Instead of teaching them based on what they *DO* know about history, the powers that be focus on what they do *NOT* know (Stearns, 2000, p. 307). He goes on to describe the educators’ and researchers’ knowledge of student acumen as a “blurry and indistinct image of the learner and the kinds of ideas this learner brings to instruction” (pp. 308 – 309). He reminds us that the classroom is only one of the ways to learn history, and not necessarily the most important (p. 310). P.J. Lee suggests that, “the vicarious experience that is acquired in

learning history stimulates the imagination and extends the learner's conception of what it is to be human, and therefore what he or she might become... the claim is that someone who has learnt some history will be better equipped to cope with the world than he would be had he not learnt it" (Dickinson, Lee & Rogers, 1984, p. 13).

State and local history courses have also been shown to be a natural fit for students' entry into working with primary and secondary sources. State and local history also forms a manageable frame of reference for future United States history courses – identification, analysis, inquiry, civic engagement projects, evidence-gathering and synthesis – digging in to find the why and how. All of this can all be honed while taking a state history course, before moving on to upper level history and social studies courses in high school and college. Plus, state and local history can be more relatable to students, who can practice critical-thinking and presentation skills while reading about something they may be more interested in learning about (Strauss, 2017, n.p.). These skills empower students to engage in historical thinking (Kern, 2016, n.p.), support the rationale described here, and connect to best practices for teaching history.

Best Practices in State History and Place-Based Education (PBE)

The literature base supporting best practices in state history is relatively thin in relation to history education overall and is largely anecdotal in nature. With this in mind, a review of these practices (with the important caveat that anecdotal evidence entails) is provided from vignettes in the popular press and The America Association of State and Local History. What follows are highlights of practice in state history from Donna Ross, a fourth grade teacher at Abington Avenue School in Newark; Megan Osborn, who teaches at Sunset Ridge Middle School in West Jordan, Utah; Josalynn Agnew, a fourth grade at Monroe Elementary and Michele Mead, Scavo

Alternative High School, both in Des Moines; Michele Celani, who teaches at Baldwin High School in Midgeville, Georgia; Governor Andrew Cuomo and the State of New York; Anthony Rovente, a teacher at Lopez Island Middle School, Washington (state) and the state legislatures and Boards of Education of Iowa, Tennessee, and Indiana for promoting a renewed importance on the teaching of state history. Arkansas has also had newsworthy moments while fighting for the continuation of state history sources in secondary schools, continuing to educate its teachers in best practices and state history pedagogy and improving resources to best serve students.

Ross works at a school that elects to teach New Jersey history for one year (as opposed to the required semester). She entices students with a giant wall-sized map of New Jersey with her students, as they “go into the map” placing stickers, photos, and labels where important companies are headquartered, on the hometowns of famous New Jerseyans and where significant historic events occurred. In a nation where every town has a McDonald’s, she strives to make her content unique for her students, according to Marc Mappen, an associate dean at the University College of Rutgers and an expert New Jersey history author. Mappen also served on a New Jersey state task force about state history courses, assembled by the state governor, that found that New Jerseyans actually know little about their state and that teachers in New Jersey are not required to take state history courses to earn their teaching certificate (Newman, 1999, p. 2). Other teachers in New Jersey schools use a cross-curricular approach like studying in-state dinosaur bone discoveries and a science and history lesson and students journaling daily about their hometown and community lives. A textbook writer visited the Abington school and spoke to the idea of transient families diminishing the need for local and state history. “Learning about New Jersey gives children a sense of pride. Even if they haven’t lived here all their lives, they live here now” (Newman, 1999, p. 8). Other topics covered that engage the students were noted

as “firsts” in New Jersey, immigration and using music and songs to interpret facts and bring content to life.

Megan Osborn in West Jordan, Utah, gets her students moving, asking questions that they must answer with physical poses. Osborn was named Gilder Lehrman’s History Teacher of the Year for Utah in 2018. One of her most innovative practices was creating an “escape room” based on an actual Utah train robbery. She takes her students outside or into the auditorium to reenact historic scenes and play history games. They also decipher Navajo and Morse code, all topics studied in Utah state history. Osborn’s love of Utah state history and her willingness to branch out and teach it differently, came from her professors at Utah state university. She also incorporates more serious social and civic issues, such as homelessness in Utah and her student work in a modified project-based/problem-based model to solve. They sent their proposal to the local and state government and received a response from their hometown mayor who interacted with students to discuss. He brought community partners and advocates to the students to discuss their proposal. “That’s what I love about teaching state history – they can see history happened here – things that were important happened in Utah. I like when they can make those connections,” Osborn said (Klopsch, 2018, n.p.).

Agnew and Mead teach in Iowa and collaborated with the State Historical Museum of Iowa to develop an innovative program that build-relationships with at-risk student populations using state history as the content vehicle. Agnew takes her fourth grade students, many of whom are immigrants and for whom English is a second language, to the museum for “museum school” to access exhibits, artifacts, and historical objects and for hands-on learning. Students become experts in their area of interest. A culminating presentation occurs at the end of the year on the stage of the museum auditorium. The high school students have a similar, but more intense

museum class experience and serve as mentors for the younger students. This unique community mentoring program creates leadership and learning opportunities and builds community pride (AASLH, 2015).

Celani, a high school teacher in Georgia, was recognized for her innovation in teaching state history using technology with her “Drive-Bys: A Teacher Makes the Case for Local History Markers” initiative. Celani believes that roadside historical markers are under-appreciated and underutilized - especially by students. Many state historical societies, specifically the one in Georgia, are digitizing state historical (roadside) markers and putting them online and in apps. Celani uses these apps a research tool to address Common Core Literacy Standards. Students create travel tours, blogs, and games using programs like Glogster and Prezi, based on info provided on the app. Students can also create podcasts based on the marker’s info, act out tableaux depicting the scene described on the marker or interview living participants in the marker’s event (AASLH, 2016).

Governor Andrew Cuomo and the New York State Department of Education went so far as to create the ‘Path Through History’ website in honor of New York’s state history education month each November. Thirteen themes, including arts & culture, civil rights, sports history, U.S. presidents, canals, and women’s rights are included. The site helps visitors digitally explore New York’s state history. Attractions by region and trip planning to visit historic sites are also offered. More than 3,200 signs along New York’s roadways correspond with the site and include museums, military sites and forts, historic homes of famous New Yorkers and presidential residences (AASLH, 2015).

At Lopez Island Middle School in Washington state, teacher Anthony Rovente and parent Tim Fry used Rovente’s teaching and content knowledge, and Fry’s marketing and business

expertise, to create a tech-based app called “Washington State Insider.” It was a semester-long project referred to as “ProjectWA”. Fry tested the app with his family by embarking on a 200-mile road trip and visiting fifty app locations in two months. The technology, similar to ‘Pokemon-Go’ has inspired a second app called *468FieldTrip* – inspired by overwhelming demand from teachers and students (Neuts, 2017, n.p.) Positive use of screen time has sent students out into their communities and in-turn, sparked interest in state and local history and helped build community relationships.

In 2017, the NCSS surveyed 103,000 students and 1,400 educators nationwide and found that students overwhelmingly (82.6%) believed the greatest benefits of their social studies classes was “knowledge of world events” and 54.6% said that classes helped them understand their role as a citizen, and only 27.3% said it inspired them to becoming involved in their community. Students further requested more field trips to museums and historical sites (78.3%) and more guest speakers from the community (29.5%), speaking to the relationship-building and outreach piece of state and local history curriculum (Paska, 2018, p. 1).

This sampling of best practices in teaching state history from across the country prove that the genre is viable, speaks to cross-curricular strategies, practices analysis, critical thinking, civic engagement, and writing skills, can improve community relations and can be done well with students and innovation in mind, if and when allowed and supported. The examples also illustrate how critical the preparation and passion of the teacher is to make state history meaningful for students.

Given the tumultuous history of history in public schools and the tenuous place that state history holds within that particular maelstrom, it is evident that knowledge generated to reveal teachers’ perceptions of the benefits that state history can provide students and future citizens

could prove helpful. The existence of significant gaps in solid peer-reviewed, research-based, data-driven literature on the necessity of state history courses in the social studies course hierarchy punctuates the need for attention.

Finally, if we want to know more about how to improve state history for the future, who better to ask than the educators who confront the curricular and pedagogical issues facing state history every day in the classroom.

Chapter Three - Research Method

Given the relative lack of research into the affordances provided by state history, this dissertation takes the form of an exploratory qualitative survey interview study, which includes initial participant questionnaires and selected follow-up interviews, all with the goal of developing findings that could guide further research into the teaching of state history. This study incorporates, and is greatly influenced by, my background as an educator, writer, researcher, curriculum, and state history advocate, and learner.

Nature of the Study

An exploratory qualitative survey and interview study (Creswell, 2012, p. 382) is appropriate for this research topic and multi-part question because it is an approach suited for exploring a topic for understanding (Creswell, 2012). As such, I serve as the primary research instrument, one who “asks participants broad, general questions, collects the detailed views of the participants in the forms of words and/or images, and analyzes information for descriptions and themes” (p. 626). Merriam (1998) notes that generic qualitative studies are one of the most common forms of research in education, and she takes the view that “generic qualitative research studies are those that epitomize the characteristics of qualitative research but rather than focusing on culture as does ethnography, or the building of theory as does grounded theory, “they simply seek to discover and understand a phenomenon, a process, or the perspectives and worldviews of the people involved” (p. 11)” (Caelli, et al., 2003, p. 2).

In 2002, Mehra shared an online post that certainly rings true for me in my journey to select a research topic and method and my belief in their importance:

A researcher's personal beliefs and values are reflected not only in the choice of methodology and interpretation of findings, but also in the choice of a research topic. In other words, what we believe in determines what we want to study. Traditional positivist research paradigm has taught us to believe that what we are studying often has no personal significance. Or, that the only reason driving our research is intellectual curiosity (which is a valid reason on its own). But more often than not, we have our personal beliefs and views about a topic – either in support of one side of the argument, or on the social, cultural, political sub-texts that seem to guide the development of the argument.

(p. 6)

Given a direct personal connection with state history, the exploratory qualitative survey and interview study is particularly suitable because the researcher draws from personal reflections and has the flexibility to present the information in a pragmatic fashion that accounts for the researcher's biases and thoughts (Creswell, 2012).

Research Design

Despite its designation as an exploratory qualitative survey and interview study, this dissertation is not without research design, as, "Every type of empirical research has an implicit, if not explicit, research design" (Yin, 1994, p. 19). Maxwell (2008) identifies five components of this straightforward type of study: goals, conceptual framework, research questions, methods, and validity (Maxwell, 2008, 216). Maxwell's simple research design was the basis of the work.

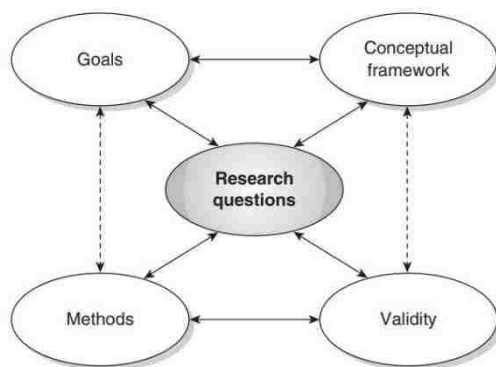


Figure 7.1 An Interactive Model of Research Design

SOURCE: From *Qualitative Research Design: An Interactive Approach*, by J. A. Maxwell, 2005. Copyright by SAGE.

Figure 3.1, An Interactive Model of Research Design, Maxwell, Qualitative research design: An interactive approach (2nd ed.) 2005).

Since the goals and nature of this dissertation study have already been discussed, the remainder of this chapter: (1) describes my positionality as a qualitative researcher; (2) connects my research questions with specific methods of data collection; (3) provides an overview of the data collection instruments used; (4) outlines the plan used for iterative data analysis; and (5) describes procedures which accounted for bias, validity, and ethical considerations.

Researcher Bias and Positionality

Bias is defined by Merriam Webster as “an inclination of temperament or outlook; especially: a personal and sometimes unreasoned judgment.” Certainly, a rational, schooled mind knows that bias exists in virtually every moment of everyday life, and certainly in research, and must be acknowledged, while also knowing that bias is not always a negative – it can be viewed as expertise, or passion, or sincere interest, as long as it is declared, addressed, and managed from the onset of a project. In reflecting on teaching a class for beginning qualitative researchers, Mehra (2002) writes that some level of researcher bias is expected and understood by experienced researchers (p. 2). As a formally educated journalist and writer, I understand the power of bias and the constant consciousness it requires. I do have biases, or positive

predispositions in favor of the consistent and meaningful teaching of state history throughout a social studies curriculum. However, I believe this partiality comes from genetics, heritage, training, education, study, research, reasoned real-world practice, collaboration with colleagues, and a desire to make curriculum and content more personal and meaningful to students.

“Traditionally, students have been told to base this decision [choosing a topic] on either faculty advice or the literature on their topic. However, personal goals and experiences play an important role in many research studies. Strauss and Corbin (1990, pp. 35–36) argue that choosing a research problem through the professional or personal experience route may seem more hazardous than through the suggested [by faculty] or literature routes. This is not necessarily true. The touchstone of your own experience may be more valuable an indicator for you of a potentially successful research endeavor” (Maxwell, 2005, 200), thus my choosing of a topic so connected to my work and to me. Additionally, Creswell (2007) recommends that researchers include information about their own experiences in qualitative studies.

According to Dwyer and Buckle (2009) in *The Space Between: On Being an Insider-Outsider in Qualitative Research*, I am definitely an “insider” in relation to state history. I grew up around it, wrote a textbook about it, and have taught it for many years – both of the latter definitely indicating potential bias, but addressed in detail in the following pages. Dwyer and Buckle offered this quote, which I found personally relevant: “The qualitative researcher’s perspective is perhaps a paradoxical one: it is to be acutely tuned-in to the experiences and meaning systems of others – to indwell – and at the same time to be aware of how one’s own biases and preconceptions may be influencing what one is trying to understand” (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994, p. 123). The authors go on to discuss that being an “insider” does not make one a better or worse researcher, but a different one. I certainly believe that it brings meaningful

insight and desire to the project, but also requires a great deal more self-policing and awareness as data is collected. It forces the constant reminder of the use of an objective lens, for which I will draw heavily upon my journalism background to facilitate (Dwyer, 2009, p. 55).

To address biases and alleviate potential concerns, I will offer a brief summary of my ‘researcher identity memo’ (summary below; full version, see *Appendix F*). Traditionally, what one brings to the research from their personal background and identity has been treated as “bias,” something whose influence needs to be eliminated from the design, rather than a valuable component of it. However, the explicit incorporation of your identity and experience (what Strauss, 1987, calls “experiential data”) in your research has recently gained much wider theoretical and philosophical support (e.g., Berg & Smith, 1988; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Jansen & Peshkin, 1992; Strauss, 1987). Using this experience in your research can provide you with a major source of insights, hypotheses, and validity checks... This is not a license to impose your assumptions and values uncritically on the research. Reason (1988) uses the term critical subjectivity to refer to a quality of awareness in which we do not suppress our primary experience; nor do we allow ourselves to be swept away and overwhelmed by it; rather we raise it to consciousness and use it as part of the inquiry process. (p. 12)” (Maxwell, 2008, pp. 224 – 225).

As a child of educators and a five-generation Texas family, pride for one’s home state, a knowledge of its historical significance and the value of personal connections are deeply ingrained. A family who promotes a passionate interest in government and politics, service beyond self and one who holds a belief in the educational power of travel also contributed to my interest in heritage, community, and state.

After a childhood and K – 12 educational experience filled with the importance of education, travel, civic service, and the value of state and local history, upon arriving for college, I was surprised to learn that Arkansas history was not a required college course at the flagship, land-grant state university (flagship institutions are typically the best-known institutions in the state, will often be the first to have been established and are frequently the largest and most selective, as well as the most research-intensive public universities [College Board, 2016 – 2017]). I had taken Texas history classes for two years in public school (from the same very traditional, yet very impressive and influential teachers who had either taught my parents or worked as colleagues with one or both of my grandmothers) and most Texas colleges and universities require one or more Texas history government or history classes for its students (University of Texas, 2016, p. 18 general graduation requirements). At the time of my enrollment at the U of A, unless in a very specific academic program, Arkansas history, state and local government, and the like were not a basic graduation requirement for the university and still are not. It was not until I began work on my Master of Arts in teaching with a certification emphasis in social studies, that I was required to take Arkansas history. This flew in the face of all that I had been taught was important. To me, when attending a state university, any state university, one should be required to learn about that state – certainly course options such as state and local government or state politics could be included, along with a more traditional state history course, but yes, each student should know something about the state. To combat this lack of academic promotion of the state, I became immediately entrenched by attending university sporting events, changing my driver’s license to an Arkansas license, and volunteering as a campus student ambassador to lead prospective student tours and answer questions about this amazing

university, its history, and the state. My indoctrination was swift and total. I was thrilled to learn about my small, but mighty, adopted home state.

Many have argued why should a student who may only live in that state for four to five years (or less), learn about that state? My question is, ‘Why shouldn’t they?’ If they choose to attend school in a state other than their own “home” state, then they should make the effort to learn a little about that state – one semester’s worth, at least – it should be an expectation.

Thankfully, work on my master’s degree required my taking Arkansas history, which despite it being a summer course in an un-air-conditioned building, I loved it.

I began teaching my own Arkansas History classes in Fayetteville Public Schools in August of 2003. With each and every day that passed, and each and every lesson I taught, I strived to perfect my craft and expand my knowledge about Arkansas and its stories. I attended as many professional development sessions as possible and worked to learn as much about the intricacies of the state I could. I set about growing professionally within my district as well though volunteer committee work, community service, various trainings, and special projects and assignments.

Unbeknownst to me at the time, at one seemingly benign stop in my professional development quest, I would meet someone who greatly impacted my path as a social studies teacher, writer, learner, and professional. At the Arkansas State Historical Association meeting in Fort Smith in 2005, I met Larry Malley, director of the University of Arkansas Press. Larry engaged me in conversation about who I was, where I was from and upon learning that I was an Arkansas history teacher, asked if I used the UA textbook in my classroom and if so, what my thoughts were. Fayetteville Schools did use the textbook at the time and so I politely said it was fine and tried to move along. Larry’s inquisitive and conversational Irish heritage pushed him to

keep probing and so began a series of meetings, brainstorming sessions, and friendly arguments about the merits of an investment in a revitalized Arkansas History textbook published by the University of Arkansas Press. At the conclusion of the fourth or fifth “coffee visit,” he slapped his hands on the giant oval-shaped wooden table that served as his office desk and said, “Why don’t *YOU* just rewrite this book?!?!?!?” I laughed and moved on and he reiterated his seriousness. He believed that my teaching the content, having a Journalism/Advertising/Public Relations degree and corporate/technical writing career background would serve this endeavor well. We explored what the process would look like, a contract was drafted, and the work began in 2006, for a 2008 publication and social studies curriculum cycle review by the Arkansas Department of Education (ADE).

I believe in accepting diverse personal and professional challenges to become well-rounded as an educator, colleague, leader, Arkansan, and citizen, and to be able to continue to maintain a growth mindset – thus, the textbook project and other professional and academic quests thereafter. In the 2017 – 2018 school year, I took yet another turn on the path that is my teaching journey, as one of a four-member team who opened a new virtual (hybrid) high school in Fayetteville Public Schools as the social studies teacher for those enrolled in 9th – 12th grade classes at Fayetteville Virtual Academy (FVA). I also developed an Arkansas History curriculum for the virtual learners, as the content provider does not offer state history modules. I continued to work to complete my PhD in Curriculum and Instruction at the conclusion of 2019. In the summer of 2018, I (unexpectedly) accepted an offer to serve as an Instructional Facilitator in the Springdale School District (the district immediately adjacent/north to Fayetteville Schools). The Springdale School District is the largest in Arkansas, serving one of the most diverse populations

– a population that includes a large number of Latinx students and the largest concentration of Marshallese students outside of the Marshall Islands.

Am I biased about the importance of teaching state history – utilizing it as a valuable curriculum vehicle – a learning journey? Absolutely – and I believe so with valid reason. However, I certainly understand and respect the academic and professional requirements of a researcher and the necessity of an objective lens when collecting data, surveying sources and compiling results. I am wholly committed to the validity, relevance, and integrity of this study and hope that my experiences and connection to the subject lend an authority and meaningful context to the study. The issue is with being an honest researcher, a thorough researcher and maintaining a constant awareness of biases and working to be as neutral as possible without marginalizing passion. I know that I must complete a comprehensive analysis of all the data, even if the outcome discounts my preconceptions. In 1998 Mehra noted that Denzin reflected that for research to be of value, it must move beyond the researcher and the researcher’s situation (p. 7), and I know that is essential in my hope to explore the value of state history education within the social studies context.

In *Designing Qualitative Research*, Marshall and Rossman (2008) wrote that “Research design should include reflections on one’s sense of voice and perspectives, assumptions, and sensitivities” (p. 198) and I know this is true in my case. I strongly believe that my personal educational experience, family history, and background led me to this point. Marshall and Rossman add that “researchers ‘come clean’ with assumptions, any prior observations or associations that might influence the research, and any personal connections and histories that could be useful or, conversely, could be seen as a harmful bias (p. 198), thus the purpose of the previous narrative. This piece is me “coming clean” about my motivations, methods, and goals in

this endeavor. There is no hidden agenda or ulterior motive – it is actually extremely simple: I believe social studies is a critical curriculum component in education and I believe state history is an often overlooked and under-utilized tool within the social studies pedagogy.

Certainly, research and writings must be accurate, fact-based, and well-tested, with appropriate data collection methods, especially in the ever-pervasive world of “fake news,” but that is not to say that conviction, personal experience, relevance, timeliness, and passion should not play a role – that there is not value in the researcher being a valuable tool in the process. Mehra follows with, “...the researcher is an important part of the process. The researcher cannot separate himself or herself from the topic/people he or she is studying, it is in the interaction between the researcher and researched that the knowledge is created. So, the researcher bias enters into the picture even if the researcher tries to stay out of it” (Mehra, 2002, p. 7).

Modes of Data Collection

This study utilized survey elements with multiple phases of data collection that included: (1) an initial questionnaire designed to ascertain participants’ thoughts on the status and importance of teaching state history; (2) follow-up interviews with selected participants who responded to the initial questionnaire and indicated a willingness to participate further, and (3) request for submission of curricular or instructional materials that participants deemed as noteworthy or of high quality. Each of these, as well as the intended participants, is described in the sections that follow. “Survey research is a method of collecting standardized data from a [large] number of respondents. Survey research designs are characterized by the collection of data using standard questionnaire forms” (Briggs, A. R. J., 2012, p. 140).

Participants

Purposeful sampling was employed because it is crucial for the study's participants to be state history teachers and purposeful sampling provides for, "particular settings, persons, or events are deliberately selected for the important information they can provide that cannot be gotten as well from other choices" (Maxwell, 1997, p. 87). While it is possible for purposeful samples to involve just a single case (Patton, 1990), attempts were made to reach as many state history teachers as possible using the methods described below.

Participants were contacted and invited to participate through 38 specific state and regional Social Studies Councils, state education department social studies coordinators, and associated listservs in all of the states that research identified as having a demonstrated commitment to teaching state history: Alaska, Arkansas, Iowa, Kansas, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Utah, and Washington. Emails with a link to the initial questionnaire and the invitation to participate were distributed through these 38 channels using Qualtrics and direct email, some directly to the state council presidents, board secretary or communications director who were located through a direct, simple Google search (i.e. Thomas Fulbright, President, and Lori Rice Board Secretary, of the Kansas Council for Social Studies and Emily Wilson, President, Kansas Council for History Education) (April 29 timeframe). The chair of this dissertation committee is the current treasurer and past-president of the Arkansas Council for Social Studies (ACSS) and although he did not participate as a survey respondent, he did receive an email as a member of that group's listserv. After a week (May 7 timeframe) with few responses, and one outright decline to distribute the survey response request at all (Jim Doris, Texas Education Association, May 7), a second strategy was employed for outreach and the data collection window was extended. Upon advice from the committee chair,

an education marketing firm, Agile Prospector, was utilized to acquire state and local history teacher-specific email addresses for a nominal fee paid by the researcher. A composite list of 1,389 email addresses was obtained with teachers in Alaska, Arkansas, California, Florida, Georgia, Hawaii, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Louisiana, Maine, Massachusetts, Missouri, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Utah, and Washington identified. A second round of emails was sent out through Qualtrics to all those who appeared on the Agile Prospector list on June 4, with automated reminders on June 11, and June 19, 2019. The teachers who responded to the questionnaire served as the initial participant pool, though as Patton (1990) notes, it may be necessary to add to or change the participants if conditions warrant it, as the research design “should be understood to be flexible and emergent” (p. 186).

For the second phase of data collection, participants were identified from the initial pool based upon responses to the questionnaire and their willingness to participate further. Initial participant categories included, but were not limited to:

- 1) years of experience
- 2) those who participated in a discussion about ‘place-based’ education
- 3) State in which the participant teaches
- 4) Those who believe state has a “rich” state history and those who do not
- 5) Those who believe a *state* history course should be a mandatory graduation requirement in each state
- 6) Those who believe it is challenging to find useful, professional, contemporary, engaging, meaningful materials and lessons to teach state history, and those who do not
- 7) Those who believe their state provides supports/develops curriculum to ensure the teaching of state history as a vital and meaningful subject in social studies and those who do not.

These categories provided an overall demographic portrait of respondents, while also qualifying their belief in the significance of a required state history course, yet they did not feel supported in this belief by their state in regard to professional training and curriculum materials.

Four of the five interviewees received their initial email contact based on an email obtained through the Agile Prospector list. The fifth, the Arkansas respondent, was not contacted based on that list. Of the three of those who indicated they were willing to be interviewed but did not respond to the email request to do so, two were Arkansas teachers, not on the Agile Prospector list, and one was a Texas teacher who was on the Agile Prospector contact list.

All participants who included their email address on the Qualtrics questionnaire response form were entered into a random drawing for a \$50 Amazon gift card for their time. All interview participants were entered into a random drawing for a \$100 Amazon gift card.

Data Sources

The first phase of data collection utilized a researcher-designed, online survey instrument (specifically, a questionnaire) (see *Appendix G*) distributed via the University of Arkansas Qualtrics system. The questionnaire is divided into two sections: demographic data and perceptions/experiences. Questions were demographic in nature, gathering characteristics of the respondent population, as well as Likert-scale and open-ended questions about personal experiences with state history courses and professional development since graduating from a teacher-preparation program. Questions were also included to gather a broad profile of the district/school in which the respondent teachers.

(Questions 1 – 5 – demographic)

(Question 11 – Yes/No)

(Questions 14 – 19 – purpose and perceptions, open response)

(Question 20 – follow-up requests/contact information)

(Questions 6 – 10 Likert scale)

(Question 12 - 13 – Likert scale)

Qualitative Progression and Interview Question Design

Subsequently, teachers were identified for an intensive, semi-structured, open-ended follow-up phone interviews based on questionnaire responses. Interview questions were crafted based on initial questionnaire responses (see *Appendices G and H*). Specific interview questions were designed to collect more specific and detailed data pertaining to the research questions. In addition to open-ended question responses influencing interview question design, questions were crafted according to the schema below.

Table 3.2 Interview Questions Design Schema

Likert Questionnaire Item	Interview Question Number	Interview Question Number	Interview Question Number	Interview Question Number	Interview Question Number	Interview Question Number
State history is suitable for all K-12 students.	6	17	18	19		
My state has a "rich" state history.	14	15	17	18	19	
State history should be a graduation requirement in my state.	9	10	11	12	13	17
State history should be a graduation requirement in every state.	9	10	11	12	13	17
It is challenging to find high quality materials and lessons to teach state history.	16	17	18			
My state provides supports/offers curriculum to ensure the teaching of state history as a vital and meaningful subject in social studies.	8	13	16	17	18	19
My district or state should provide more professional development for state history teachers.	11	12	13			

Table 3.2 Interview Questions Design Schema (cont...)

Open-Ended Questionnaire Item	Interview Question Number	Interview Question Number	Interview Question Number	Interview Question Number	Interview Question Number	Interview Question Number
Purpose of teaching and learning history?	6	12	13	15	16	17
<i>(cont...)</i> Purpose of teaching and learning history?	18	19				
In what ways does learning history uniquely contribute?	6	12	13	15	16	17
<i>(cont...)</i> In what ways does learning history uniquely contribute?	18	19				
Most beneficial impacts learning history has on students?	6	8	9	10	11	16
<i>(cont...)</i> Most beneficial impacts learning history has on students?	17	18				
Most challenging aspect of teaching state history?	8	9	10	11	13	14
Most important actions to improve state history?	8	9	10	11	12	13

During the recorded phone interviews (with the exception of the correspondence with James, who requested to respond only via email), the researcher took notes, then had interview recordings professionally transcribed verbatim using the Rev.com application. Themes were identified, recorded, and compared. Once data collection concluded, it was organized into a categorial Excel spreadsheet with individual columns with an alias assigned to each respondent.

Each column aligned each individual response as to be aligned for visual comparison and detailed analysis.

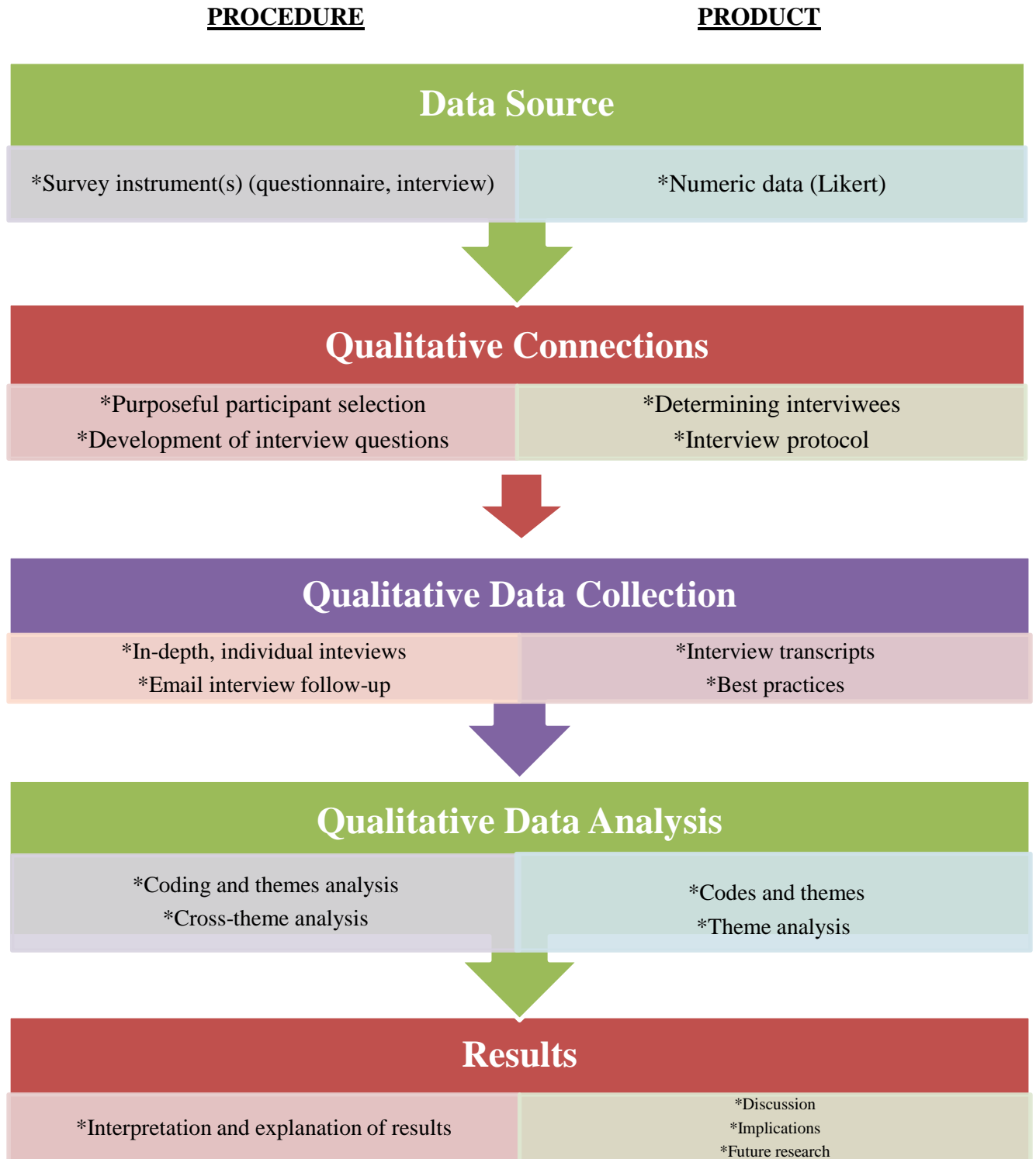


Figure 3.3. *Qualitative Progression*, Hopper, 2019 (based on Creswell, 2012, pp. 236 -264)

Data Analysis

In Figure 3.4 below, (Creswell, 8.1, 2012, p.237) Creswell illustrates the six-step “bottom up” approach to analysis. This was used as a touchstone to establish the framework for the process.

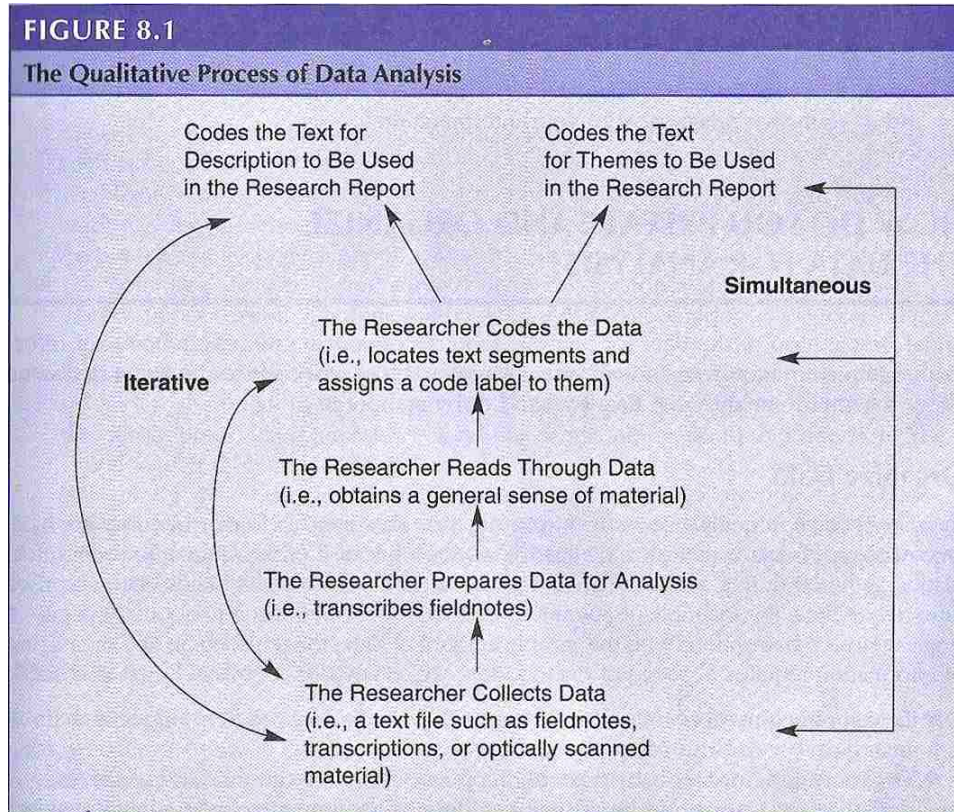


Figure 3.4. *The Qualitative Process of Data Analysis*, Creswell, 8.1, 2012, p. 237

In addition, resources from Hoepfl and Patton informed the process. “Bogdan and Biklen define qualitative data analysis as “working with data, organizing it, breaking it into manageable units, synthesizing it, searching for patterns, discovering what is important and what is to be learned, and deciding what you will tell others” (1982, p. 145), (Hoepfl, 1997, p. 54). “Qualitative researchers tend to use inductive analysis of data, meaning that the critical themes emerge out of the data” (Patton, 1990). Qualitative analysis requires some creativity, for the challenge is to

place the raw data into logical, meaningful categories; to examine them in a holistic fashion; and to find a way to communicate this interpretation to others” (Hoepfl, 1997, pp. 54 – 55).

Step 1: Prepare and Organize the Data for Analysis - replies to demographic questions were analyzed and categorized to build a composite description of respondents. Demographic characteristics included grade(s) taught, years taught, district/school location, subject(s) taught and required professional development offered/required.

Step 2: Explore and Code the Data - responses to questions regarding attitudes about and perceptions of (local and) state history, as well as social studies pedagogy, curriculum, and professional development were gathered using seven Likert scale questions. Davison notes that in 2004, Buckingham and Saunders stated the following: “A 5-point Likert Scale is frequently used to measure and quantify attitudes (Davison, 2014, p. 4). Even though a numerical Likert scale was used, in qualitative research, Maxwell quotes Strauss (1987) who said coding is “to fracture” and not to produce counts. Responses were coded using traditional pen and paper coding and deduction. Coding is “the process of segmenting and labeling text to form descriptions and broad themes in the data. The object is to make sense of the data, divide, label and examine it and then collapse its information into broad themes. It is an inductive process of narrowing” (Creswell, 2012, p. 243).

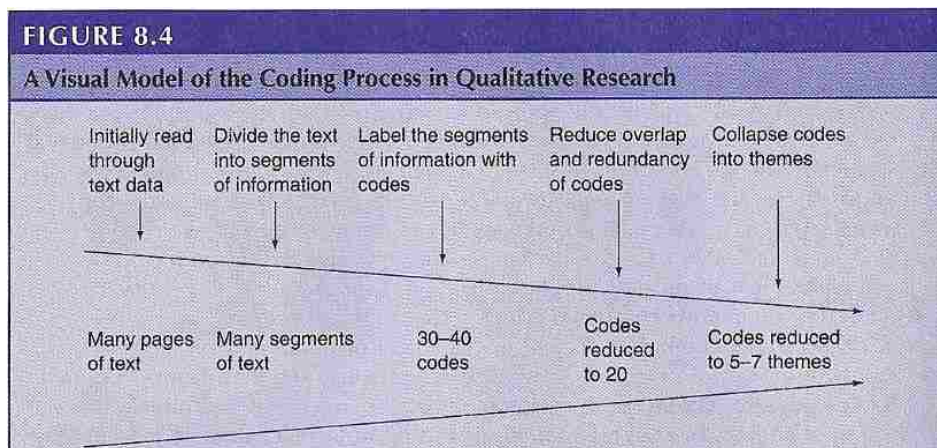


Figure 3.5 A Visual Model of the Coding Process in Qualitative Research, Creswell, 2012, p. 244.

Step 3: Coding to Build Description and Themes – similar codes were aggregated together to form a major idea in the database, with labels of no more than two to four words. Initial analysis may produce 30 to 50 codes, but subsequent analysis reduced this to five to seven themes (Creswell, 2012, p. 248). Coding included, but was not limited to, general categories/topics and perceptions, status of state history, benefits of state history being taught, evidence of these benefits, issues facing teachers of state history and ways in which it could improve. “An important set of distinctions in planning your categorizing analysis is between what I call organizational, substantive, and theoretical categories (Maxwell, 2005). Organizational categories are generally broad subjects or issues that you establish prior to your interviews or observations, or that could usually have been anticipated. McMillan and Schumacher (2001) refer to these as *topics* rather than categories” (Maxwell, 2008, p.237).

In vivo coding, or phrases in the exact words of the participants rather than in the words of the researcher was used (Creswell, 2012, p. 621). The most commonly used type of qualitative data analysis, according to Miles & Huberman (1994), is constant comparison, which was employed in this study. Codes [organically] emerged during data analysis (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007, p. 565). As per Saldana, first cycle *descriptive* or *values* coding applied (2013).

Step 4: Represent and Report Qualitative Findings – Visual displays including figures, diagrams, and demographic tables were accompanied by narrative reflections about participant experience.

Step 5: Discussion/Interpretation of the Findings – The data was interpreted to reveal confirmation of the researcher’s personal views, comparisons between existing literature and study results, and identifying possible limitations and needed future studies.

Step 6: Validate the accuracy of the findings - To verify accuracy of the study and account for researcher bias, triangulation was used. Questionnaire responses, interview information, and submitted artifacts were used to corroborate data. Triangulation “reduces the risk that your conclusions will reflect on the systematic biases or limitations of a specific method and allows you to gain a better assessment of the validity and generality of the explanations that you develop” (Creswell, 2012, p. 261 - 262).

Overall, “analysis of data uses concepts from the theoretical framework and generally results in identification of recurring patterns, categories, or factors that cut through the data and help to further delineate the theoretical frame” (Caelli et al., 2003, p. 3).

Timeline

Upon University of Arkansas dissertation committee and IRB approval (initial submission, February 3, 2019; final approval date, April 24, 2019 - see *Appendix H*), data collection began in early May, 2019, with questionnaire survey response requests from the aforementioned groups. Questionnaire responses were collected for almost five weeks and interviews were conducted during two later weeks. The eight questionnaire respondents who expressed a willingness to participate in an interview were contacted via the researcher’s direct university student email the last week of September 2019. Five actually responded to the email and agreed to an interview to be scheduled after October 1. The data collection process concluded in mid-October 2019, analysis occurred, and conclusions were made through early November. “Qualitative researchers have few strict guidelines for when to stop the data collection process. Criteria include: 1) exhaustion of resources; 2) emergence of regularities; and 3) overextension or going too far beyond the boundaries of the research” (Guba, 1978). The

decision to stop sampling must take into account the research goals, the need to achieve depth through triangulation of data sources, and the possibility of greater breadth through examination of a variety of sampling sites” (Hoepfl, 1997, p. 54).

Credibility and Ethical Practices

Reliability is the degree a measure, performed at different times, resulting in the same measurement (Brannigan & Watson, 2009). Validity is the justification that a measurement device is accurate (Brannigan & Watson, 2009). To counter the possible innate or unintended bias discussed previously, sequential triangulation, or the use of multiple methods and data to enhance the validity of findings (Mathison, 1988, p. 13), was employed. Creswell and Miller defined [triangulation] to be “a validity procedure where researchers search for convergence among multiple and different sources of information to form themes or categories in a study” (Creswell and Miller, 2000, p. 126). According to Denzin (1978) and Patton (1999), four types of triangulation – methods, analyst, triangulation of sources, and theory/perspective – have been identified. Methods triangulation – the examination of the consistency of findings generated by different data collection methods – were utilized in this study.

Additionally, to further ensure credibility, validity, transparency, and the protection of participants, all guidelines of the mandated University of Arkansas Institutional Review Board (IRB) were followed in this endeavor (see *Appendix G*). When seeking survey respondents, the purpose and overview of the study were included for review. No participant was required to complete a subsequent interview after questionnaire responses were submitted. No respondent’s feedback, comments, opinions or otherwise were used in any punitive manner – this assurance was conveyed in advance to potential respondents.

Summary

This chapter provided an overview of the qualitative research design applied to this study of teacher perceptions regarding the place and purpose of state history in the overall K – 12 social studies curriculum pedagogy, and to identify the general dispositions of teachers toward the learning and teaching state history. Purposeful sampling was used to identify participants and email requests, and a questionnaire and interviews were used to collect data. An analytical pathway of categorial organization, pattern identification, emerging theme notation and coding were followed to determine conclusions, which were addressed in the subsequent chapter. Ethics, validity and reliability were addressed by triangulating research data, interviews, questionnaire responses, and artifacts.

Chapter Four - Themes and Analysis

Previous chapters discussed a need for a study about the state of state history, as well as a review of research literature about teachers' approaches to the teaching and learning of state history. In reviewing the literature, it was discovered that very little actually existed about this topic, so further investigation was warranted. As the study researcher and a state history teacher and advocate, I sought to determine if attitudes I had encountered previously were common amongst similar teachers. I also wanted to better understand the current place of state history in the social studies teaching pedagogy – how the value of the course is perceived by those who are teaching it, their colleagues and by those who are learning it and if, when and where it is taught in the curriculum sequence. Finally, I wanted to determine if the course is perceived as a benefit to students who take it by providing foundational skills, aptitudes, and dispositions which benefit them in their social studies professional or academic journey.

Research Question

The following three-part question guided the study:

How do state history teachers value and/or perceive the teaching and learning of state history?

- A. How do teachers perceive the value of state history content?
- B. What significance do teachers place on the teaching and learning of state history within a student's educational experience?
- C. How do teachers perceive the benefits that state history can specifically provide students within the broader range of skills, aptitudes, and dispositions that students receive when learning history in general?

Organizational Structure of Chapter

The first section of this chapter provides findings, in the form of summative, descriptive statistics, from the questionnaire responses received in phase one of data collection. The second section is descriptive analysis and demographics of the interview sample, which includes demographic profiles of the five interviewed subjects who took part in the second phase of data collection. The third section describes and explains the coding process. The fourth analyzes emergent themes in collected data. The final part of the chapter is a summary of fifteen subthemes based on multiple data coding cycles, as well as a discussion of co-occurrences of themes and subthemes.

Summary of Findings from Questionnaire

Of 61 respondents who responded to the item regarding grade levels taught, 54.10% taught middle level or junior high; 39.34% high school; 1.64% elementary and 4.92% classified themselves as 'other'. The greatest number of respondents taught state history (25.93%) and/or United States History (21.48%). Civics was taught by 11.85% of the group and World History by 10.37%. The remaining teachers were distributed amongst Economics, Geography and 'other'. Fifty-seven respondents identified the state in which they were teaching at the time they responded to the questionnaire. The states with the most representation were Texas (25), Arkansas (17), Kansas (5), and California (4). One teacher from each of the following states also responded to the questionnaire: Alaska, Georgia, Illinois, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Pennsylvania. Fifty-eight of the respondents provided details on the length of their teaching career (see Table 4.1):

Table 4.1 Participant Teaching Experience in Years

	Years of Teaching Experience						
	1-2	3-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21-30	Over 30
Number of Participating Teachers Responding to Questionnaire (n = 58)	8	5	7	11	11	11	5

When asked if they thought state history was important overall, 41 of 55 respondents indicated that it is very important (74.55%) and 14 of 55 (25.45%) said it was somewhat important. No one indicated that it was not important in this particular respondent group.

Table 4.2 provides a summary of descriptive statistics related to responses provided for Likert scale questions in the study questionnaire.

Table 4.2 Descriptive Statistics Summation of Likert Scale Questionnaire Responses

Item	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Tend to Disagree	Tend to Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
State history is suitable for all K-12 students.	5.56%	3.70%	3.70%	20.37%	25.93%	40.74%
My state has a "rich" state history.	1.82%	3.64%	0.00%	7.27%	14.55%	72.73%
State history should be a graduation requirement in my state.	1.85%	7.41%	12.96%	16.67%	27.78%	33.33%
State history should be a graduation requirement in every state.	1.85%	9.26%	20.37%	14.81%	22.22%	31.48%
It is challenging to find high quality materials and lessons to teach state history.	5.66%	16.98%	13.21%	13.21%	22.64%	28.30%
My state provides supports/offers curriculum to ensure the teaching of state history as a vital and meaningful subject in social studies.	7.41%	3.70%	12.96%	27.78%	37.04%	11.11%
My district or state should provide more professional development for state history teachers.	1.92%	0.00%	15.38%	32.69%	19.23%	30.77%

As indicated by the summation table above, a vast majority of participants (87.04%) agreed to some degree that state history is suitable for all K - 12 students. A majority of participants (77.78%) believe that history should be a graduation requirement in *their* state, while a lower percentage, but still a majority, (68.51%) believe that state history should be a graduation requirement in *every* state. Despite the strong feelings about the importance of history, the open-ended responses indicated that many teachers viewed the lack of time appropriated to state history to be their greatest challenge. Response excerpts such as “time in the curriculum”, “we don’t teach enough of it”, or “time and interest” captured this sentiment. In addition to the lack of time, many teachers described a perceived sense of apathy towards state history originating from administration, students, and even community.

“I would say it is the general antipathy [*sic*] toward state history in the grander scheme of things. History itself is undervalued. This is doubly so for "sub history" courses, such as state history.”

“Not getting treated like my course matters. My students will say, "I can fail your class and still get promoted to the 8th grade, because you're not a core class!" So basically, they have the idea my class is worthless.”

“Coming from a smaller state, the general national media attitude that shrugs off or belittles the ‘flyover country’ in which we exist, and the familiarity with their own state/community combine to make kids believe that the state and society around them is at best "nothing special" and at worst, lesser or inferior. These preconceived notions take time to overcome.”

Questionnaire responses also showed that the percentage of teachers who agreed to some degree that it is challenging to find high quality materials and lessons to teach state history outnumbered those who disagreed with that statement by almost 2 to 1 (64.15% and 35.85% respectively). This is a noticeable contrast to the fact that roughly 3 out of 4 teachers (75.93%) believe that their state provides curriculum to ensure the teaching of state history as a vital and meaningful subject in social studies. This apparent contradiction might be partially understood

when considered in concert with the fact that 82.69% of the participating teachers believed that their district or state should provide more professional development for state history teachers. When asked about the challenges that they faced when teaching state history, the lack of readily available teaching ideas and resources was a common refrain. One teacher from Oklahoma described the available textbooks as, “severely lacking in ancillary student materials”. Other teachers attributed the lack of resources as a factor in their ability to create, “lesson plans that are interesting and relevant”. These could be mutually reinforcing problems. The lack of resources and support provided by schools appears to reinforce the perception that state history is unimportant. Such lack of support could arguably constitute part of a ‘hidden curriculum’ that undermines the significance of a state history course. In turn, as the significance of state history declines, it is feasible to assume it will not become a higher priority for resources and support.

An overwhelming percentage of participating teachers (94.55%) agreed that their own state has a “rich” history. When asked about the ways in which state history *uniquely* contributes to learning history more broadly, the participating teachers’ responses were quite varied. A few of the participating teachers mentioned the important role they thought state history plays in learning about history in general or social studies more broadly. Participants suggested that state history “allows a unique perspective of the pros and cons of representative government”, “helps us understand people and societies”, and “helps enrich American History and explains why the state reacted as it did to events”. They valued these aspects of state history because of the “connection of the past to the present for the learner”, as well as the way that state history “sets up American history... government and geography.” This is interesting because these sentiments were not overwhelmingly expressed in the interviews, though that might be due to the fact that

this was not an often cited benefit of state history amongst the questionnaire participants and the teachers who expressed these ideas were ultimately not interview participants.

When teachers discussed the personal relevance that students might find in state history, they frequently cited the local nature of state history as a reason they found it to be more relatable and engaging for their students. One teacher described state history as, "the only history that students can claim locally as theirs. It is the state history that makes all children ready for all other history courses. Our state has so many museums and programs that will travel to your school or allow you to visit them, that we are rich in opportunity." Responses such as the following are representative of how teachers viewed the local nature of state history:

"Learning state history teaches students the importance of their own personal history and how each of us play a unique role in history."

"The most beneficial impact of learning state history for local students are the connections they are able to establish on a personal level. Making connections is the best way to learn and implement historical curriculum."

"Learning state history gives students the opportunity to engross themselves in their regional history and culture. It provides them the chance to learn where they came from as citizens of that state. It also provides them with a chance to examine the state's political history, thereby affording them a means of understanding why certain political groups within each state have certain bias or motivations that drive their decision-making."

While there were occasional mentions of common clichés and stereotypes regarding the role state history plays in fostering a sense of "pride" or "belonging", other responses went into greater detail by providing specific examples of engagement opportunities located in relatively close proximity. For example, one teacher from Louisiana described how students in the state learn about the impact that the Battle of New Orleans had on people in Louisiana after the War of 1812. This is a unique reference since the War of 1812 was the last time an invading enemy occupied territory in the mainland United States. Though most of these responses with specific

examples were brief, one Texas teacher who had taught somewhere between 10-15 years went into great detail with specifics:

There are a few points here. State history is unique in that it is accessible. Mount Vernon. The Liberty Bell. Normandy. Pearl Harbor. Or, the Forbidden City, Versailles, and the pyramids. You can show your students pictures. You can have your students read about them. You can describe them in all their glory. However, unless you are very fortunate in your students and access to funds, you are never going to experience "history" with your students. State history, however, is much more present. I can take my students to the fort in town, one where Robert E. Lee briefly served. Or to the site of an Indian burial ground. Or to any number of places with historical experience. State history is, for lack of a better way of putting it, "real" history for students. A second way state history contributes to the learning of history is that it is an easy way to build a diverse understanding of history. Too often we get caught up in either the monolithic structure of history or the attempts to subdivide it into so many separate categories that it is all but impossible to discern a common thread. Studying state history provides a nice medium for students who are only just developing an understanding of the subject.

It is interesting that this teacher referred to state history as "much more present". When considered along other responses that mentioned the "local" nature of history, the mention of "present" could also refer to the bridge between past and present that history teachers are looking to help their students develop meaningful personal connections. By examining local historical sites that still exist in the present day, it could be possible to encourage students to see the past through one of its tangible manifestations. In addition to this potentially insightful reference, the above teacher also points out how state history can help students understand history more broadly. While a number of teachers mentioned the role that state history plays as a "microcosm" of U.S. history, this particular teacher points out how broad historical narratives can take on a "monolithic structure", one that is undoubtedly difficult for students to wrap their minds around. State history, according to this teacher is a "medium" for students' efforts for developing understanding.

When providing specific examples of how state history makes a unique and locally-oriented contribution to history in general, it was not a surprise to find that teachers from Texas and California appeared most frequently in the responses because teachers from those two states made up a larger proportion of the participants for this study. However, the manner in which they discussed the unique histories of their states were also quite distinctive. Teachers from California typically described their state's unique contributions within the broader context of U.S. History. One teacher from California described the uniqueness of their state history as, “a rich history of Chinese, Japanese, Mexican and indigenous peoples who all contributed to building California up after the gold rush.” In contrast, responses from Texas teachers often reflected a sense of exceptionalism drawn from that state's status as a former republic.

“My state was a part of Spain, France and an independent country before joining the United States.”

“Texas is unique because it was previously a republic.”

“We were our own republic, the only state that can say that. We have a rich history, and my class teaches more than just the events; we teach about government, rights, and responsibilities.”

Although the conveyance of this particular sentiment is not specifically mandated in state social studies standards for 7th grade Texas history, it was clear that these teachers viewed this status as a formerly independent nation as important and perhaps even a source of pride.

In stark contrast to positive descriptions of state history, stood one middle level teacher from Arkansas with more than thirty years of teaching experience, who contradicted the prevailing sentiment by stating, “I do not believe it [state history] does contribute uniquely. It is good to understand community and the state as a whole, but learning history of the world and the United States is far more important than just one state's history.” Despite this sentiment that

could be qualified as somewhat adversarial, and the fact that many of the responses to this particular question were relatively brief, it was possible to discern some specific ways in which the participants viewed state history's unique contributions to historical study in general. In some cases, the questionnaire responses actually provided more insight than responses garnered from the interviewees in the next phase of the study. These responses, as well as the basic quantitative data gleaned from the questionnaire, would help inform the creation of interview questions for the second phase of data collection.

Interviews and Connections

Eight of the 72 questionnaire respondents indicated a willingness to participate in a semi-structured, recorded follow-up interview in their questionnaire. However, only five of the eight actually responded to an email invitation to do so. When speaking to four of the five interviewees (the correspondence with James was written, only via email, as per his request), verbal consent was requested and received for the entirety of the interview to be recorded, transcribed and used for the purposes of research in this associated study. With the exception of five initial demographic questions, the interview questions were open-ended to generate/gather qualitative data. Each Rev.com recorded phone interview lasted an average of 29.2 minutes with a range of 24.25 minutes to 32.35 minutes. The five interviewees represented four states: Arkansas, California, Georgia, and Texas (2), and had a range of experience levels. Each participant was assigned a pseudonym. Pseudonyms were chosen by the researcher from the most common given names in the United States and assigned by popularity (United States Social Security Bureau, 2019), and assigned based on alphabetical order of the name of the state in which the participant currently resides. The assigned pseudonyms in no way reveal or denote the

participant’s experience level or geographic location. “Researchers are routinely reminded of the importance of participant confidentiality as an ethical requirement of research (Coolican 1990; Creswell 2013; Roberts 2015). This includes, but is not limited to, using pseudonyms or false names to preserve anonymity (Thomas & Hodges 2010)” (Allen and Wiles, 2015, p. 2).

The Arkansas teacher (pseudonym James) is a 25-year veteran teacher. Similarly, the California teacher (pseudonym John) is also a veteran, with 29 years of teaching experience. The Georgia teacher (pseudonym Robert) has three years of teaching experience. The two Texas interviewees (pseudonyms Mary and Patricia) have 19 and three years of teaching experience, respectively. In total, all of the interview participants had accrued 79 years of teaching experience, and the average length of teaching experience was 15.8 years. Geographic regions were identified according to data from the United States Census Bureau Geography Division (United States Census Bureau, 2010). Geographic regions were a consideration when analyzing the data due to regional differences in the requirement of state history described in the literature review of this study. Table 4.3 summarizes the group’s experience categorizations, geographic region, state, and gender.

Table 4.3 Demographic Summary of Interview Participants

<i>Participant</i>	<i>Gender</i>	<i>Geographic Region</i>	<i>States Represented</i>	<i>Years Experience</i>
James	M	South/West South Central	AR	25
John	M	West/Pacific	CA	29
Robert	M	South/South Atlantic	GA	3
Mary	F	South/West South Central	TX	19
Patricia	F	South/West South Central	TX	3

These data points align with that of the larger questionnaire respondent group: 60% of the interview group and 65% of the questionnaire respondents have taught more than 10 years and 40% of the interviewees and 34% of questionnaire respondents have taught less than ten years. The largest numbers of respondents from both data collection groups were from Texas, California and Arkansas.

James teaches a semester-long Arkansas history course in a junior high with approximately 467 students in grades 7 and 8, in a city of approximately 75,000 people. James has a PhD in Heritage Studies which he completed in 2016. He holds state licensure in 7 – 12 social studies education. He grew up in a rural community in the same state in which he teaches, and recalls having taken some form of ‘stand-alone’ state history in 6th grade. He did take a semester-long state history course when working on his bachelor’s degree at an in-state college. He said that he also “took classes during my master’s and doctoral work that allowed focus on state topics.”

Teaching in what he describes as a “white middle class school with a growing demographic of low-income and minorities,” John is a 29-year teaching veteran who currently teaches U.S. History, government, and economics. He holds two bachelor’s degrees, school administration certification and California state education certification for social sciences and CLAD (Crosscultural, Language, and Academic Development for English Language Learners) in grades K - 12 – all from in-state universities. He was required to take a California state history course for one of his degrees but could not recall which. It “was a great class.”

Robert holds a master’s degree in secondary education, with a bachelor’s in Spanish Literature. He was not required to take a Georgia State history course to obtain his master’s or teaching license but was required to take the “G.A.C.E.”, or the Georgia Assessments for the

Certification for Educators, which he said did have questions on Georgia history. He was born in Georgia, but as a child, lived in Arkansas (where he met Bill Clinton on a field trip) and Texas. He does not recall having taken Georgia, Arkansas or Texas state history in grades K -12, but feels like he may have missed or “skipped” something due to his family moving. He teaches in a small public middle school, grades 6 – 8, which he describes as “rural.” He currently teaches a semester-long Georgia Studies class.

Mary teaches at a middle school in Converse, Texas, which is a small community due east of San Antonio. According to U.S. Census data from 2010, Converse has a population of approximately 21,000, with just over 50% percent of the population being white and around 42% Hispanic. According to the *Texas Tribune*, Judson Middle School has almost 1,200 students who are majority Hispanic (638), with African American (286), and white (183) composing the rest of the student body (Texas Tribune, 2019). Mary holds a comprehensive secondary social studies education bachelor of arts degree from the University of Nevada, Las Vegas. She grew up in Texas and took a Texas history class in her middle school years but completed her post-secondary education in Nevada due to her husband’s military career. She taught eleven years in Nevada and is in her ninth in Texas. She currently teaches a full-year 7th grade Texas history course, but has taught world geography, U.S. history, government and credit recovery courses in the past. She recalled taking some form of Nevada history in college but feels as though it may have been embedded in a U.S. history or Constitutional requirements course.

Patricia, a Frisco, Texas, teacher with three years’ experience, teaches a full-year Texas History course at Staley Middle School. Staley has approximately 663 students enrolled in grades 6, 7, and 8. The majority of students are white, with Hispanic, and African American students composing the remainder of the student population. Frisco has a population of almost

200,000 and is a part of the Dallas-Fort Worth metropolitan statistical area (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010). Patricia taught world geography her first year, prior to moving into Texas History. She attended Ouachita Baptist University in Arkadelphia, AR., and grew up in Louisiana. She is certified to teach 7 – 12 social studies in both Texas and Arkansas. She does recall taking Louisiana history in her early high school years, as well as being required to take an Arkansas history course in college as part of her graduation requirements. She has not taken a Texas History class and was not required to do so to receive her Texas teaching licensure.

In general, I find demographics an interesting area of study in a variety of settings, including my professional role, and that in my study, they ultimately had more influence on respondents' feedback than originally anticipated. Initially, demographics were included in this study included as a matter of record and for organizational purposes, but they seemed to have become more meaningful by chapter's end.

Identification, Description, and Explanation of the Coding Process/Method

Creswell's six steps of analyzing and interpreting qualitative data were used to inform this process. First, the data was organized and prepared for analysis. Interviews were transcribed by Rev.com for a nominal research fee (with the exception of exception of James' interview, who responded to each question via email). The interview transcripts, which averaged about 29 minutes each in length, were then read through several times by the researcher to obtain a general "sense" of the data. The next step was to "code" or reduce responses to descriptive themes by assigning code labels with a goal of "lean coding" in which the first time through a transcription, "only a are few codes are assigned" (Creswell, 2012, p. 244), so that for roughly every 50 pages of interview transcription, there would be 30 – 35 initial codes. Codes are used to

develop descriptions of people and ideas and then to develop themes which are broader than specific code labels. Themes emerge to “tell the story” of the research and/or to navigate the complexity of interconnections discovered through data collection (Creswell, 2012, p. 236 – 264). Creswell goes on to warn not to “overcode” the material and that ultimately, that five to seven final themes will emerge (Creswell, 2012, p. 262).

In this study, the first round of coding produced 206 initial ‘grandchild codes’ or micro-labels, which were identified for each participant’s response bank, ranging from a low of 37 to a high of 44, for an average of 41.2 codes per respondent. In the second round of coding, as detailed in Table 4.4, those 206 grandchild codes were recoded into ‘child codes’ or 5 color groups representing demographic info (yellow); graduation requirements, skills, and professional development (blue); curriculum, resources and sequencing (orange); value (green) and perceptions (pink). Those child codes left without a color code were deemed “interesting, but less or not important” by the researcher, which I will speak to in a later discussion about subthemes regarding state history overall.

Table 4.4 Description of Color-Coded Child Codes

Yellow	General demographic info about interview subject, school and community (not specific to students)
Blue	Graduation requirements, student skills, professional development requirements
Orange	Curriculum, resources, overall sequencing
Green	Value
Pink	Perceptions, aptitudes, dispositions
White	Outlier - Not applicable or – ‘interesting, but not important’

The color-coded ‘child codes’ were then connected to recurring motifs which were identified and transposed into ‘parent codes’ or broader themes. Parent codes ultimately connected the interviewees’ responses to the three parts of the previously provided research question were designated with a letter code (A, B, and C). Those designations were used to

qualify the responses coded in Round 1 of the process. Responses that spoke to the *value* of state history content were assigned an ‘A.’ Responses that explained the significance of state history in a learner’s educational experience were assigned a ‘B’ and responses which spoke to skills, aptitudes, and dispositions associated with a state history course were coded as a ‘C’. Some responses matched more than one color code as well as more than one parent code or theme.

Themes and Subthemes

Overall, the child code most frequently seen when analyzing data was the ‘values’ code as denoted in Figure 4.5 below.

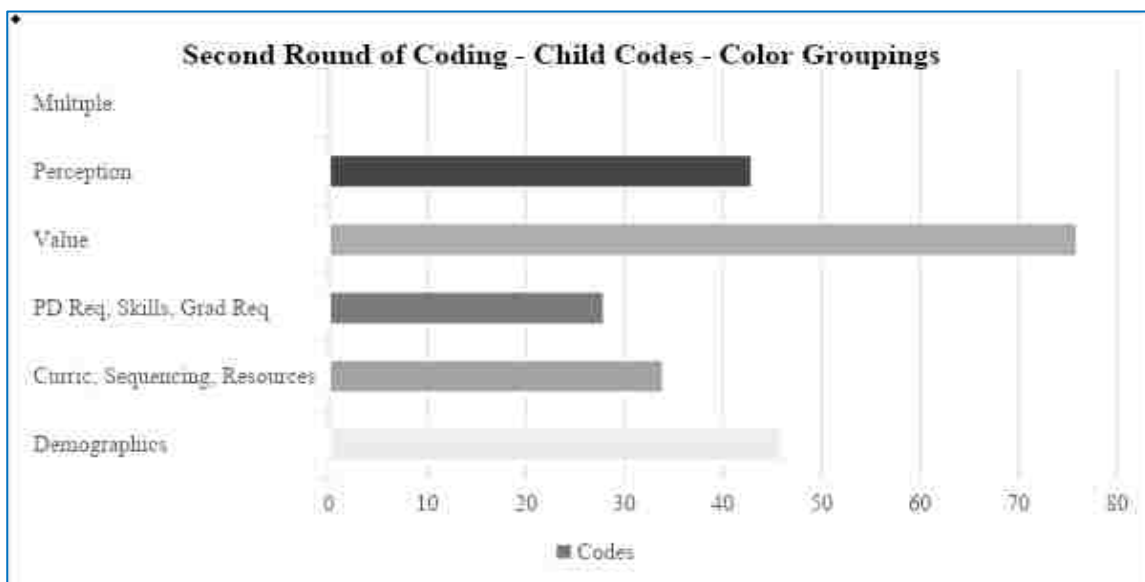


Figure 4.5 Second Round of Coding – Child Codes- Frequency of Child Codes, Hopper, 2019

This speaks to the overall nature of the respondents’ feedback. Fifty-seven of the child codes had multiple color codes, many of which were the oft seen combination of ‘value’ and ‘perception.’ Demographic data obviously played a large role in the interviews for organizational purposes. Perception was the next most frequently noted code, after value and demographics. Values and perceptions frequently seemed to be intertwined or overlapping in the coding process. From this phase of coding, three larger themes emerged: (1) the **value** of state history

and its content, whether positive or negative; (2) the **significance** of state history as a component of the learner’s broader educational experience; and (3) the **skills, aptitudes, and dispositions** afforded to students when learning state history. Table 4.6 below details the three major themes as well as their attendant subthemes, some of which crossed between themes, a feature that assisted when making connections in the data.

Table 4.6 Themes and Subthemes

<i>Themes</i>	<i>Subthemes</i>
<i>Value</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Embedded in other content ● Poverty/Socio-Economic impact ● Most important social studies course – Gov, Civics, World & US History ● Teachers who took state history value it more ● Way of teaching impacts perceptions and value ● Geographic region impacts perception of state history ● Standardized testing ● Required course ● Interesting, but not important
<i>Significance</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Poverty/Socio-Economic impact ● Sense of Place ● Teachers who took state history value it more ● Way of teaching impacts perceptions and value ● State history is a vehicle for projects, field trips, and skill development ● Standardized testing ● Required course
<i>Skills, Aptitudes, & Dispositions</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Poverty/Socio-Economic impact ● Sense of Place ● Teachers who took state history value it more ● Resources ● Holidays and heroes ● Middle school best level ● Way of teaching impacts perceptions and value ● Minimal discussion about PD, resources, and curriculum ● Geographic region impacts perception of state history ● State history is a vehicle for projects, field trips, and skill development ● Required course

To further delineate the subthemes, a final coding cycle took place. Each of the fifteen subthemes were coded a third and final time within each of the themes as well as across themes

where appropriate. Three of the fifteen subthemes were coded as only “value,” four subthemes were coded as only “skills, aptitudes, and dispositions” and none of the subthemes were coded as only “significance.”

Co-Occurrences

Surprisingly, skills, aptitudes, and dispositions garnered the most marks. I assumed it would be the value category. Table 4.7 illustrates this cycle.

Table 4.7 Co-Occurrences

<i>Subthemes</i>	<i>Value</i>	<i>Significance</i>	<i>Skills, Aptitudes & Dispositions</i>
Three Co-Occurrences:			
1. Poverty/Socio-Economic impact	X	X	X
2. The way a teacher teaches state history impacts students’ and families’ perceptions of the value and significance state history	X	X	X
3. Teachers who took state history themselves value it more	X	X	X
4. Arkansas, Georgia, and Texas all require a state history course - California does not	X	X	X
Two Co-Occurrences:			
1. Sense of Place		X	X
2. Standardized testing	X	X	
3. Impact of geographic region on perception of state history	X		X
4. State history is a vehicle for projects, field trips, and skill development		X	X
Singular Occurrence:			
1. Embedding state history in US History – State history <i>IS</i> a U.S. History course in and of itself	X		
2. Most important SS courses - Gov, Civics, World & US History	X		
3. Interesting, but not important	X		
4. Weak resources			X
5. Holidays and heroes			X
6. Middle school best level			X
7. Lacked overall discussion of PD, resources, and curriculum			X

The common co-occurrence of subthemes revealed an interesting relationship between the three main themes that could be visualized as a three-circle Venn Diagram (Figure 4.8). At the heart of this diagram are four compelling subthemes with threads that run throughout the study. The idea that a family's background has at least some impact on their perspective - even to the point that some content areas are viewed as having little to no value, such as state history, as discussed by James. The way a teacher actually teaches the content, their attitude or disposition towards the content, and their conveyance of its significance in the student's learning journey, also has a tremendous impact on the prosperity of the course. Finally, and as common sense would dictate, state mandates have an underlying, definitive impact on the success, failure, perception, and value of any course – not only, but especially state history.

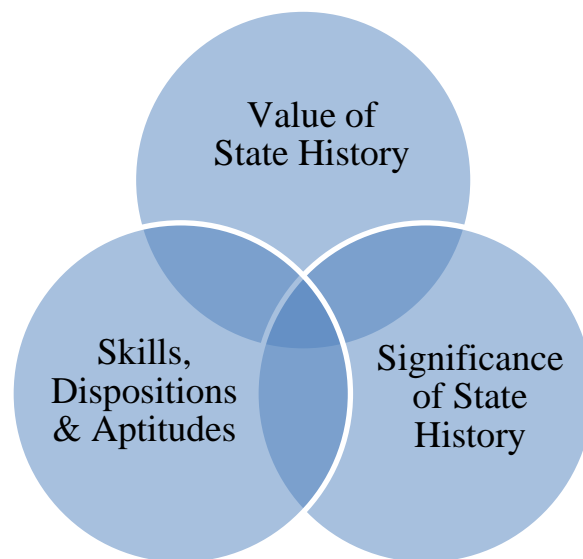


Figure 4.8 The Interrelationship of the Three Primary Emergent Themes, Hopper, 2019

Value of State History (and its content)

Interviewees, like many of the questionnaire respondents, felt that state history is essentially viewed as a United States history course – that state history is often, sometimes for the better, embedded in U.S. history, or should be. In fact, Mary went so far as to say "Well, now what we're doing is we're infusing everything ... Well, not everything. I try to infuse as much U.S. history as I can into Texas history." No respondent thought that state history was the most important social studies class. Three thought government/civics was the most critical class for a student's social studies experience. Patricia, a third-year teacher, thought that world history was the most important, with government a close second. James thought that U.S history, which also included information about or taught about the government, was the most important. Mary specified her response by saying, "I think a civics course, where they're taught rights and responsibilities. I think some places they might talk about it as government, but I think it goes beyond government." John agreed with the group, but also added some discussion about economics – the only respondent to do so.

I would go with government. I think our kids need to be better prepared to be participating citizens in the country and in the world. I think they get a good base of that in government class and we don't do enough of it. Then with economics, we teach them one thing in economics instead of teaching macro or micro and supply and demand and all that. Clearly, we should be teaching more consumer economics because the kids are functionally illiterate.

Overall, and maybe the most significant subtheme even though only assigned to one theme category, was that much of the conversation, even when prompted by specifically designed questions, was more "interesting than important," seemingly much like state history itself. One would expect that state history teachers would view its content as a valuable content vehicle in which to practice writing skills, critical thinking, develop empathy, build a historical foundation of knowledge and inquiry and engage unique personal and local connections to spark

a passion for history and social studies learning itself within every student. Interestingly, this seemed to contrast with some questionnaire respondents who specifically used the word ‘important’ when describing state history. Consider these responses from the questionnaire:

The contribution of state history in the process of learning is very important. To fully understand culture and climate with regards to history, one must have knowledge of local and relevant issues.

It [state history] ties one to the place in which they live. Making things relevant is possibly the most important thing when getting students to learn” and it is important to have knowledge of your state past and present. It can lead to a hunger to travel around the state for kids.

It was interesting to find that when the interview participants were asked to substantiate these claims, they returned to the topic of local/personal interest rather than providing greater depth in support of how state history is significant from a broader disciplinary perspective. It is possible that they may have been conflating “important” with “interesting”.

Skills, Aptitudes, and Dispositions

Most of the interview participants, as well as questionnaire respondents (64.15%), felt that resources for teaching state history were poor to non-existent and were challenging to obtain. Participant responses included words such as “limited”, “not important”, “old textbooks”, “have to create their own”, or “not easily available” when referencing the availability of resources for teaching state history. James and Robert elaborated the most on this. Robert was unsure of what the state of Georgia offered or had available as textbook or lesson resources. Although James, a teacher in his 25th year, did not identify the Arkansas history text he was using in his classroom, he did express his displeasure:

While most of my students will make some effort in class because they want a passing grade, few of them show much genuine interest in the topics Arkansas History offers. This is compounded by the lack of decent instructional materials, in my opinion.

Textbook offerings are very limited. The text I have available does not present a fluid historical narrative. It ‘topic-hops’ and relies upon factoids as opposed to providing meaningful historic context for the topics that need to be addressed. The book is clearly the product of a company who looked at the state standards and produced a minimal product to address them.” James then added, “I was not involved in the adoption process for the district, but I can assume that the options of an Arkansas History textbook were very limited.

Robert, a third-year teacher, added his disdain for textbooks in general: “No I don't use a textbook at all. I just prepare my own lessons. Now we do have standards... that are very clear what they what they expect you to communicate. ...so, I just get my lessons from you know base them off of the standards and then develop my own... There was an old, old [textbook] in my class ... that was available, but I just don't like teaching from the textbook.”

Participants struggled with the concept of a ‘holidays and heroes’ curriculum. Which, unlike in the case of ‘sense of place,’ was somewhat of a relief to the researcher. Only one respondent claimed any familiarity with the concept, but all eventually stated that they thought it was not a viable pedagogical strategy with which to teach state history. Many immediately said that this should not be the approach to state history and if it was used, should certainly be confined to the elementary years. Patricia confirmed this notion: “I don't know much about the holidays and heroes, ... it sounds more like a... like elementary style theme? ... I like the comprehensive approach... the students can practice their social studies skills, ..., in our case, in Texas, they practice them at a, like, smaller state level before they do US history. ...so that's how I kinda [of] like to explain it to them, they're practicing their skills, ..., in their comprehensive state, ..., before they go onto bigger... bigger things. So, ..., I think I like the comprehensive approach [be]cause it's, it's chronological, which I like and prefer.” Mary went so far as to connect a ‘holidays and heroes’ approach to state history with contributing to the diminished value problem the course has.

Rather than going in depth and learning about the true people of whatever state, it doesn't have to be Texas. But it's, a lot of times, the state history gets kind of shoved into the 'holidays and heroes' category, as opposed to really learning the why and the how of what actually happened.

This sentiment seemed to contradict the larger group's questionnaire responses which indicated that states do in fact provide curriculum to keep state history relevant, as 75.93% agreed with that statement in some capacity.

The interviewees felt that middle grades (6th – 8th primarily) were best suited for the teaching and learning of state history. They felt that it was too simple or “boring” for high school, with the exception of John (CA) who thought seniors might benefit by coupling it with a government or economics class, or by adding it in to the 9th grade sequencing where a social studies requirement does not currently exist – as is the case in Arkansas.

Overall, the interviewees seemed resigned to hands they were dealt from their district or state in regard to the teaching of state history. They engaged in far less in commentary about materials, resources, curriculum and so on than the questionnaire respondents – whether positive or negative. Theirs seemed to be somewhat of a ‘victim’s’ mentality. No one really spoke with passion or enthusiasm about working to seek unique materials or fighting for the content to be added to the social studies pedagogical mix. No one was outright against the course or the curriculum, especially those actively teaching it, but no one seemed willing to die on the sword for it either.

Value + Significance

Standardized testing is such a constant discussion in educational circles, almost to the point of being overwhelming, that it was shocking that it had so little relevance in this particular study. It was determined through conversations that Texas and Georgia administer state

standardized tests that include some social studies content. California did until 2013, but no longer and Arkansas does not. Georgia, Texas, and Arkansas all require a state history course somewhere between grades 7 – 12, but California does not. The actual finding related to this particular topic is that so little information arose or was discussed about it, that it was actually a *non-finding*. The finding (or non-finding be that as it may) was the insignificance of this to the interviewees – the sheer lack of discussion. That was also true in the questionnaire respondents information. Only two people specifically mentioned state or standardized testing when responding to the open response portion of the questionnaire and the comments were rather benign or generic in nature. Primarily, they related to the content remaining superficial or being based on general memorization because of state tests and the test limiting creativity. Both comments were mentioned in the vain of some that is a challenge when attempting to teach state history. :

...state testing over standards limit[s] creativity. While I believe standards can be vitally important to ensure teachers educate our students, they can be limiting. I would like to see standards used as a guideline to teach broader themes. Rather than focusing on whether students remember a state senator from Georgia, I would like to see that students know how economic demands can influence political decisions.

There are many figures, events, and topics that the state mandates we cover. In order to prepare students to succeed on standardized tests, we must spend significant time learning these standards. This can inhibit digging deeper or allowing students to explore topics of interest.

This seems to be where “interesting” and “important” truly intersect. What is viewed as “important” as designated by its testing status, limits the ability to teach what is ‘interesting’ – content these teachers speak about in relation to ‘digging deeper’ or ‘creativity’ and the ‘how’ of an event.

Value + Skills, Aptitudes, and Dispositions

When asked which region of the country would be thought to place the most importance on the teaching and learning of state history, participants suggested that the south would value state history most, followed by the East Coast and finally the west - California and Hawaii most specifically. The Midwest or north/north central regions were not mentioned at all. Each participant shared insightful, interesting reflections on the topic. James said:

I have taught students who have moved to the state [Arkansas] from Texas. Based on anecdotal evidence, there is greater emphasis placed on state history there than in Arkansas. I do not personally believe it is because Arkansas is any less interesting or important than Texas history. It seems to be a curricular decision in Texas to emphasize state history to a greater degree than occurs here in Arkansas.

John chose the East Coast as the region placing the most emphasis on the importance of state history because in his opinion, “That's where the history of the ... at least the country, started. I would think that there would be much more interest in history generally there just because of the length of history ... war, in the region.” Robert chose the south and then touched on California as well:

I'm born and raised in the south but I mean I think being southern, it communicates a lot to ... about our values and things like that, so you know I think that is important but I would assume that you know northern states have the same you know feelings so I - I couldn't speculate but I do think that you know regionally that it does carry a lot of weight so and I mean I'm thinking even you know, California typically is- is known for its progressive stance and how they tend to be some of the leaders you know in the move in education.

Mary took a very ‘matter of fact’ baseline approach to her response, plainly declaring New England as valuing state history the most because their “state history” is the basic foundation of U.S. History – that it is in fact, the history of the U.S. “Well, I think New England is ... I mean,

they're just teaching regular flat out U.S. history, you know?" She did go onto add "So I think Pennsylvania, you've got to give it to William Penn, that sort of stuff. But all of that is the beginnings of the U.S., so ... And then, obviously, this ... Hawaii has a very proud state history."

Finally, Patricia felt "like, East Coast, I feel like that would be really important to them, ...I think other than the East Coast, like the original, like, Thirteen Colonies, they have I think it's like state-based, so, ..., like I think California would value it, ...I guess obviously Texas, ...Louisiana... and I'm sure other states do but I think, as far as region, probably East Coast." This feedback, combined with comments made in the questionnaire responses, primarily by respondents from Texas, California and Arkansas, who were noted more frequently as using words like "pride" and "rich" in their responses, as well as the frequent mention of Texas' former independent status, could lead to the conclusions that value is directly connected to a region. Although there were ultimately fewer responses from states outside of the south and west, the dispositions and word choice in those specific responses did not seem to mirror those of the Texans, Californians, and Arkansans.

Significance + Skills, Aptitudes, and Dispositions

The concept of 'sense of place,' seemed somewhat unfamiliar to most interviewees with the exception of James. Patricia and Robert seemed the least familiar. James was very articulate about the topic - introducing it on his own before actually being asked the interview question itself. Once each interviewee hammered out a personal definition of 'sense of place', each of which varied slightly, they did not feel that students actually possessed it. Many thought it had to do with geography and was a somewhat basic concept. Mary said that she had done something as part of a lesson that would qualify - she thought she skirted around 'sense of place' when asking

kids to describe their rooms at home. It is their most organic “place.” James felt like the loss of the concept of place has tremendous negative impact on learning and valuing history.

“Personally, I agree that students should be required to take state history. In my experience, students increasingly struggle developing a sense of place. While many of them already struggle to make connections to history in general, very few of them seem to be familiar with the history of their own state or communities. To assist students in becoming civically responsible and active, it is important to help students understand not only the current issues that affect their state and communities, but also the historic background to the current environment.” The questionnaire respondents seemed to mirror the interviewees in the ratio of those who did/were able to address ‘sense of place.’ Only one questionnaire respondent addressed it in any way. “It [state history] allows you to identify with the uniqueness of your area, providing a sense of place. In addition, an appreciation is created for what otherwise would be lost from memory that could better engage the student and the citizen. If done well, what we see going on around us will make more sense, and have far greater meaning.” (A Kansas high school teacher who has taught 21 – 30 years).

The interviewees generally felt that state history is a valuable setting in which to assign projects and go on field trips. John spoke at length about the following: “Well, everybody that I know does a mission project and they try and visit a mission and then all the kids build a mission out of whatever they want. And some of the... stores around here sell mission kits. So, if you want to build San Juan Capistrano, you can buy a kit to build San Juan Capistrano or whatever mission ... Mission Dolores, Mission Viejo.” However, he did add a caveat: “There's been a push by some groups to get rid of missions because of the negative influence that the missionaries had on Native American populations in California.”

Patricia discussed a project about interviewing a family member who had moved or who was an immigrant, as well as having students identify their favorite local place and explain why in a presentation format, and Mary discussed a project related to cowboys and cattle drives that involved employing maps skills and basic economics to determine prices to sell cattle. She also discussed field trips, as did John. He takes kids to the railroad museum in Sacramento and they have previously visited gold rush historic sites. Mary said,

Well, definitely here in San Antonio, we talk, oh, the Alamo. The River Walk. Those unique features. The language. The architecture. Those kinds of things, as far as place goes. In Nevada, we could have talked about the desert. Lake Mead. Hoover Dam. You know, the casinos. But it was interesting because I had a student teacher that came from England, and he wanted to know what was a typical day that we spend. What we do on a Sunday? We'd go up to the mountains, we would drive up to Mount Charleston. You could ski up there. And not many people would think, you live in Las Vegas, but you ski in March?

Patricia did not mention field trips but was the only really to discuss specific strategies and skills such as critical thinking, primary, and secondary source lessons, summarizing passages and cause and effect. "I think it's a good time to practice the skills, ...and a good region to do it, since it's their state."

At the beginning of the study, I would have surmised that the intersection of the significance in a student's life of state history and the skills, aptitudes, and dispositions obtained through studying state history would have been the most significant. I was somewhat disillusioned when most of the commentary was about simple projects and field trips without supportive inquiry-based or meaningful lesson plan artifacts that I had anticipated. And although that was a disappointment, I thought the interviewees did speak with passion about the riches of their state, as seen in the examples above, which coincided with the sentiment of the majority of questionnaire respondents who indicated that they believed their own personal state to have a "rich" history (94.55% indicating an answer of agreement). When answering questions about

greatest challenges in teaching state history and what could be done to improve the teaching of state history, questionnaire respondents offered the following feedback: “limitations of field work (field trips)”; “limited matter; lack of the ability to take field trips, and students lack of interest in our states history”, [challenges]. “The most important actions that can be improved in teaching and learning our history is to be able to take all student not just the Pre-AP classes on field trips to historical sites and museums to allow students to see history come to life”, and “More focus on local history and field trips” [improvements]. Many in the initial study participants from Phase I of data collection also discussed projects such as those related to National History Day, observing or participating in re-enactments, historic district walks, poetry writing, hands-on projects, and practice with Discussion-Based Questions (DBQs). Since these types of comments were made in both phases of data collection, one wonders if the struggle to secure funding for field trips and to obtain quality resources defeats educators to the point where they ultimately fall short and give up on the teaching of valuable subject because they are so burdened by the other demands of teaching?

Value + Significance + Skills, Aptitudes, and Dispositions

Several participants felt that the family’s socio-economic standard impacted the value placed on a state history course. That sense of community, a need for activism, and a connection, was diminished when poverty plays a role – especially according to James:

There are a number of factors that affect the teaching of all history courses, including state history. The major issue is the notion of relevance. When students (and parents) find it relevant, their engagement level clearly increases. Geography is going to be a part of this equation, but it should also be correlated to other criteria such as poverty.

The high-poverty districts in the Delta region of Arkansas, for example, can present a greater challenge to making history meaningful than in more affluent districts. In my experience, history courses as an instrument of civic understanding and change have

more relevance for those who attach an intrinsic value to education in general. Students who exist in a culture of learning (not just that which exists at the school) will find it easier to make meaningful connections between academic content and the world in which they live, which in turn results in greater interest in the subject matter. Many of my current students struggle to understand the long-term value of understanding the dynamics of the past and their connection to the present.

There was no mention of, or connection to, the impact of poverty on a family's or student's perception of the value and/or significance of learning state history from the questionnaire group.

Interviewees who took state history themselves, whether in K – 12 classes or in college, expressed greater appreciation for teaching it. Robert was the only one who did not personally take a state history course. John lamented that California does not require the course in K – 12. “For my history degree, I was required to take California history, which was a great class.”

Patricia took both Louisiana state history in her K – 12 career and Arkansas history as a college student. She reflected, "I think it really depends on where you are. I really enjoy teaching Texas history, ... I grew up in Louisiana, I really enjoyed Louisiana history... Arkansas history had its, you know, ups and downs, ..., I think that it really just depends on the state."

All of the interviewees felt that the teacher has the most impact on how the course is perceived and received -not just with state history, but in general. James stated it eloquently, but simply by saying, “I feel that the greatest impact in teaching state history is the nature of the teacher. A good teacher will have the ability to make relevant connections for the students." On the flip side of that sentiment, John felt that the course was not viewed in a favorable light by colleagues or state agencies determining sequencing. “It would be a bottom feeder. And they're actually ... I've heard ... Actually, I read an article about changing or removing state histories from fourth grade, suggesting that removing it from elementary curriculum would be the final nail in the proverbial coffin. Curiously, some of the interviewees were unaware of specific state

social studies graduation requirements. The Texas teachers did know that Texas History is required in 7th grade for one full year by the state. James also knew that in Arkansas, state history is required for one semester. He did say that it had to be taught in grades 7 or 8, but in fact, the law allows for the requirement to be met in grades 9 – 12 as well, if a school district so chooses. Despite having been questioned about it in the initial questionnaire, no interviewee mentioned required professional development related to the teaching state history. As was discussed in the summative review of all questionnaire respondents, a majority of participants (77.78%) believed that history should be a graduation requirement in their state, while a lower percentage, but still a majority, (68.51%) believed that state history should be a graduation requirement in every state. This seems to be somewhat of a contradiction, indicating that something is important but not actually knowing the requirements.

This intersection of all three themes and the related findings, as well as the length of related discussion by the respondents, was somewhat of a surprise. I had no idea that they would give socio-economic impact so much credence in relation to state history content. It almost lends itself to the parameters for a new study – the impact of socio-economic status on the perceptions and value of taking social studies courses in K – 12 public education. Further, if teachers themselves are unaware or unimpressed by information related to state history and/or social studies graduation requirements, then it is understandable that the same sentiment would filter through to the students and their families.

Conclusions

The essential goal of this study was to explore the who, how, why and why not of the teaching and learning of state history and its inherent role in the scheme of K – 12 social studies.

The methods of data collection used in this study provided an insightful, albeit limited, data set including 72 questionnaire responses and 5 semi-structured interviews from which to offer themes, subthemes, initiate further discussion, and identify future potential research areas.

The questionnaire provided additional demographic results and a potential interview pool. Questionnaire results informed the process by which interview questions were developed by highlighting topics of significance and those that seemed to warrant more in-depth discussion. Results also hinted at potential themes and/or subthemes that might emerge during interview conversation.

Although interview participants rarely spoke of actual ‘skills,’ they spoke most frequently and more often about broad aptitudes and dispositions toward the subject as noted in the subthemes. Much of the discussion was about a more personal learning experiences through unique and local experiences (significance), which in turn brought into question curricular value of a state history course - does local and unique warrant a pedagogical experience? Is ‘interesting’ worth learning at all? Or is it the worthiest of learning? Does local and unique content, that can often only be delivered through a course like state history, make for the most rich, significant learning? Projects like building missions out of store-bought kits seemed to dispel this theory, but instead focusing on skills and attainable experiential learning seems to support it.

Chapter Five - Conclusions, Discussion, and Future Recommendations for Research

Overview

The purpose of this exploratory qualitative survey and interview study was to investigate teacher perceptions regarding place and purpose of state history in the overall K – 12 social studies curriculum pedagogy, and to identify teacher dispositions toward the teaching and learning of state history. Within this study, responses and data were collected through an initial questionnaire and semi-structured interview survey instruments. This chapter provides a summary of feedback received from the survey instruments, respondents' overall perceptions of state history, discussion of conclusions drawn, recommendations for future research and personal insights gleaned through this work.

Participant responses led to an investigative study of their perceptions on the purpose of teaching state history; ways in which state history is taught in various settings (or ways that it is in fact *not* taught); a sense of pride associated with one's state and its history; preparation and professional development related to being a practicing state history and/or social studies teacher; the significance of a state history course in the scope and sequence of social studies pedagogy; materials and resources available for teaching state history; skills students can acquire through a state history course, and if social studies courses (typically non-tested) can benefit students when taking a mandated standardized tests. Five semi-structured interviews provided greater depth into participants responses about the *why* and *how* of state history. Ultimately, it was found that interview results added review value to the initial questionnaire inquiries. A brief, simple, visual overview of both questionnaire and interview key themes and findings and their similarities and differences can be seen in Figure 5.1 below.

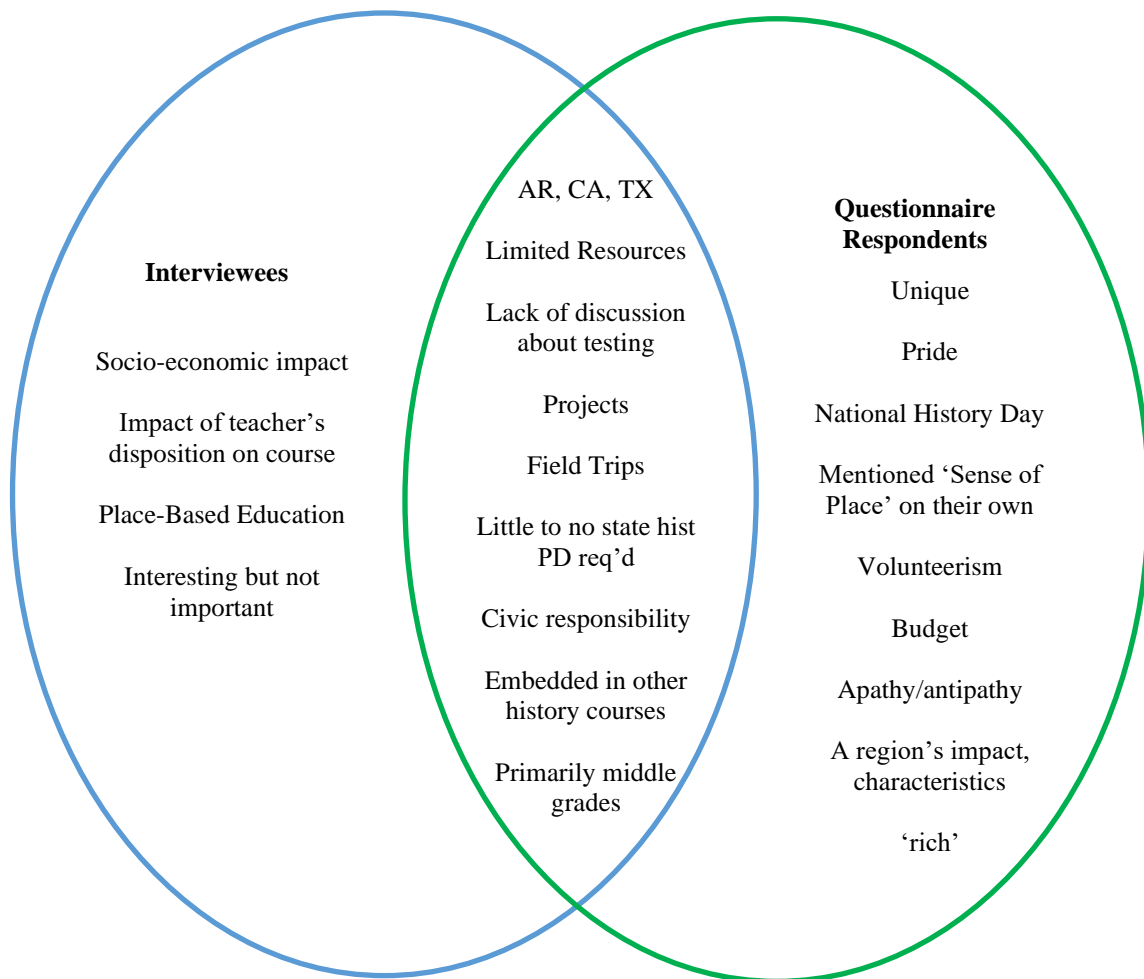


Figure 5.1 A Broad Overview of Interviewee and Questionnaire Respondent Themes, Similarities and Differences, Hopper, 2019

Who is teaching social studies and state history?

The Brookings Institution reviewed the 2011 – 2012 Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) and provided the following summation:

Teachers who specialize in social studies constitute roughly nine percent of the total teacher workforce, with most teaching in middle or high schools. About 40 percent of these teachers come into the classroom with an undergraduate major in history, and then slightly fewer come in from other social science majors like political science, economics, or sociology. The remainder, representing 30 percent of social studies teachers, have degrees in either elementary or secondary education or some other degree. Key characteristics like experience and education levels among social studies teachers are similar to teachers in other subject specialties. Yet social studies teachers stand out in their gender balance. With 54.7 percent of them male, this is one of just two subjects represented in the SASS in which teachers are predominantly male (the other being health/physical education) (Hansen & Quintero, 2017).

Questionnaire respondents for this study were from Alaska, Arkansas, California, Georgia, Illinois, Kansas, Louisiana, Pennsylvania, Oklahoma, and Texas (majority of respondents). They had taught from one year to more than 30 years. Most are currently teaching history in addition to several other social studies classes. Some from Texas were the only ones who indicated that they exclusively teach state history. The five interview participants were from four states in the south and one in the west, with varying levels of teaching experience. Gender classifications were not a requested category on the questionnaire.

Summary of Key Themes

Three major themes, which were consistent with what is known about *why* we learn history in the first place, emerged from the data collection analysis. And although these themes could be coded as three separate pathways and response trends, they ultimately intermingled as detailed (previously) in Figure 5.2 (4.8, reprinted), below.

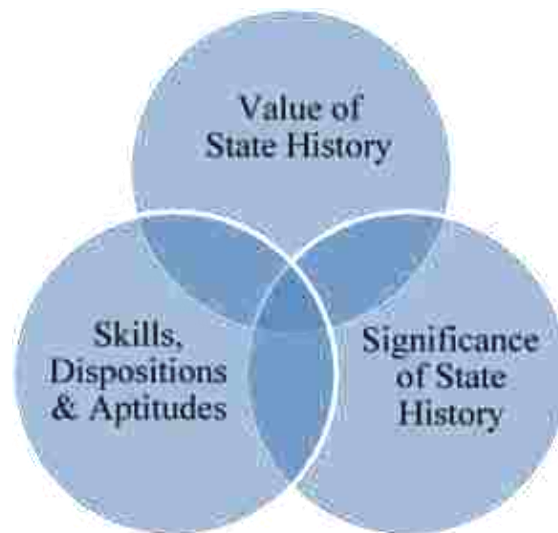


Figure 5.2 (4.8 reprinted) The Interrelationship of the Three Primary Emergent Themes, Hopper, 2019

The value of content itself, emerged as a vehicle to “hook” the student – to get them interested, rather than to necessarily convey importance or gravitas of an occurrence in history. Personal connections, and local, unique experiential learning informed the parameters of the significance code. Regional importance and regional perceptions also spoke specifically to the code. The personal learning experiences of the teachers themselves also informed this code as verified by Ana Duque of Hunter College of Education who said, “I’m seeing student teachers, products of No Child Left Behind, who never experienced rigorous social studies in their schooling either, so they don’t even know how to teach it” (Gonser, n.p., 2018). John mentioned that a state history course in California might be a great place to integrate teaching units about immigration, water rights and politics, which might build more credibility. “you could spend a whole semester just talking with them about California water politics and water rights ...My goodness, it's just mind-boggling. California history in college, just the complexity of water in California. It's amazing.”

Even though it was only specifically mentioned three times by questionnaire respondents and once by an interviewee (Patricia), specific skills learned, honed, and employed in social studies, and specifically state history courses, are critical to mention because it is something, we, as a community of social studies educators, professionals and researchers know exists in the everyday realities of student learning in these often spurned courses – it is intrinsic to all the social studies genres, whether elementary, middle or high school, whether geography or economics or civics, or even state history. Projects, like building California missions out of kits, and field trips dominated the participant reflective conversation regarding this code.

Overall, the interview subjects did see value in a state history course, as it relates to the student’s person interest, but did not necessarily deem it “significant” or important when

considered in relation to other subjects within the social studies such as Civics or United States History. When asked if he had anything he would like to add about the teaching and learning of state history, Robert expressed the following thought at the conclusion of his interview: “No ma'am. I mean I never really gave it much thought till you started probing and making me think about why I do what I do you know. Hopefully I represented Georgia well.” The literature (or lack thereof) certainly supports this notion as well. When it is found in scholarly studies and reviews, it is mostly just a mention, afterthought or sidebar – as is social studies as whole when researching national and state curriculum standards, national and state standardized testing protocols and graduation and college entrance requirements. It should come as no shock that state history, merely a blip on the social studies radar, is not seen as important, when it is a struggle to find literature to actually review about this specific genre. In contrast, as shown in this study, the bulk of the literature that *is* found is about the tumultuous history of and struggle to teach social studies at all – for it not to be lost in the push for time for the ever-tested English Language Arts and STEM pathways. Even naming the content is a struggle (history? Geography? Economics? All of the above? Social studies?) “Ronald Evans details this baseline ongoing battle of what to call this genre of study in his book, *Social Studies Wars* (2004), often referring to the what and how of teaching social studies as and history as a “civil war” itself (Evans, 2004, p. 4). Many believe referring to content and curriculum as “social studies” diminishes the importance of actual history courses. Evans laments further, “The key question haunting social studies remains the issue of its definition and its vision, and of the approaches to the field that were practiced in schools” (Evans, 2004, p. 178).

Summary of Findings

During Phase I of data collection, seventy-two questionnaires were started. The average response rate for each question was 73%. Not all questionnaire respondents answered all questions. The majority who did respond taught middle, junior or high school. The largest number taught state and United States History courses. The majority taught in Texas, California, and Arkansas. Most had been teaching 11 – 30 years (33) or one to two years (8). Most indicated that their state teaches state history in 7th grade (which is when it is taught in Texas so that correlation is expected since that is the state where the largest number of respondents reside). Otherwise, it was primarily taught in 8th grade. Arkansas law allows districts to choose to teach state history in any grade between 7th and 12th. The majority of questionnaire respondents said that state history was very important (74.55%) and none said it was not important at all, which boded well for this endeavor. Middle and/or junior high was the age at which most thought state history should be taught (70.91%). Of the seven Likert scale questions that were presented, the question which queried agreement to the statement, “My state has a rich history,” was overwhelmingly positive, with 72.73% in agreement. On the opposite end of the spectrum, the statement, “My state provides supports/offers curriculum to ensure the teaching of state history as a vital and meaningful subject in social studies” won less praise, with only 11.11% agreeing. Forty of 55 respondents were not required to earn professional development credits in state history content.

Phase II of data collection included five interview respondents, only two of whom were certain of social studies graduation requirements in their state. When asked which social studies course was the most important for every student to take, three said civics, one said United States history and the other said world history, then added that civics and government were also

necessary. Four teach in a state where a state history course is currently required for students (Arkansas, Georgia, and Texas) and one in a state where state history is not mandated - California. All but two of the teachers (California and Georgia) interviewed took a state history course at some time in their K – 12 educational experience. The California teacher was mandated to do so for his teaching degree, while the Texas teachers were not. The Georgia teacher had never taken a specific Georgia history course – K – 12 or post-secondary. Four of the teachers interviewed were not expected to take any specific professional development (PD) courses related to state history. The exception being the Arkansas teacher who must take a 2-hour PD credit course, every four years. This seems to be in line with Hansen & Quintero’s findings as seen below in Figure 5.3.



Figure 5.3, Professional Development, Hansen & Quintero, 2017.

Students in Arkansas, Georgia, and Texas are required to take a state history class. Texas and Georgia courses are both a full-year, with Georgia studies being fused with U.S., and

Arkansas is a semester requirement. Those who were interviewed did not feel that *state* history itself was perceived negatively by students, parents, the public and/or colleagues, or really that it was perceived in any capacity at all, but that social studies as a whole is seen as a support or supplement to the other tested subjects (English, Mathematics, and the Sciences), and respondent John even labeled social studies a “bottom feeder.”

All felt that middle school was an appropriate level to teach a state history course. Patricia felt that high school students would be “bored” with the subject. However, John mused that it might be interesting for it to be paired with a government or economics required credit senior year in California or freshman year, where a social studies course requirement does not currently exist. Mary was fine with teaching Texas history in 7th grade as far as cognitive capability goes, but also felt that it had been adequately covered in the fourth grade curriculum.

When asked if they thought a student or teacher’s geographical location in the U.S. would impact how state history was learned, taught and/or perceived, most had to really contemplate the question - sometimes even requiring that it be rephrased and asked a second time. Mary believed that history of the west might be seen as being the most important, with Texas and the East Coast close contenders. John also thought the East Coast, as did Patricia with California, Texas and Louisiana also receiving a mention from her. Robert felt as though the south as a whole would value state history the most, with California also being a contender and finally, James, who felt that other factors outweighed the impact geographic location has on the value of learning history: “When students (and parents) find it relevant, their engagement level clearly increases. Geography is going to be a part of this equation, but it should also be correlated to other criteria such as poverty. The high-poverty districts in the Delta region of Arkansas, for example, can present a greater challenge to making history meaningful than in more affluent

districts. In my experience, history courses as an instrument of civic understanding and change have more relevance for those who attach an intrinsic value to education in general.” He did also make mention of the frequently heard sentiment about Texas and Texans as being in the contingency who view state history as most important:

...while I have only taught in Arkansas, I have taught students who have moved to the state from Texas. Based on anecdotal evidence, there is greater emphasis placed on state history there than in Arkansas. I do not personally believe it is because Arkansas is any less interesting or important than Texas history. It seems to be a curricular decision in Texas to emphasize state history to a greater degree than occurs here in Arkansas.

My personal experience as a state history textbook author, a daughter of a Texas history teacher, former Texas history student, and native Texan, was consistent with James’ assertion. These findings were not a complete shock to me based on personal experiences and anecdotal knowledge. Being a native Texan certainly influences my school of thought and I agree that many of the country’s historical roots are entrenched in the history of the East Coast and Thirteen Colonies. I also believe the history of the American Indians plays a dominant role and that can be discovered through the study of a majority of the states.

When asked what held the most pedagogical value for students in a state history class, Mary gave an answer that was somewhat difficult to discern, while John was extremely specific:

I think opening their eyes to some of the diversity that's around them. We tend to gloss over a lot of contributions of ethnic minorities and California has this huge ethnic minority population that has contributed immensely to what makes California, California now. So, I think that would be wonderful for ...the railroads. Some kids have no idea about the railroads. In Roseville, this is where the railroad started, and this is a railroad town forever. So, we have a little bit more of a... ...with the railroads because they're right next to the railroad. I think once you get outside of Roseville, nobody has any idea of the railroad.”

Patricia discussed the idea of skills the most and Robert no mention at all. And while James continued to identify the connection of poverty to the ability to learn and how the content was

perceived as a significant challenge to teaching the course, he did offer a meaningful answer when asked about the benefits of learning state history:

I do believe that state history is necessary. During the course of my teaching career I have seen students' sense of place and community diminish. The internet has provided the opportunity to see (and teach) the world in a very different way. While there are lots of benefits to this, the connection to community can weaken. I believe one of the most important goals of social studies education is to instill within students a sense of activism. I want students to take ownership of their communities in an effort to address problems they may see. To do that, it is vital that students understand the unique character of the place in which they live. The issues in Arkansas are not the same issues faced by Vermont. State history courses provide students with important background to the current character of a place. Many issues that need to be addressed are deeply rooted (racism, poverty) and potential solutions need to account for those connections.

Unlike the relief that was felt when interview subjects had to reach for a clear definition or explanation of the 'holidays and heroes' curriculum concept, it was disheartening that the concept of 'sense of place,' seemed somewhat unfamiliar to most interviewees. James' response segued easily into one of the final interview questions regarding the interviewees understanding of 'sense of place' in their students. He discussed at length a sense of community and pride. He discussed how this can motivate citizens to contribute to making their "place" better. "As a social studies teacher, I want my students to feel a sense of connection to their community and state. I want them to be able to objectively examine their world and make it a better place. To that end, having an understanding of the past and how it shaped the present is a valuable tool with which students should be presented." Robert struggled a bit at first with his response but ultimately believed it was how a student saw him or herself fitting into their culture and state. In the area in which he lives, this associated with racial divides, thus launching him into a discussion about the teaching of civil rights and what that means to his students where they live in their 'place.' Ultimately, place played a big role in this study related to the value of the course and the significance of teaching it. Contextualizing "place", or our "place" as teachers and learners

seems to be the essence of state history. That concept is bolstered by the works of Lee and Lowenthal: "As we situate ourselves in the past, present and future, we are exposed to historical causation — the multifaceted chain of causes and effects that bring about evolution in the world around us. We come to understand historical concepts within the context of multiple historical events, revealing the temporal nature of history (Lee, 1984) and the attendant assumption that all historical events are, at least in some part, unique to their specific time and place (Lowenthal, 2000).

Patricia struggled with concept giving a simplistic answer and Mary spoke a lot about human geography concepts and tourism to support her answer. She was the only one to mention architecture and language as relating to sense of place and the only to discuss an actual classroom activity that had helped her students understand the concept. John discussed more concepts relating to actual physical geography as determining a person's sense of place – he shared that many of his students had never seen the oceans or the mountains, both less than a two-hour drive away.

Limitations

As was predicted in the initial chapter of this study, limitations were present. Questionnaires were sent to a variety of state social studies and other relevant professional organizations, but direct access to all teachers who are currently teaching state history courses could not be guaranteed, nor could a minimum number of viable responses. The initial email outreach did not garner the desired results, so an alternative methodology had to be employed to access state history teachers' email addresses. Not all respondents answered all questions or completed the questionnaire. Those who did ultimately respond were offered a nominal incentive

for participation (gift card drawing). This could have been viewed as extrinsic motivation to respond to the survey questionnaire.

Time was also a limitation. Additionally, respondents would “self-select” into the sample, therefore most likely representing “best-case” scenarios of responses of those who teach and/or support state history initiatives in that state. Additionally, and surprisingly to me, artifacts were not submitted in the manner desired or anticipated. Interview respondents struggled to identify specific lessons or provide tangible examples of best practices used in their classrooms for the teaching of state history. They provided broad, anecdotal descriptions of activities, but provided no actual or physical submissions to fortify the study. Questionnaire respondents gave more specific examples in their open-ended responses, but did not submit tangible artifacts for the study.

Discussions, Considerations, and Recommendations for Possible Future Research

Social studies, history, and state history courses, in general, have long been broadly considered the “stepchild” of the core content courses in K – 12 education. Often overlooked and undervalued because of the lack of and/or inconsistency of national or state standardized tests, social studies class time is often forfeited for remediation in tested areas, wholly embedded in English Language Arts (ELA) curriculum and/or enrichment courses. The lack of emphasis on state history is unfortunate since state history is an important element for a student to, practice critical thinking, empathy, and analysis skills; reinforce fundamental writing and reading skills involve themselves in civic engagement activities, and develop a strong call to service; build a sense of place and community, and carry out of citizenship duties. “Social studies is an amalgam of disciplines largely dominated by history but depending on the curriculum adopted by a district

or school, it also may incorporate geography, political science, economics, religious studies, psychology, sociology, and archaeology. This means that social studies teachers at all levels are often forced into the stereotype of being a jack of all trades and master of none” (Stearns, 2019).

Within the pedagogy of social studies and history courses, is the even further disregarded area of state (and local) history – often relegated to intermingling with geography courses, or as a mere unit in already over-taxed US history survey courses. This study sought to illustrate the importance of a strong, well-planned, positively promoted state history course in the middle to junior high levels in all states, as a means to develop an accountable relationship to citizenship and service and build a skill set that will benefit students in all future social studies courses – not to mention the skill support this provides for reading, writing and analysis in ELA and Science courses. Students need and deserve a positive outlook on their nation’s history the people who live here, and the responsibilities of people in a democratic system – this all begins on the personal learning level of state (and local) history. Making more direct, personal connections for students with this content is essential. The embattled path of social studies and history education and curriculum in general, curriculum and standards debates and inconsistencies, personal learning experiences, and perceptions of pre-service social studies teachers, have all contributed to the diminished stature of state history as a viable, meaningful content and learning vehicle in the social studies curriculum hierarchy.

In some states, specifically in Arkansas, pre-service elementary teachers are required to take an Arkansas History course, most often through the history department, as opposed to an education methods course, and this often impacts their perception of the course and content, which can later impact that of their students as well. Secondary social studies education majors also must take a state history course for certification. Without applicable strategies for

implementation in a future classroom, the content is frequently seen as dry and uninteresting and continues the cycle of battering this important course vehicle for developing strong skills and perceptions within the social studies course paradigm. "...there's a battle between content and methods, and methods is losing, even though methods is the more useful of the two – the one that will transform students' minds from recall to that of independence and inquiry" (Strauss, 2017). This notion not only applies to students in a K - 12 classroom, but also to a pre-service teachers pursuing licensure. Effective teaching is not only having a vast content knowledge but having the relationship-building strategies and skills in an educator's toolkit to make content relevant.

Additionally, further underlining the lack of importance placed on the teaching and learning of state history, there is a definite lack of a quality and plentiful research base on this topic. A great deal of the research context is valuable, but anecdotal. Many times, when one is researching about the teaching of state history, curriculum, data, trends, legislation, standards, best practices, and so on, much of the information that is found is related to homeschooling. An abundance of circumstantial evidence of this nature, along with a multitude of homeschool resources and publications, can be found more easily than vetted scholarly research on the topic. The disregard for state history in general academic and curriculum venues, as well as for social studies in general, even makes its' way into homeschool world where it seems to be a mere possibility in the scope and sequence of study. The existence of significant gaps in solid peer-reviewed, research-based, data-driven literature on the necessity of state history courses in the social studies course hierarchy punctuates the need for attention and further academic study.

Curricular development, emphasis, and utilization also vary among states. Political, social, economic, and other cultural forces influencing the social studies curriculum often account for these interstate differences. Consequently, state-by-state comparisons of social studies are a problematic endeavor (Au, 2007, 2009). Within state [intrastate] variance[s] can be just as problematic across public schools, private schools, and charter

schools with each mandating different curricular guidelines and advocating for different classroom practices. As of this writing, little research has examined the differences in social studies teaching among these different school types. (Fitchett, 2013, p. 5).

Future research considerations would investigate how teacher training (or the lack thereof) and ongoing professional development requirements impact perceptions and delivery of state history content, as well as the impact state standardized testing could and would have on all areas of social studies. “ ‘Social studies is like the lima beans on the curricular plate of the elementary student’s day,’ said Paul Fitchett, associate professor and director of curriculum and instruction for the doctoral program in education at University of North Carolina at Charlotte. Research shows that teachers coming from elementary ed programs feel the least competent in teaching social studies, compared to math, English Language Arts and even the sciences. Because social studies is not an academic priority in many states, teachers often receive inadequate training from teacher-prep programs on how to teach the subject; once they begin teaching in the classroom, according to the National Council for the Social Studies, teachers need continued professional development to allow them to master the skills of effective social studies instructions. Often, educators say, that training is lacking” (Gonser, n.p. 2018).

It might also be prudent to explore the political, curricular, and pedagogical issues facing state history as well as the means by which the teaching and learning of state history might be improved. Three states in which this might be a good place to start that additional research were identified in the Literature Review of this study, would be Tennessee, Iowa, and Indiana, which have all passed legislation in recent years related to state history, professional development for state history teachers, state history requirements, and curriculum and materials guidelines. Further, no participants self-identified as being from these states in the questionnaire used in this

study, so a study which specifically seeks to include participants from those states might be useful, or a focus study on states which have specific, related, enacted state history legislation.

Another element of study that might be a beneficial research pathway would be to further explore, and possibly complete case studies on, those who employ Place-Based Education strategies, as discussed in Chapter Two of this study. The literature, although less limited than that specifically related to state history itself, seems to still be developing. If further research and case studies were implemented about the possible usefulness of, and connections between, PBE and state and local history, I believe state history might finally find its stride. It might finally be both interesting *and* important. The interdisciplinary and cross-curricular opportunities are endless.

Questionnaire respondents had several suggestions about action steps to improve the teaching (and learning) of state history that might justify a study as well – funding and grant strategies; connecting state history and National History Day; better teacher training opportunities; focus on field trips; length of the time a course is taught (semester vs. full-year), and more substantial requirements about when and how the course and content are delivered. I would also be interested to see a study that investigated if years a teacher taught impacts attitudes and dispositions in regard to the teaching and learning of state history. Although no specific evidence was garnered from either the questionnaire or the interviews that indicated this, it is something I began to ponder as I compiled results and reviewed demographics – would new teachers be more amenable to teaching state history? Are most who teach the course novice or veteran and why? Do those with less experience, or more experience, find state history more valuable or significant? Is there a correlation?

It also seems as though a study of “interesting v. important” in the social studies might be warranted. First, one would have to have teachers define “interesting” and define “important” as they relate to content, curriculum, knowledge, skills, and so on. Then, the various social studies courses would have to be analyzed and evaluated by study participants according a rubric developed by the researcher based on obtained definitions. It might also be of benefit to define and connect “value” as a marker in a future study of this type. It seemed to be somewhat more elusive in this study than was anticipated. Although this overall suggested study concept seems somewhat subjective in the world of structured and standardized academic assessment and achievement, it seems to have emerged as something potentially significant in this study.

Overall, a comprehensive study to determine why state history is so underappreciated is in order – why is there scant existing literature? Why is there a lack of understanding that the course itself is a phenomenal vehicle for skill building, developing passion for the idea of history, making local and unique personal connections and supporting writing, critical thinking and inquiry-based skill development? A vast expansion of this particular study would be a starting point. A 50-state survey to determine the why and why not of state history – perceptions, regulations, curriculum, and sequencing in the social studies - all the way from state education departments to classroom teachers, to learners, and their families.

Conclusion

As a sixteen-year social studies classroom educator, teacher leader, professional development presenter, and curriculum writer, I firmly believe that social studies classes are an excellent time to teach, model, and promote good citizenship and tolerance. It is a time for students to begin to explore, understand, and respect opinions that may differ from their own,

within the context of Arkansas History, Geography, United States History, World Studies, Economics, Civics, and American Government. Social studies class is one of the greatest places in which students can learn life skills that will carry beyond the classroom.

Through a state history course taught at the middle level (of which I am a huge advocate), a student can glean an understanding of history, geography, economics, civics, sociology, psychology, and anthropology - a foundation upon which they can build as they move to a higher level, specialized social studies classes. I have an intrinsic respect for state history and a belief in its importance in the social studies educational hierarchy. Having grown up in Texas, where the state's history is highly prized, I felt that many of my Arkansas students were lacking a sense of pride in their own home state and had a lack of awareness of the amazing, rich tapestry that creates the state history of Arkansas - as well as a lack of awareness of the relationship with an impact on the rest of the world that Arkansas has. I made it my daily mission to model to my students my pride in and love of Arkansas; the importance of embracing one's state and its history, and to be a respectful, tolerant, contributing citizen of one's community, state, and nation.

Additionally, state history courses are an excellent time for teachers to embrace cross-curricular planning – i.e. to be a support and reinforcement to Language Arts classes as they navigate through district, state, and national guidelines. Professional development for educators should support that goal – promoting and embracing new strategies and best practices in state history, integrating content – not mired in the same, antiquated ‘sit and get’ history content, thus the motivation for this study.

As a researcher and advocate of state history as a valued course in social studies pedagogy, I learned that I am not completely alone in my thinking. I learned that state history is

interesting to most and could be seen as useful in making connections and sparking interest or highlighting a connection but is not truly considered “essential.” It is personal, it is unique, it is local and that in and of itself details its significance and value – but it is not a powerhouse in the curriculum world. It is anecdotal, and emotional, and personal. If employed correctly and creatively, it can be a foundation builder for skills and interest in future history and social studies endeavors for students, but unfortunately, I am doubtful that it will ever garner the heft to be a (national) graduation requirement or expectation, even for those who teach it. The predisposition to attach state history like a lost appendage to US history is not only burdensome and clunky, but unfair and wasteful. It is more of a passion project, than a necessity. However, I believe it should be “exploited” in a positive way as a flexible, creative, real, engaging, personal learning experience for students all grades, K – 12. I do not see learning or teaching state history as a burden, but a privilege - I was born and raised and moved from another state (TX) that values state history to the nth degree and was thrilled to have the opportunity to learn about the state in which I chose to go to college, live my adult life, and have resided for almost thirty years (AR). For me, it has opened a thousand doors and launched almost as many careers. Everyone should be so lucky.

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Appendices

Appendix A

National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) Survey

Public Schools

Generally, the amount of time that students in public schools spent on English, social studies, and science differed between the third and eighth grades, whereas the amount of time spent on mathematics did not (figures 6 and 7).

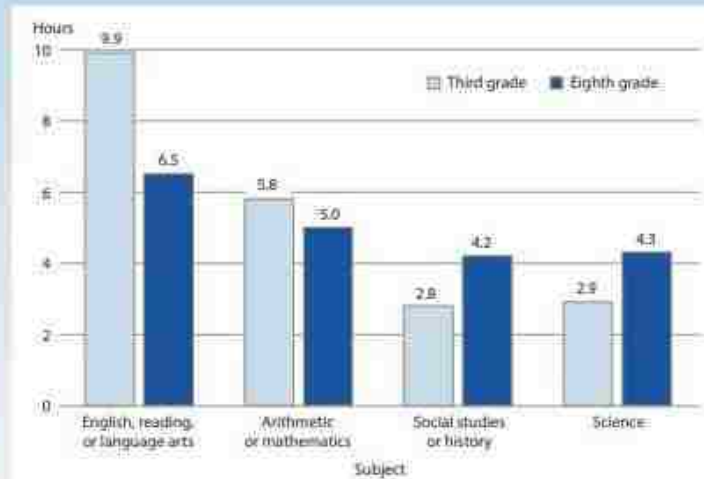
On average, in 2011–12, third-graders spent more time in a typical week on English than did eighth-graders (9.9 hours for third-graders vs. 6.5 hours for eighth-graders). In terms of the percentage of time, third-graders spent 30.2 percent of their time per week on English, compared to 19.4 percent for eighth-graders.

The opposite was true for social studies and science; on average, in 2011–12, third-graders spent less time per week on these subjects than did eighth-graders. In social studies, third-graders spent 2.8 hours per week on social studies, compared to 4.2 hours for eighth-graders. In terms of the percentage of time, third-graders spent 8.6 percent of their time in a typical week on social studies, compared to 12.5 percent of time for eighth-graders.

In science, on average, third-graders spent 2.9 hours per week, whereas eighth-graders spent 4.3 hours per week. Similarly, third-graders spent a smaller percentage of their time (8.8 percent) on science than did eighth-graders (12.7 percent).

FIGURE 6.

Average number of hours per week that third- and eighth-graders in public schools spent on various subjects, by grade: 2011–12

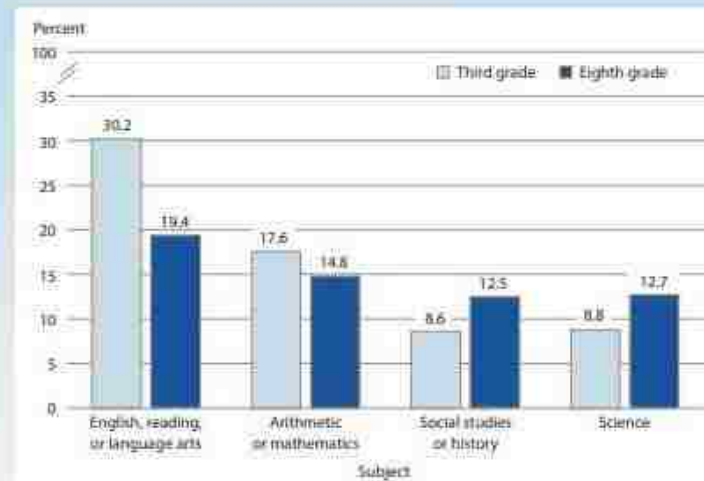


NOTE: The amount of allocated time was reported by the school principal.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS), "Public School Principal Data File," 2011–12.

FIGURE 7.

Average percentage of time per week that third- and eighth-graders in public schools spent on various subjects, by grade: 2011–12



NOTE: The amount of allocated time was reported by the school principal.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS), "Public School Principal Data File," 2011–12.

Appendix B
State-by-State Review of Social Studies Standards by The Fordham Institute

State Name	Title of Standards Document	US Hist standards “grade” from Fordham Institute: <i>The State of State U.S. History Standards, 2011</i>	Major strength & weakness as identified by Fordham Institute doc: <i>The State of State U.S. History Standards, 2011, The ECS and the State of History Education Report</i>	Units in social studies req’d for grad
1. Alabama - https://www.alsde.edu/sec/sct/COS/2010%20Alabama%20SocialStudies%20Course%20of%20Study.pdf	Alabama Course of Study: Social Studies	A-	Two, 2-year courses in US and fourth grade is AL hist. Some gaps in content and detail, some departure from theme and chronology.	4
2. Alaska - http://www.asdk12.org/socialstudies/socialstudieshome/	Content and Performance Standards for Alaska Students: History	F	Focus is on state and native history – not US. Broad, vague layout. No grade-by-grade content or course expectations. 4th and 9th are Alaska studies courses.	3
3. Arizona - http://www.azed.gov/standards-practices/k-12standards/standards-social-studies/	Arizona Academic Standards, Social Studies	C	Focus on abstract concepts, rather than chronology. Fourth grade state history course.	1.5
4. Arkansas - http://www.arkansased.gov/divisions/learning-services/curriculum-and-instruction/curriculum-framework-documents/social-studies-new-courses-valid-july-1-2015	Arkansas Social Studies Curriculum Frameworks	D	Outlines some essential U.S. history content, but significant gaps and a confusing thematic arrangement One semester state history course required anywhere btw 7 – 12.	3
5. California - http://www.cde.ca.gov/ci/hs/cf/sbedraftssfw.asp	History-Social Science Content Standards for California Public Schools: K - 12	A	US is split amongst 3 grades – 4 th , 8 th , 11 th and 7th grade is state history. Truly ‘history’ standards, rejects concepts of ‘social studies.’	3
6. Colorado - https://www.cde.state.co.us/cosocialstudies/statestandards	Colorado Academic Standards: Social Studies	F	Four strands in all grades – hist, geo, econ, civics. Heavy jargon, confusing ‘nested’ strategies. 5 th , 8 th and some HS for US Hist. 4th grade state hist.	.5
7. Connecticut - http://www.sde.ct.gov/sde/lib/sde/pdf/board/ssframeworks.pdf	Connecticut Social Studies Curriculum Framework PK-12	F	Isolated content and structure “suggestions.” 3rd grade state hist; 5 th & 8 th only specific standards for US. Overall, focused on too broad concepts and historical literacy (vague).	3
8. Delaware - https://www.doe.k12.de.us/Page/2548	Curriculum Frameworks for Content Standards, Social Studies	F	US and state hist embedded at all grade levels, with increasing “complexity” at each higher grade.	3
9. District of Columbia - https://osse.dc.gov/sites/default/files/dc/sites/osse/publication/attachments/DCPS-horiz-soc_studies.pdf	DCPS Teaching and Learning Standards	A-	Model standards along with CA and MA. Two, 2-year survey courses of US Hist in 4 th /5 th & 8 th /11 th . Grade 3 (and some of grade 4) is history of DC.	3.5
10. Florida - http://www.fldoe.org/academics/standards/subject-areas/social-studies.shtml	Next Generation Sunshine State Standards for Social Studies	C	5 th , 8 th and HS US Hist courses. 4th grade state hist.	3
11. Georgia - https://www.georgiastandards.org/Frameworks/Pages/BrowseFrameworks/socialstudies.aspx	Georgia Performance Standards (GPS) for Social Studies	B	3 rd , 4 th & 5 th grade US history courses, and again high school. Georgia history is taught in 8th.	3
12. Hawaii - http://165.248.72.55/hcpsv3/files	Hawaiian Content and Performance	C	5 th , 8 th , 10 th US Hist courses – good content, despite spread over 3 grades. 7th grade covers history of Hawaiian	4

/final_hcpsiii_socialstudies_libr rydocs_1.pdf	Standards Social Standards		kingdom and Pacific Islands, 9th is modern HI history.	
13. Idaho - http://www.sde.idaho.gov/academic/shared/social-studies/ICS-Social-Studies.pdf	Idaho Content Standards Social Standards	F	US history content guidelines are so “vague, to the point of nonexistent.” One USH course is suggested in 5 th and the other somewhere btw 9 – 12. No specific state hist course – embedded in 4th grade standards.	2.5
14. Illinois - https://www.isbe.net/Pages/Social-Sciences-Learning-Standards.aspx	Illinois Learning Standards, Social Science	D	“Vague goals and skills.” “Not designed to replace local curricula and should not be considered state curricula.” Two of the five skills headings: *Understand Illinois, United States, and world social history; and IL studies elective in HS.	2
State Name	Title of Standards Document	US Hist standards “grade” from Fordham Institute: <i>The State of State U.S. History Standards, 2011</i>	Major strength & weakness as identified by Fordham Institute doc: <i>The State of State U.S. History Standards, 2011, The ECS and the State of History Education Report</i>	Units in social studies req’d for grad
15. Indiana - http://www.doe.in.gov/standards/social-studies	Indiana Academic Standards Social Standards	A-	Indian hist throughout elem. More in- depth course in 4th grade. US Hist split through 3 grades, 5 th , 8 th and HS. “Indiana’s U.S. history standards present solid and substantive content, albeit with scattered errors and thematic departures from chronology.”	3
16. Iowa - www.educateiowa.gov/sites/files/ed/documents/FirstDraftK-12SocialStudiesStandards.pdf	No State Standards in History or Social Studies; has ‘Core Curriculum.’	F	New draft pending from 2016. Prior to that, no specific history standards, at all. State hist embedded in K – 12 according to 2016 doc.	.5
17. Kansas - http://www.ksde.org/LinkClick.aspx?fileticket=zNGRyc6vESw%3D&tabid=472&portalid=0?=-1587	Kansas Curricular Standards History and Government; Economics and Geography	C	State history in 4th and 7th. US hist is 5 th , 8 th and high school. “Offer[s] much solid content and some exceptional items. Unfortunately, thematic organization too often trumps chronology, leading to confused clusters of material that obscure causality and historical logic.”	3
18. Kentucky - https://education.ky.gov/curriculum/conpro/socstud/Pages/Social-Studies-Standards-.aspx	Kentucky Social Standards Program of Studies and Core Content for Assessment	D	“Kentucky’s heavily abstract and thematic standards not only fail to outline specific content in each grade, but also give little sense even of the historical time spans meant to be covered. Details of U.S. history make only fleeting appearances amid myriad strands, themes, and sub- themes.” Fourth grade is KY hist – “Students are again “to describe significant events in the history of Kentucky and interpret different perspectives,” but almost no content is outlined.” 5 th * 8 th are primary US hist courses, with US mixed into world in HS. Senate Bill 1 (2017) calls for the Kentucky Department of Education to implement a process for reviewing all academic standards and aligned assessments beginning in the 2017-18 school year. Currently, a 745 pg. doc.	3
19. Louisiana - www.louisianabelieves.com/resources/library/teacher-support-toolbox-library/6-8-grade-social-studies-teachers	Louisiana Content Standards, Benchmarks, and Grade Level Expectations for Social Studies	C	“Starting in 5th grade, the content and sequence defined in the benchmarks <i>do not match</i> those outlined in the grade- level expectations. The benchmarks explicitly cover <i>all</i> of American history in 5th through 8th grades, and briefly recapitulate earlier periods at the high school level before moving to the twentieth century. But the expectations	3

			split U.S. history content across grades five, seven, and high school." Grade 8 is also a LA history course.	
20. Maine - http://www.maine.gov/doe/socialstudies/standards/index.html	Maine Learning Results Social Studies	F	A brief list of historical eras (for both U.S. and world history) appears in the introductory section, accompanying a definition of the word "eras." Beyond this, no specific U.S. history is laid out, and no particular periods are assigned to any particular grade. Maine and Native Americans, the state constitutions and community are embedded.	2
21. Maryland - http://mdk12.msde.maryland.gov/instruction/curriculum/social_studies/	State Curriculum for Social Studies, pre K- 8th and U.S. History, High School	C	Maryland history in 4th grade. Tremendous focus on literacy and writing throughout. Very confusing matrix to determine content at each grade level. Tremendous reference to CCSS. USH appears to be embedded 6- 8. Standards labeled "Learning Results."	3
22. Massachusetts - http://www.doe.mass.edu/frameworks/hss/final.pdf	Massachusetts Curriculum Frameworks History and Social Science	A-	Grade 3 is MA hist & geog. USH I is in 5 th and USHII sometime in HS. Not revised in 2003. "The Massachusetts U.S. history standards offer clear, comprehensible outlines, rigorously focused on historical substance and comprehension. Despite occasional omissions and weak spots, the content is detailed and sophisticated, offering explanation and context as well as lists - a model of how history standards should be organized."	Local Decision
State Name	Title of Standards Document	US Hist standards "grade" from Fordham Institute: <i>The State of State U.S. History Standards, 2011</i>	Major strength & weakness as identified by Fordham Institute doc: <i>The State of State U.S. History Standards, 2011, The ECS and the State of History Education Report</i>	Units in social studies req'd for grad
23. Michigan - https://www.michigan.gov/documents/mde/SS_COMBINED_August_2015_496557_7.pdf	Michigan Curriculum and Instruction Social Studies	B	Third grade focuses on "Michigan Studies," a general overview of the state through its admission to statehood. Fourth grade is described as "United States Studies," but actually continues its overview of Michigan, using "examples from Michigan history (from statehood to the present) as a case study for learning about United States geography, economics, and government." The U.S. history sequence is treated as a single course, divided among grades five, eight, and high school. Fifth grade runs from pre-settlement to 1800, and eighth from 1754 to 1898. The high school U.S. history course briefly reviews the period to 1877, then continues to the present.	3
24. Minnesota - http://www.mcss.org/Resources/Documents/2011%20Social%20Studies%20Standards.pdf 2011	Minnesota Academic Standards in History and Social Studies	C	Minnesota divides its history and social studies standards into seven strands: U.S. history, Minnesota history, world history, historical skills, geography, economics, and government and citizenship. Each strand is presented as a unit, broken into sections by grade bands—K–3, 4–8, and 9–12—without individual grade-level standards. (The Minnesota history strand includes standards only for grades 4–8). A course on Minnesota history appears in grade block 4–8, primarily in 6th grade. The U.S. history strand places a full U.S. history course, from pre-settlement to the present, in grade band 4–8. A second full course, covering the same all-encompassing time span, is placed in grade band 9–12.	3.5

25. Mississippi - http://www.mde.k12.ms.us/ESE/SS_2011	Mississippi Curriculum Framework Social Studies	F	4 Carnegie units of social studies to include 1 USH 1 World History 0.5, Geography 0.5, Economics 0.5, U.S Government 0.5 & Mississippi Studies. 4th grade is devoted to "Mississippi studies." 5th grade has a "United States studies" 8th grade covers U.S. history to 1877. "United States History: 1877 to the Present," a one year course, offered anywhere grades 9 - 12.	4
26. Missouri - https://dese.mo.gov/sites/default/files/curr-mls-standards-ss-k-5-sboe-2016.pdf	Missouri Show-Me Standards Social Studies Framework Strands	F	Third grade is devoted to Missouri history. In fifth grade, U.S. history appears, covering the period through Reconstruction. 8th grade retraces the same ground, before the high school U.S. history course covers the period from Reconstruction to the present.	3
27. Montana - http://opi.mt.gov/pdf/Standards/ContStds-SocSt.pdf	Montana Content and Performance Standards Social Studies	F	The Montana Standards for Social Studies (grade-cluster standards) are divided into six central themes. The same standards six are repeated for multiple grades but the associated benchmarks become increasingly complex. No actual course content is outlined, nor is any specific subject matter assigned to any particular grade or block of grades.	2
28. Nebraska - https://www.education.ne.gov/ss/Documents/2012December7NE_SocialStudiesStandardsApproved.pdf	Nebraska Academic Standards Social Studies/History	C	Grades two through four introduce Nebraska history, primarily 4th. American history first appears in fifth through eighth grade, covering pre-settlement to the post-World War II period. American history is covered again in the high school block, running from pre-settlement to the present.	3
29. Nevada - http://www.doe.nv.gov/Standards/Instructional_Support/Nevada_Academic_Standards/SocialStudies/	Nevada Social Studies Standards	D	The history strand is divided into four standards. Each standard is divided into "United States & Nevada" and "world" themes, and grade-level or grade-block benchmarks are provided for each theme. For grade blocks 6-8 and 9-12, the benchmarks within each theme are arranged under chronological headings. NV hist is integrated with US throughout.	2
State Name	Title of Standards Document	US Hist standards "grade" from Fordham Institute: <i>The State of State U.S. History Standards, 2011</i>	Major strength & weakness as identified by Fordham Institute doc: <i>The State of State U.S. History Standards, 2011, The ECS and the State of History Education Report</i>	Units in social studies req'd for grad
30. New Hampshire - https://www.education.nh.gov/instruction/curriculum/social_studies/documents/frameworks.pdf	New Hampshire Curriculum Frameworks Social Studies	F	Credits required for graduation include: one credit in United States and New Hampshire history, one-half credit in United States and New Hampshire government/civics , one-half credit in world history, global studies or geography. State history is embedded with US throughout.	2.5
31. New Jersey	New Jersey Core Curriculum Content Standards for Social Studies	C	Concepts of democratic government, selected founding documents, symbols, holidays, and basics elements of New Jersey history are all introduced from pre-Kindergarten through fourth grade. Grades five through eight introduce U.S. history from pre-settlement to Reconstruction. At least 15 credits in social studies are required, including a two-year course of study in the history of the United States and the state of New Jersey, "five credits in world history; and the integration of civics, economics, geography and global content in all course offerings" (N.J.A.C. 6a:8-5.1) A 2-year course of study in history is	3

			mandated for all students. "The superintendent of schools in each school district shall prepare and recommend to the board of education of the district, and the board of education shall adopt a suitable two-year course of study in the history of the United States, including the history of New Jersey, to be given to each student during the last four years of high school.	
32. New Mexico - http://www.ped.state.nm.us/standards/	Standards for Excellence: Social Studies	D	The history strand is divided into four benchmarks: New Mexico, United States, world, and skills. History performance standards under these benchmarks follow a largely chronological structure, with some thematic departures. Kindergarten through fourth grade introduce national holidays and symbols, famous individuals, and concepts of chronology and sources. The U.S. history sequence is presented as a single course, divided among grades five, eight, and high school. Fifth grade covers pre-settlement through the colonial era; eighth grade runs from the Revolution to Reconstruction; high school outlines Reconstruction to the present. High school graduation requirements include "three and one-half units in social science, which shall include United States history and geography, world history and geography and government and economics, and one-half unit of New Mexico history. " (N.M. Stat. Ann. § 22-13-1.1-1)	3
33. New York - https://www.engageny.org/resource/new-york-state-k-12-social-studies-framework	Learning Standards for Social Studies	A-	Fourth grade introduces New York history up to the mid-nineteenth century. The main U.S. history sequence begins in seventh and eighth grades with a full course called "United States and New York State History," running from pre-settlement to the present; teachers are "encouraged" to devote two full years to the material. At the high school level, a "United States History and Government" course is offered.	4
34. North Carolina - http://www.dpi.state.nc.us/curriculum/socialstudies/scos/#social http://www.dpi.state.nc.us/docs/curriculum/socialstudies/scos/unpacking/4th.pdf	North Carolina Standard Course of Study Social Studies	F	Tremendous local control (possible inconsistency). North Carolina history enters in fourth grade. Two full-year courses are provided at the high school level: U.S. History I covers from pre-settlement to Reconstruction; U.S. History II continues to the present.	3
State Name	Title of Standards Document	US Hist standards "grade" from Fordham Institute: <i>The State of State U.S. History Standards, 2011</i>	Major strength & weakness as identified by Fordham Institute doc: <i>The State of State U.S. History Standards, 2011, The ECS and the State of History Education Report</i>	Units in social studies req'd for grad
35. North Dakota - https://www.nd.gov/dpi/uploads/87/Soc_studies.pdf 2007	North Dakota State Standards Social Studies	F	Fourth grade introduces North Dakota history. The main U.S. history course is divided among grades five, eight, and high school. Fifth grade covers from pre-settlement to independence, eighth grade from independence to the late nineteenth century, and high school (grade unspecified) from "industrialization to the present."	Local Decision
36. Ohio - http://education.ohio.gov/getattachment/Topics/Ohio-s-New-Learning-Standards/Social-	Academic Content Standards K-12 Social Studies	D	Kindergarten through third grade focus on broad concepts of community and change over time. Fourth grade introduces Ohio history. American history enters in	3

Studies/SS-Standards.pdf.aspx 2010			eighth grade and covers the period from pre settlement to Reconstruction. The high school course continues from Reconstruction to the present.	
37. Oklahoma - http://sde.ok.gov/sde/sites/ok.gov.sde/files/documents/files/Social_Studies_OK_Academic_Standards.pdf	Oklahoma Priority Academic Student Skills Social Studies	B+	Kindergarten through fourth grade introduce basic concepts of community, chronology, and change over time; fourth grade also includes brief content items on historical and geographical features of OK. Third grade is Oklahoma studies. Fifth grade turns to U.S. history, covering the period from pre-settlement to 1850. Eighth grade covers the years from 1760 to 1877. The high school U.S. history course runs from 1850 the present. There is a high school OK Hist & Gov course as well.	3
38. Oregon - http://www.oregon.gov/ode/educator-resources/standards/socialsciences/Pages/Standards.aspx	Oregon K-12 Social Sciences Academic Content Standards	F	The U.S. history sequence is split into a single course over the grade bands for fourth and fifth grade, sixth through eighth grade, and high school, with state history embedded. Uses the term "social sciences."	3
39. Pennsylvania - http://www.pdesas.org/Standard/View	Pennsylvania Academic Standards Civics Economics Geography History	F	The ECS reports notes: " Pennsylvania history shall be taught as required in section 1605 of the Public School Code of 1949. " PA's standards were very difficult to navigate and difficult to identify courses and grad levels. State history appears to be embedded with US at multiple grades.	Local Decision
40. Rhode Island - http://www.ride.ri.gov/InstructionAssessment/CivicsSocialStudies.aspx#13670-gses	Rhode Island Grade Span Expectations for Civics & Government and Historical Perspectives/Rhode Island History	N/A	"As of 2010, Rhode Island has chosen not to implement statewide social studies standards. "In accordance with a Rhode Island statute on civic education," the state Department of Education notes on its website, "in 2006 the Rhode Island Department of Education developed the Rhode Island Grade Span Expectations (GSEs) for Civics & Government and Historical Perspectives/Rhode Island History (commonly known as the Civics GSEs) for K-12 implementation in all districts." These GSEs, as close as Rhode Island presently comes to social studies standards, " <i>are not intended</i> to represent the full curriculum for instruction and assessment locally, nor are they meant to simply replace existing social studies curriculum" (emphasis added). Most importantly, they explicitly do <i>not</i> attempt to lay out specific history content or sequence."	Three Courses
41. South Carolina - http://ed.sc.gov/scdoe/assets/file/agency/ccr/Standards-Learning/documents/FINALAPPROVEDSSStandardsAugust182011.pdf	South Carolina Curriculum and Standards Social Studies	A	3rd & 8th grade state history courses. 4 th , 5 th USH courses and again in high school, no grade specified. "South Carolina has supplemented its already solid U.S. history standards with extraordinary, narrative "curriculum support" documents. The support texts not only outline what should be covered, but also explain the actual history in depth, maintaining a nuanced, sophisticated, and balanced approach throughout."	3
State Name	Title of Standards Document	US Hist standards "grade" from Fordham Institute: <i>The State of State U.S. History Standards, 2011</i>	Major strength & weakness as identified by Fordham Institute doc: <i>The State of State U.S. History Standards, 2011, The ECS and the State of History Education Report</i>	Units in social studies req'd for grad

42. South Dakota - https://doe.sd.gov/contentstandards/documents/SDSocialS.pdf 2014	South Dakota Content Standards Social Studies	D	SD History spans 3-5th grade, leaving the majority of the SD History outcomes in 4th grade and also ensuring the content is built upon in a learning progression. 8 th grade is USH with only 1 credit required. Optional, additional courses at HS. Requires students to complete 3 credits of social studies for high school graduation. Courses include United States history, United States government, .5 unit of geography, .5 unit world history.	3
43. Tennessee - https://www.tn.gov/education/article/social-studies-standards	Tennessee Curriculum Standards Social Studies	C	“Tennessee’s U.S. history standards provide some useful content, though much remains patchy and broad.” Requirements include 3 units of Social Studies, including U.S. history, world history/geography, economics and government. State history in 5th, 4th, 8th and 11th are USH.	3
44. Texas - http://tea.texas.gov/Academics/Curriculum_Standards/TEKS_Texas_Essential_Knowledge_and_Skills_(TEKS)_Review/Social_Studies_TEKS/ http://tea.texas.gov/Academics/Subject_Areas/Social_Studies/Social_Studies/	Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills Social Studies	D	4th and 7th grades are Texas history courses. The Fordham document labels the guidelines as “rigidly thematic and theory-based social studies structure with a politicized distortion of history. The result is both unwieldy and troubling, avoiding clear historical explanation while offering misrepresentations at every turn.”	4
45. Utah - http://www.uen.org/core/socialstudies/	Utah Education Network (UEN) Social Studies Core	C	4th grade is Utah Geog and gov. State history course in 7th, with comprehensive standards. US History course in 5 th , 8 th and 11 th grades.	2.5
46. Vermont - http://education.vermont.gov/student-learning/content-areas/global-citizenship	Vermont Framework of Standards and Learning Opportunities History and Social Sciences	F	Minimum course of study includes citizenship, history, and Vermont and U.S. government. Each secondary school board is responsible for setting graduation requirements in accordance with these rules. Should include: global citizenship (including the concepts of civics, economics, geography, world language, cultural studies and history). Standards by grade cluster labeled as “global citizenship.”	3
47. Virginia - http://www.doe.virginia.gov/testing/sol/standards_docs/history_socialscience/2015/1_index.shtml	Virginia History and Social Science Standards of Learning	C	Specific rich content standards on both US and Virginia state history. A separate state history course at elementary, but blended at high school. Grade recs for course placement unclear. 3 Credits: For students entering the ninth grade for the first time in 2011-2012 and beyond: Courses completed to satisfy this requirement shall include U.S. and Virginia History, U.S. and Virginia Government, and one course in either world history or geography or both.	3
48. Washington - http://www.k12.wa.us/SocialStudies/pubdocs/SocialStudiesStandards.pdf	Washington State K-12 Social Studies Learning Standards	D	4th and 7th grade state history courses, but optional for districts to modify. 7th grade is contemporary state history blended with US themes. Successful completion of WA State History and Government: *Non-credit requirement *Successful completion will be noted on transcripts. 5 th , 8 th and 11 th grade USH courses.	2.5
49. West Virginia - https://apps.sos.wv.gov/adlaw/csr/readfile.aspx?DocId=27577&Format=PDF https://webtop.k12.wv.us/0/apps/tree/	21 st Century Social Studies Content Standards and Objectives for West Virginia Schools	D	“In all public, private, parochial and denominational schools located within this state, there shall be given prior to the completion of the eighth grade at least one year of instruction in the history of the State of West Virginia. The schools shall require regular courses of instruction by the completion of the twelfth grade in the history of the United States, in civics, in the Constitution of the United States, and in the government of the State of West	4

			Virginia for the purpose of teaching, fostering and perpetuating the ideals, principles and spirit of political and economic democracy in America and increasing the knowledge of the organization and machinery of the government of the United States and of the State of West Virginia."	
50. Wisconsin - https://dpi.wi.gov/social-studies	Wisconsin Model Academic Standards for Social Studies Instruction	F	"Wisconsin's U.S. history standards, for all practical purposes, do not exist. Their sole content is a list of ten eras in American and Wisconsin history, followed by a few brief and vague directives to understand vast swaths of history and broad historical concepts." Determining an actual course's scope, sequence, and content rests entirely on the shoulders of local teachers and districts." Adopted in 1998, the <i>WMAS/SS</i> are performance standards in five content clusters (geography, history, political science, economics, and the behavioral sciences). There are benchmarks at 4th, 8th, and 12th grades.	3
51. Wyoming - https://edu.wyoming.gov/educators/standards/social-studies/	Wyoming Social Studies Content and Performance Standards	F	W.S. 21-9-102 requires all publicly funded schools in Wyoming to "give instruction in the essentials of the United States constitution and the constitution of the state of Wyoming , including the study of and devotion to American institution and ideals..." In order to receive a high school diploma, instruction must be given for at least three (3) years in kindergarten through grade eight (8) and one (1) year in the secondary grades.	State Recs 3

(Baumann, 2016, K – 12; Martin, 2011, p. 5 – 68; Stern, 2011, p. 2- 169).

The Fordham Institute is a school choice, "think tank" educational advocacy organization. The methods for Fordham's "grading system" can be viewed on the following pages retrieved from this source: <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED516608.pdf> - p. 164 – 168.

Methods, Grading, and Criteria

Methods

This study examined the NAEP U.S. history assessment framework, as well as each state's history and/or social studies standards with an eye toward determining how rigorously and completely they address U.S. history. Like other Fordham Institute reviews of state standards, this analysis focuses solely on the quality of the standards themselves. We do not look at whether they are linked to a robust accountability system or whether they are being effectively implemented by the states.

Our approach was straightforward: We gathered the most recent versions of academic standards from all the states and asked trusted content experts to apply a set of criteria to them.

Beginning in spring 2009, Fordham staff searched state education-department websites and downloaded all of the relevant and up-to-date standards documents posted. This exhaustive search yielded, for some states, hundreds of pages of documents, consisting of everything from standards to assessment materials to curriculum guides. All of these documents were sent to Drs. Sheldon and Jeremy Stern for their review.

The reviewers combed through each state's standards documents, selected the most relevant material, including assessments and curriculum frameworks when appropriate, and verified that these were the most recent standards adopted by the state. These are the documents identified at the beginning of each review. Fordham staff then rechecked these materials in the fall of 2010 to ensure that nothing had changed. To the best of our knowledge, all standards were current as of November 2010.

Our content experts then applied pre-determined criteria to the standards. (The criteria themselves are set out below.) They assigned two scores to each set of standards: one for "Content and Rigor," the other for "Clarity and Specificity." Content and Rigor is scored on a 0–7 point scale while Clarity and Specificity is scored on a 0–3 point scale.

Scores for Content and Rigor were added to that of Clarity and Specificity. The combined totals were translated into letter grades as follows:

Grade	Points
A	10
A-	9
B+	8
B	7
C	5 or 6
D	3 or 4
F	0, 1, or 2

To make comparisons across disciplines possible, we used the same grading metric as in earlier analyses of state, national, and international English language arts (ELA) and math standards. *Stars By Which To Navigate: Scanning National And International Education Standards in 2009*, a recent Fordham report, provided in-depth analyses of national and international benchmark assessment standards. In *The State of State Standards—and the Common Core—in 2010*, we reviewed state ELA and math standards alongside the

final Common Core ELA and math standards. (Both of these earlier reviews are available on the Fordham Institute website.)

Grading Metric

» CONTENT AND RIGOR

7 points: Standards meet all of the following criteria:

- Standards are top-notch in terms of the content chosen. The coverage of the subject is suitable, good decisions have been made about what topics to include, and nothing of importance has been overlooked. (No more than 5 percent of the content outlined in the subject specific content expectations is missing.)
- Not only is the appropriate content covered by the standards, but it is covered well (i.e., in a high quality manner).
- Good decisions have also been made about what content should be left out. Excellent standards do not include much superfluous material. (No more than 5 percent of the content in the standards is unnecessary.)
- Standards distinguish between more important and less important content and skills either directly (i.e., by articulating which are more or less important) OR via the number of standards dedicated to particular content and skills (i.e., more important content/skills have more standards while less important content/skills have fewer standards). The standards do not overemphasize topics of little importance or underemphasize topics of great importance.
- The level of rigor is appropriate for the targeted grade level(s). Students are expected to learn the content and skills in a sensible order and an appropriately increasing level of difficulty. The standards, taken as a whole, define a core literacy for all students in the subject under review; at the same time, the standards that run through twelfth grade are sufficiently challenging to ensure that students who achieve proficiency by the final year of high school will be ready for college or work and citizenship.
- The standards do not overemphasize the importance of students' life experiences or "real world" problems. They do not embrace fads, suggest political bias, or teach moral dogma. They do not imply that all interpretations are equally valid (regardless of logic or the adequacy of supporting evidence). The standards also avoid other major subject-specific problems identified by the reviewers. While the standards are not perfect, any defects are marginal.

6: Standards fall short in one or more of the following ways:

- Some crucial content (as specified in the subject-specific content expectations) is missing (at least 5 percent and up to 20 percent).
- The content is covered satisfactorily but not in a high quality manner.
- Some of the content in the standards is unnecessary (at least 5 percent and up to 20 percent).
- Standards do not fully distinguish between more and less important content and skills (i.e., importance is neither expressly articulated nor conveyed via the number of standards dedicated to particular topics). In other words, the standards overemphasize no more than one or two topics of little importance or underemphasize no more than one or two topics of great importance.
- Standards at particular grade levels are not quite as rigorous as they could be, or are too rigorous (i.e., expectations are slightly too high or too low).
- There are minor problems or shortcomings (e.g., one or more of the problems listed in the last paragraph under score 7 affects the standards in a small way, or there are other minor subject-specific problems).

5: Standards fall short in one or more of the following ways:

- Some crucial content is missing (at least 20 percent and up to 35 percent).
- While most of the appropriate content is covered by the standards, the content is nonetheless covered in a manner that is not satisfactory (i.e., the standards cover the right material but do not cover that material robustly; thus, the material is shortchanged in some way).
- Some of the content in the standards is unnecessary (at least 20 percent and up to 35 percent).
- Standards do not distinguish between more and less important content and skills (i.e., importance is not articulated or conveyed in any way). The standards often overemphasize topics of little importance or underemphasize topics of great importance.
- Standards generally need to be more or less rigorous than they are at certain grade levels (i.e., expectations are too high or too low).
- There may be an important shortcoming (perhaps one of the problems listed in the last paragraph of score 7, or there are other subject-specific problems).

4: Standards fall short in one or more of the following ways:

- At least 35 percent and up to 50 percent of crucial content is missing.
- Some of the content in the standards is unnecessary (at least 35 percent and up to 50 percent).
- There may be a few critical shortcomings (as listed above) although the standards contain no serious errors.

3: Standards fall short in one or more of the following ways:

- At least 50 percent and up to 65 percent of crucial content is missing.
- At least 50 percent and up to 65 percent of the content in the standards is unnecessary.
- There are serious problems, shortcomings or errors in the standards, although the standards have some redeeming qualities and there is some evidence of rigor.

2: Standards fall short in one or more of the following ways:

- At least 65 percent and up to 80 percent of crucial content is missing.
- At least 65 percent and up to 80 percent of the content in the standards is unnecessary.
- There may be several serious problems, shortcomings, or errors (as listed above).

1: Standards fall short in one or more of the following ways:

- At least 80 percent of crucial content is missing.
- At least 80 percent of the content in the standards is unnecessary.
- There are numerous problems, shortcomings, or errors (as listed above).

0: Standards fall short in one or more of the following ways:

- The content of the standards does not address or barely addresses the subject-specific content expectations.
- The content is poorly chosen and fails to provide the level of rigor appropriate for the targeted grade level(s).
- Content is full of problems, shortcomings, and errors (as listed above).

4: CLARITY AND SPECIFICITY

3 points: Standards are coherent, clear, and well organized.

- The scope and sequence of the material is apparent and sensible. They provide solid guidance to users (students, teachers, curriculum directors, test developers, textbook writers, etc.) about the content knowledge and skills required to do well on the exam. The right level of detail is provided.
- The documents are written in prose that the general public can understand and are mostly free from jargon. The standards describe things that are measurable (i.e., can lead to observable, comparable results across students and schools). The standards as a whole clearly illustrate the growth expected through the grades:

2: The standards are somewhat lacking in coherence, clarity, or organization.

- The scope and sequence of the material is not completely apparent or sensible. The standards do not quite provide a complete guide to users as to the content knowledge and skills required to do well on the exam (i.e., as a guide for users, there are shortcomings that were not already addressed by the content and rigor score). The standards provide insufficient detail. The prose is generally comprehensible but there is some jargon and some vague or unclear language. Some standards are not measurable.

1: The standards are somewhat coherent, clear, and organized.

- They offer limited guidance to users (students, teachers, curriculum directors, textbook writers, etc.) about the content knowledge and skills required to do well on the exam, but there are significant shortcomings (as a guide for users) that were not already addressed by the content and rigor score. The standards are seriously lacking in detail, and much of their language is vague enough to leave unclear what is being asked of students and teachers.

0: The standards are incoherent and/or disorganized.

- They are not helpful to users. The standards are sorely lacking in detail. Scope and sequence is a mystery.

4: CONTENT-SPECIFIC CRITERIA: U.S. HISTORY

These criteria provide illustrative examples of the kinds of essential content that rigorous U.S. history standards would demand all students have learned by the end of grades four, eight, and twelve, respectively. These parenthetical examples are not meant to be comprehensive lists of all content students should learn, but rather to be illustrative examples of essential historical knowledge and skills.

By the end of fourth grade, standards should require students to:

- identify important leaders (for example, Washington, Jefferson, Lincoln, Franklin D. Roosevelt, and Reagan), holidays (Martin Luther King, Jr. Day, Presidents Day, Memorial Day, Independence Day, and Veterans Day), and events (the American Revolution, the drafting and ratification of the Constitution, the Civil War and Reconstruction, the Industrial Revolution, the two world wars and the Cold War, constitutional amendments to end slavery and establish women's suffrage, *Brown v. Board of Education*, and the Civil Rights and Voting Rights Acts of 1964-5).
- demonstrate a clear sense of chronology (for example, the American Revolution took place in the late-eighteenth century, the Civil War in the mid-nineteenth century, and the two world wars in the twentieth century) and the key people associated with specific events (e.g., Franklin, Washington, and Jefferson with the American Revolution; Lincoln, Grant, and Lee with the Civil War).
- identify sources most commonly used by historians (letters, diaries, etc.).
- read and understand basic primary sources (the Declaration of Independence, the Gettysburg Address, and the "I Have a Dream" speech) and be able to explain their roles in past events.

By the end of eighth grade, standards should require students to:

- recognize key changes over time in American ideas and institutions (the growing resistance to slavery, the gradual acceptance of equal rights for women and minorities, and the expanding role of the presidency in American society).
- identify and explain the influence of multiple factors (political, social, geographic, economic, and demographic) on history (for example, the political impact of the Supreme Court's role in interpreting the law, the importance of slavery in causing the Civil War, and how the Great Depression redefined the role of the federal government in the national economy).
- demonstrate an understanding of the difference between primary and secondary sources (for example, James Madison's notes at the 1787 Constitutional Convention versus a twenty-first-century book about Madison's role at the Convention).
- distinguish between historical facts and historical interpretations.

By the end of twelfth grade, standards should require students to:

- discuss the significance and meaning of *e pluribus unum* (both the "many" and the "one") in U.S. history.
- show that they recognize that historical argument must take conflicting evidence into account and that differing interpretations of historical questions (liberal vs. conservative assessments of Franklin D. Roosevelt and the New Deal or the causes of the Cold War) are often matters of judgment and values, not simply matters of fact.
- "think historically" and avoid "presentism" by demonstrating that they understand how past events looked to and were evaluated by people at the time, and demonstrate that they also understand how people's attitudes, values, and ideals have changed over time.
- make a coherent historical argument using both primary and secondary sources.
- recognize that historical interpretations often change as new evidence is discovered and new perspectives emerge (for example, interpretations of the Cuban missile crisis have been significantly altered by the release of documents from the former Soviet Union).

The Fordham Institute is perceived by some as controversial based on its' school choice advocacy, charter school research, and funding from politically active donors. The organization's mission statement is as follows:

“The Thomas B. Fordham Institute and its affiliated Foundation promote educational excellence for every child in America by focusing on three policy areas: High Expectations, Quality Choices, and Personalized Pathways. We believe that all schools that are supported with public funds should be held accountable for helping their students make academic progress from year to year; that all parents deserve to have a range of high-quality options, as well as reliable information with which to make the best choice for their children; and that students have a variety of needs, interests, and ambitions, so our K–12 education system ought to reflect this. We promote these ideals via quality research, analysis, and commentary, as well as offices in Ohio that advocate for better education for Buckeye State children and authorize a portfolio of charter schools”

(Fordham Institute, 2019).

Appendix C
Twentieth Century Social Studies Touchstones

A Thumbnail Sketch of the Rise of Social Studies 1900-1916	Theorists present the rationale for social studies; critics attack prevailing curricula	Thomas Jesse Jones and Arthur Dunn introduce the idea that modern problems should be the focus of citizenship education; Led by David Snedden, critics argue for replacement of history-centered curricula.
1913-1916	Outline of the Social Studies: National Education Association's Committee on the Social Studies	With U.S. government backing, social studies is introduced to American schools.
1921	Organization established to promote social studies	National Council for the Social Studies founded by Harold and Earl Rugg, Edgar Dawson.
1922-1930s	Publishers introduce textbooks and materials in support of social studies	Harold Rugg publishes his "scientifically-based" social studies series.
1922-1930s	Indicating the acceptance of social studies in state policy, state agencies and local school districts institute social studies programs as the official/authorized curriculum	Two states lead the way: New Jersey (1917) by recommending a course of study and Pennsylvania (1921) by instituting a state level office in social studies.
1926-1932	Opposition to social studies is marginalized as one-time opponents come into tent	Social studies is legitimized by the American Historical Society, which accepts it as a school subject; AHA co-sponsors the Commission on Social Studies, which advances social studies as the main curricular vehicle

(Saxe, 2004, p.101).

Since the 1950s, contemporary educational practices and curriculum in the social studies and history content areas have been often maligned. In *The New Social Studies: A Historical Examination of Curriculum Reform* by Dr. Jeffrey Byford at Valdosta State University and Dr. William Russell at the University of Mississippi, the authors examine eight major reform movements since the 1950s that have greatly impacted social studies education. They

acknowledge a great deal more reform has occurred and/or been attempted, but chose the following as (some of) the most significant:

1. The lack of a decisive victory in the Korean War, believed by many to have been triggered by a lack of patriotism and loyalty by servicemen, thus spurring a renewed teaching focus of citizenship responsibilities, civics and American Government.
2. A 1955 proposal by Maurice Hunt and Lawrence Metcalf which was a new way to introduce knowledge and skills of social science with the emphasis of citizenship education. They argued that social studies programs should not be organized around individual social science subjects (e.g., United States history, geography, sociology, etc.), but rather around what they called “closed areas of society.” It was these closed areas (e.g., homosexuality, interracial marriages, teenage pregnancy, racism, patriotism, etc.) that are often neglected and ignored in social studies curriculum. Hunt and Metcalf suggest that these areas are responsible for the clouded prejudice, ignorance, and controversy closed to rational reflection (Byford, 2007, p. 2).
3. The Purdue University “Bill of Rights” survey in 1957. “The purpose of the survey was to test student perceptions about American democracy during and after such events as the Korean War, communist expansion, and the Cold War tension existing between the US and the USSR. The results of the 1957 study were mixed. Compared to a similar poll in 1951, students were generally in favor of freedom for all persons and groups as protected by the Bill of Rights; however, many students still supported or were undecided about Marxist doctrine and government control of basic industry and economic institutions” (Byford, 2007, p.3). Many believed this demonstrated a lack of support by the nation’s use for the fundamental principles of a democratic nation and a citizen’s individual rights.
4. The launch of Sputnik in 1957 also dealt a blow to social studies, as many Americans believed the country had lost the “space race” due to the lack of proper technological and scientific education. Many cited a “socialist, progressive” education reform mindset (based on the theories of John Dewey) as the detractor from a focus on science and technology (Byford, 2007, p. 4). Many Americans surveyed at the time deemed the nation’s public school system as having become “too liberal” and disorganized and failing our students.
5. The Woods Hole initiative in 1960s was a reaction to the above. “Experts” in a variety of fields, focused on developing the “new” social studies. “Scattered throughout the nation at different curriculum centers, new social studies programs were extremely critical of the failed mishmash of errors and programs prevalent in the 1950s. The goal of the curriculum centers was to standardize certain aspects found within each particular area (e.g., anthropology, sociology, government, etc.) within the social studies” (Byford, 2007, p. 4). Ultimately, three key social studies strategies also resulted from the Woods Hole consortium: a) focus on inquiry; b) focus on

values; and c) focus on the use of games and/or simulations. More than fifty supporting projects were developed to teach history and citizenship education.

Byford and Russell cite Martorella, Beal, and Bolick (2005) to summarize the success of the short-lived 'new social studies' movement: "It increased the use of instructional strategies that emphasized student's inquiry in the learning process, presaging later constructivist arguments for greater engagement of students in the learning process. The new social studies also helped to establish the principle that affective concerns relating to significant beliefs, attitudes, and values should have a place in social studies classes" (Byford, 2007, p. 9). One of the most controversial products of this movement was *Man: A Course of Study (MACOS)*, which was ultimately deemed a great failure. It focused on a 'spiral' curriculum that studies the whole existence and lifespan of a being, and it encouraged students to question fundamentals and beliefs, including morals, and that outraged many. It seemed to taint humanities and social studies education throughout the 1970s. It was often deemed as 'hippie' teaching. (UCL, 2017). The "laid-back" approach of the 70s would end with the College Board determined SAT scores had been falling throughout the 1960s and 70s, foreign language education experts were concerned about a lack of enrollment and science and math entities were under fire because of the US lagging behind in science and technology innovations. The public was deemed "apathetic" about education in general in the 70s, further contributing to its perceived demise (Ravitch, 1990, p. 48).

In the 1980s, *A Nation at Risk*, arrived and education the perceptions about it were forever changed. When President Reagan was elected, he began to promote prayer in schools and demolish the Department of Education for its failings. However, his secretary of Education formed a committee which in-turn, produce the game changing (for better or worse) *Nation at*

Risk report. “Mediocrity” was the word that jolted Americans out of their education stupor. The Nation at Risk report modified the graduation requirement for high school students to earn three credits of social studies. Control of schools and curriculum was shifted back to the states and governors took over. Graduation requirements for student and teacher’s salaries were all raised. “The National Geographic Society and the Bradley Commission on History in Schools produced practical guidelines to reform the teaching of history and geography, which, like the science and mathematics reports, were well received in schools across the country” (Ravitch, 1990, p. 48). Expansive ‘standardized’ testing, vouchers and tax credits also arrived on the scene in the 1980s to provide families validation that their students have risen above mediocrity and had choices about their educational paths. As the 80s came to a close, technology integration, reaching poor students, teacher professionalism and civic education (due to the fall of Communism) were thought to be issues at the forefront of 1990s education reform (Ravitch, 1990, p. 48).

As the decade of the 90s rolled through what some would term a “curriculum war” occurred, but one that was not necessarily new on the education landscape. “In the nineteenth century, Herbert Spencer famously posed the question underlying all curricula: what knowledge is worth the most? Conflicting answers to that question have generated political controversy throughout the history of the American school - and especially in the 1990s - primarily because of a philosophical conflict between what have become known as traditionalist and progressive camps” (Loveless, 2014, p. 1). Loveless shares that multiculturalists attempted to correct the nation’s past sins through history curriculum by addressing the wrongs committed against a multitude of minorities. Standardized testing continued to grow, and focus on subjects other than Language Arts and Mathematics was narrowed by the arrival of No Child Left Behind in 2002. “The Center on Education Policy surveyed district superintendents in 2007 and asked them to

estimate changes in instructional time from 2002-2007... A significant percentage of districts reported decreased time spent on social studies (36 percent)” (Loveless, 2014). Talk of technology integration and personalized learning in future schools began to grow exponentially during the late 1990s and early 21st century, further pushing the focus on history and social studies education and curriculum from the forefront.

The early 2000s continued to see politics weigh heavily on education and standards with further implementation of NCLB and Common Core. A study by the Fordham Center in 2011 (*see Appendix B*) determined that schools had lost 18 hours of social studies instruction to English and math during a school year due to these political curriculum movements (Brasof, 2012). This is one of the most comprehensive looks at social studies standards nationwide to date. Some have concerns about the validity, implications and use study because of political connections of the Institute (*also see Appendix B for grading criteria and mission statement of the Institute*), thus the need for further research and study, as well as thoughtful evaluation by educational consumers, as with any other data tool. “In addition to research conducted by social studies academics, there have been concerted efforts by public-policy groups and think tanks to survey the field, most notably the Fordham Foundation and the American Enterprise Institute (AEI). These groups have taken what might be characterized as a conservative, essentialist stance regarding social studies teaching, content, and purpose. These self-proclaimed “contrarians” criticize many progressive educational ideas and student-centered practices. The Fordham Institute, for example, published a book titled, *Where Did Social Studies Go Wrong*, which included a chapter titled “The Training of Idiots” (Leming et al., 2003). The social and political agendas of these organizations may cast suspicion on the research conducted and

endorsed by their membership (Farkas & Duffett, 2010; Leming et al., 2006; Ravitch & Finn, 1987)” (Fitchett, 2013, p. 4).

Common Core shifted the focus away from *history* and into literacy – a seemingly positive collaboration, but an imbalance in approach. Additionally, states were “asked” to adopt the standards in exchange for federal funding. “The state-led effort to develop the Common Core State Standards was launched in 2009 by state leaders, including governors and state commissioners of education from 48 states, two territories, and the District of Columbia, through their membership in the National Governors Association Center for Best Practices (NGA Center) and the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO)”. Alaska, Indiana, Minnesota, Nebraska South Carolina, Puerto Rico, Texas and Virginia (Core Standards, 2017), did not adopt the standards. As of 2017, many states that did adopt, had lessened or abandoned expectations by districts to adhere to Common Core. Some used them as a guide in revising state guidelines, but many have sidelined the document as a whole or the sole mandate for learning.

One cannot forget to mention Obama’s *Race to the Top* initiative as one of the noted education reform movements of the mid-2000s. *Race* was an anti-dote to the Bush-era NCLB and addressed the heavy focus on math and science as a continued reaction to the 1950s. ““President Obama and I reject the notion that the social studies is a peripheral offering that can be cut from schools to meet [Adequate Yearly Progress] or to satisfy those wanting to save money during a fiscal crunch,” wrote U.S. Secretary of Education Arne Duncan in 2011 in *Social Education*, a journal published by the National Council for Social Studies. “Today more than ever, the social studies are not a luxury, but a necessity. We need to fix [No Child Left Behind] so that school leaders do not feel forced to ignore the vital components of a good education” (Kalaidis, 2013). Kalaidis goes on to say that the impact of the marginalization of social studies

is even more obvious when studies how only a third of Americans could name all three branches of government, even fewer know which Amendment contains “Freedom of Religion,” and that Lincoln’s importance was connected to his beard. The 2009 *Race* program was a competitive, grant-funded initiative with the following focus:

Adopting standards and assessments that prepare students to succeed in college and the workplace and to compete in the global economy:

- Building data systems that measure student growth and success, and inform teachers and principals about how they can improve instruction;
- Recruiting, developing, rewarding, and retaining effective teachers and principals, especially where they are needed most; and
- Turning around our lowest-achieving schools (Department of Education, 2009).

Although the program did seem to favor STEM programs, it did mention guidelines to increase the length of the school day or school year calendar to allow for time to be added back in scheduling to teach history, art, and so on. However, this one mention is the only of history in the executive summary, so no tremendous progress from yet another revolutionary promise of reform, and with the new administration having taken office in January 2017, it is now something for the history books. The focus has shifted cutting or eliminating Obama-era education reform programs in favor of school-choice programs and a career tech focus (Cramer, 2017).

In the past three years, in spite of limited recognition of need for change by *Race*, marked progress with state and national social studies/history standards have occurred and are occurring because of the NCSS collaborative work, The C3 Framework, published in 2016. “The College, Career, and Civic Life Framework for Social Studies State Standards (C3) was developed to serve two audiences: for states to upgrade their state social studies standards and for practitioners — local school districts, schools, teachers, and curriculum writers — to strengthen their social

studies programs. Its objectives are to: a) enhance the rigor of the social studies disciplines; b) build critical thinking, problem solving, and participatory skills to become engaged citizens; and c) align academic programs to the Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy in History/Social Studies. Many states are now beginning to revise CCSS and NCLB-influenced state standards documents based on this new publication.

Appendix D
 Education Commission of the States Social Studies Assessments Per Grade



50-State Comparison

Social studies assessments grades (if any)

April 2018

This information was collected from state department of education websites and through contact with state department staff and therefore may not reflect what is required in state statute or regulation. State assessment systems vary widely, and the information below may not fully capture the unique qualities of each system. If you have suggestions or questions, please contact Julie Woods at jwoods@ecs.org.

	Social studies assessments grades (if any)
Alabama	U.S. citizenship test (beginning 2018-19)
Alaska	
Arizona	U.S. citizenship test
Arkansas	U.S. citizenship test (beginning 2018-19)
California	
Colorado	4 & 7 (CMAS Social Studies) Administered using a sampling approach; 1/3 of elementary and middle schools
Connecticut	
Delaware	4, 7, & 11 (field test) (Pearson)
District of Columbia	
Florida	Civics, U.S. history
Georgia	5, 8, U.S. history & economics
Hawaii	
Idaho	U.S. citizenship test
Illinois	

Indiana	5 & 7
Iowa	
Kansas	6, 8, & 11 (only administered in even years)
Kentucky	5, 8 (U.S. history to be field tested in 2019-20)
Louisiana	3-8, U.S. history (DRC)
Maine	
Maryland	Government
Massachusetts	
Michigan	5, 8, & 11
Minnesota	U.S. citizenship test
Mississippi	U.S. history (RFP to determine vendor)
Missouri	U.S. government
Montana	
Nebraska	
Nevada	
New Hampshire	
New Jersey	
New Mexico	11
New York	Global history and geography; U.S. history & government
North Carolina	
North Dakota	U.S. citizenship test
Ohio	American history & American government (class of 2018 and beyond)
Oklahoma	U.S. history (Not administered in 2017-18 while state revises test)
Oregon	
Pennsylvania	
Rhode Island	
South Carolina	5 & 7 (SCPASS); U.S. history & the constitution
South Dakota	
Tennessee	3-8; U.S. history/geography, U.S. citizenship test
Texas	8 & U.S. history
Utah	U.S. citizenship test
Vermont	
Virginia	VA studies (4 or 5); civics & econ (6, 7 or 8); EOCs
Washington	
West Virginia	
Wisconsin	4, 8, & 10
Wyoming	

Appendix E

National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), History Degrees Awarded

Table 322.50. Bachelor's degrees conferred to females by postsecondary institutions, by race/ethnicity and field of study: 2014-15 and 2015-16

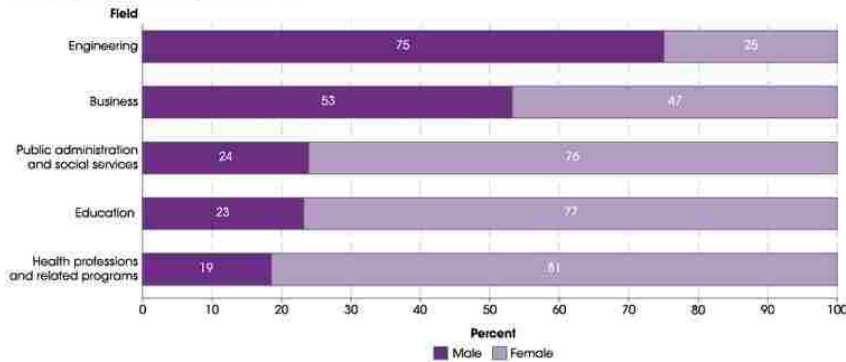
Field of study	2014-15											2015-16					
	Total	White	Black	Hispanic	Asian/Pacific Islander			American Indian/Alaska Native	Two or more races	Non-resident alien	Total	White	Black	Hispanic	Asian/Pacific Islander		
					Total	Asian	Pacific Islander								Total	Asian	Pacific Islander
All fields, total	1,082,276	679,653	123,513	131,217	72,836	70,079	2,757	6,141	31,970	36,946	1,098,939	674,539	124,600	142,068	75,061	72,446	2,615
Agriculture and natural resources	18,693	14,514	812	1,513	877	828	49	131	604	442	19,383	14,802	667	1,715	802	775	27
Architecture and related services	3,974	2,172	179	580	450	443	7	17	119	447	3,969	2,139	194	580	425	422	3
Area, ethnic, cultural, gender, and group studies	5,489	2,457	836	1,131	501	479	22	108	285	171	5,613	2,478	838	1,162	513	501	12
Biological and biomedical sciences	64,800	38,014	5,684	7,003	9,758	9,614	144	264	2,308	1,719	68,170	39,281	6,134	7,834	10,126	9,997	129
Business	172,453	98,803	22,555	20,573	13,200	12,689	511	996	3,953	12,373	175,382	99,154	21,815	21,974	13,709	13,203	506
Communication, journalism, and related programs	58,805	38,464	6,437	7,145	2,461	2,343	118	217	2,027	2,054	60,115	38,329	5,692	7,759	2,516	2,426	90
Communications technologies	1,758	1,083	198	185	130	123	7	11	93	68	1,725	1,046	202	183	114	110	4
Computer and information sciences	10,742	5,354	1,577	1,004	1,591	1,541	50	67	365	784	12,072	5,810	1,146	2,029	1,977	52	52
Construction trades	18	9	0	3	1	1	0	1	0	4	17	8	2	7	0	0	0
Education	73,129	57,349	5,589	5,921	1,646	1,504	142	533	1,402	689	69,790	53,886	4,924	6,400	1,696	1,565	131
Engineering	19,603	11,452	981	1,954	2,669	2,635	34	75	686	1,786	22,334	12,772	1,066	2,286	3,114	3,076	38
Engineering technologies and engineering-related fields ¹	1,918	1,185	300	192	97	94	3	15	54	75	2,003	1,211	284	221	111	105	6
English language and literature/letters	31,796	22,476	2,646	3,584	1,271	1,220	51	153	1,243	423	30,019	20,884	2,533	3,587	1,237	1,190	47
Family and consumer sciences/human sciences	21,572	14,051	2,732	2,598	1,111	1,078	33	140	596	334	22,407	14,394	2,750	2,928	1,122	1,086	34
Foreign languages, literatures, and linguistics	13,427	8,051	677	2,990	805	790	15	48	321	335	12,672	7,334	674	2,952	743	733	10
Health professions and related programs	182,570	124,339	21,339	17,074	12,846	12,247	599	964	4,232	1,776	192,635	129,050	22,531	19,960	13,417	12,841	376
Homeland security, law enforcement, and firefighting	29,083	13,688	7,426	6,029	670	577	93	239	827	194	28,559	13,386	7,123	6,013	679	564	115
Legal professions and studies	3,072	1,751	569	489	114	106	8	25	90	34	2,946	1,639	548	477	134	129	5
Liberal arts and sciences, general studies, and humanities	27,513	17,292	3,962	3,664	1,021	956	65	247	823	504	27,516	16,854	3,968	4,013	1,025	964	61
Library science	83	66	7	4	1	0	1	1	4	0	79	60	6	9	1	1	0
Mathematics and statistics	9,392	5,510	520	879	965	949	16	26	261	1,231	9,689	5,454	491	905	987	981	6
Mechanic and repair technologies/technicians	25	16	2	3	0	0	0	1	1	2	27	17	2	4	1	1	0
Military technologies and applied sciences	51	37	8	3	0	0	0	0	1	2	68	42	14	8	1	0	1
Multi/interdisciplinary studies	31,626	19,050	3,789	5,021	1,846	1,768	78	194	1,012	714	32,547	18,726	4,317	5,241	2,070	1,993	77
Parks, recreation, leisure, and fitness studies	23,058	16,302	2,174	2,340	1,011	952	59	140	773	318	24,209	16,529	2,505	2,731	1,023	970	53
Philosophy and religious studies	4,067	2,728	360	434	248	237	11	17	164	116	3,785	2,441	381	435	240	227	13
Physical sciences and science technologies	11,562	7,274	806	1,074	1,346	1,322	24	58	374	630	11,811	7,438	794	1,074	1,322	1,299	23
Precision production	15	6	2	2	4	4	0	0	0	1	22	10	0	3	1	1	0
Psychology	90,770	53,895	11,604	14,360	5,496	5,275	221	471	3,017	1,927	91,161	52,288	11,781	15,556	5,497	5,288	209
Public administration and social services	28,218	15,717	6,351	4,092	864	779	85	227	739	268	28,407	15,368	6,400	4,425	842	758	84
Social sciences and history	81,487	45,108	9,611	12,598	6,101	5,912	159	439	3,039	4,491	79,930	42,616	9,371	13,601	5,783	5,609	174
Social sciences	70,235	36,757	8,812	11,459	5,712	5,531	181	384	2,664	4,347	69,620	35,117	8,722	12,355	5,435	5,280	155
History	11,252	8,351	699	1,239	389	381	8	55	375	144	10,310	7,499	649	1,246	348	329	19

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J
1	https://nces.ed.gov/programs/digest/d17/tables/dt17_318.30.asp								
2									
3	Table 318.30. Bachelor's, master's, and doctor's degrees conferred by postsecondary institutions, by sex of student and discipline division: 2015-16								
4	Bachelor's degrees			Master's degrees			Doctor's degrees\1\		
5	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
6	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
7	All fields, total								
8	1,920,718	821,779	1,098,939	785,595	320,444	465,151	177,867	84,089	93,778
9	Education								
10	87,217	17,427	69,790	145,781	33,802	111,979	11,829	3,692	8,137
11	Education, general								
12	3,449	618	2,831	19,867	4,484	15,383	2,319	627	1,692
13	Social science teacher education								
14	444	259	185	97	53	44	0	0	0
15	Social studies teacher education								
16	1,221	699	522	459	248	211	4	3	1
17	History teacher education								
18	500	277	223	100	54	46	0	0	0
19	History								
20	25,597	15,287	10,310	3,455	1,902	1,553	971	528	443
21	History, general								
22	24,960	14,920	10,040	3,078	1,671	1,407	922	505	417
23	American history (United States)								
24	50	37	13	42	23	19	2	2	0
25	European history								
26	17	14	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
27	History and philosophy of science and technology								
28	111	49	62	35	17	18	31	12	19
29	Public/applied history								
30	41	23	18	67	19	48	4	3	1
31	Asian history								
32	3	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
33	Military history								
34	71	62	9	148	113	35	0	0	0
35	History, other								
36	344	180	164	85	59	26	12	6	6

Table 322.40. Bachelor's degrees conferred to males by postsecondary institutions, by race/ethnicity and field of study: 2014-15 and 2015-16

Field of study	2014-15											2015-16										
	Total	White	Black	Hispanic	Asian/Pacific Islander			American Indian/Alaska Native	Two or more races	Non-resident alien	Total	White	Black	Hispanic	Asian/Pacific Islander			American Indian/Alaska Native	Two or more races	Non-resident alien		
					Total	Asian	Pacific Islander								Total	Asian	Pacific Islander					
All fields, total	812,693	530,418	60,316	86,881	61,080	58,848	2,232	4,061	22,245	38,692	821,779	522,860	69,873	92,946	63,209	61,166	2,043	3,823	25,153	43,913		
Agriculture and natural resources	17,585	14,723	470	1,033	536	492	44	121	386	314	17,622	14,561	440	1,207	518	492	26	112	440	344		
Architecture and related services	5,116	3,123	263	805	401	392	9	28	146	340	4,854	2,859	375	738	362	350	12	20	130	470		
Area, ethnic, cultural, gender, and group studies	2,294	1,100	299	361	256	233	23	66	133	79	2,227	993	316	439	200	185	15	76	109	94		
Biological and biomedical sciences	45,104	27,536	2,615	4,585	7,443	7,298	145	175	1,570	1,180	45,579	27,275	2,456	5,037	7,436	7,327	109	170	1,721	1,294		
Business	191,288	123,703	16,629	19,490	13,431	12,918	513	835	4,161	13,039	196,312	125,533	16,424	20,537	13,507	13,009	498	841	4,932	14,539		
Communication, journalism, and related programs	31,853	21,367	3,825	3,591	1,179	1,108	71	121	904	866	32,439	21,038	4,121	3,839	1,231	1,154	67	111	1,117	985		
Communications technologies	3,357	2,026	419	439	174	163	11	18	196	95	3,099	1,866	370	401	141	129	12	16	170	133		
Computer and information sciences	48,844	30,156	4,584	4,990	5,373	5,236	137	234	1,317	2,590	52,233	31,227	4,474	5,075	6,585	6,433	152	193	1,679	3,100		
Construction trades	229	177	4	40	4	4	0	1	3	0	208	160	3	32	4	4	0	0	6	3		
Education	18,467	14,342	1,675	1,304	422	393	39	149	357	208	17,427	13,104	1,677	1,440	443	396	47	136	443	184		
Engineering	78,249	50,463	2,945	7,124	8,580	8,467	113	241	2,093	6,803	84,516	53,080	3,210	8,237	9,272	9,145	127	250	2,489	7,978		
Engineering technologies and engineering-related fields ²	14,693	10,149	1,326	1,324	638	593	45	136	304	816	14,545	10,033	1,233	1,277	695	673	22	101	281	913		
English language and literature/letters	14,055	10,138	1,032	1,601	551	524	27	72	495	166	12,776	8,976	928	1,627	534	510	24	85	482	164		
Family and consumer sciences/human sciences	3,012	1,813	485	336	235	228	7	13	86	74	2,882	1,753	451	341	225	237	18	10	100	103		
Foreign languages, literatures, and linguistics	6,066	4,019	235	1,054	331	316	15	21	257	149	5,755	3,665	243	1,139	315	306	9	26	218	149		
Health professions and related programs	33,658	21,105	3,604	3,561	3,713	3,525	188	174	846	635	36,261	22,121	3,937	4,149	4,074	3,896	178	170	1,050	750		
Homeland security, law enforcement, and firefighting	33,640	20,808	5,048	5,477	1,116	951	165	218	747	226	32,998	19,627	4,958	5,610	1,024	884	140	212	851	306		
Legal professions and studies ³	1,348	850	167	185	64	59	5	12	35	35	1,297	759	172	195	79	78	1	6	81	35		
Liberal arts and sciences, general studies, and humanities	16,136	10,530	2,521	1,607	555	507	48	148	428	347	16,145	10,274	2,581	1,732	542	493	49	142	527	347		
Library science	16	13	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	5	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
Mathematics and statistics	12,462	7,854	495	1,061	1,364	1,347	17	45	348	1,995	13,088	7,579	504	1,245	1,459	1,435	18	34	403	1,870		
Mechanic and repair technologies/technicians	370	264	29	26	14	14	0	1	13	23	359	239	28	23	16	16	0	6	13	34		
Military technologies and applied sciences	225	164	26	24	3	2	1	2	3	3	290	228	27	17	4	3	1	4	9	1		
Multi-/interdisciplinary studies	15,930	10,050	1,851	1,969	1,001	946	55	123	509	427	16,247	9,832	2,035	2,186	1,036	997	29	107	549	502		
Parks, recreation, leisure, and fitness studies	25,950	17,886	2,910	2,692	1,153	1,062	91	137	706	466	26,709	17,590	3,340	3,024	1,289	1,226	63	116	854	496		
Philosophy and religious studies	7,004	5,022	474	720	363	344	19	35	223	167	6,372	4,417	455	731	319	301	18	31	233	196		
Physical sciences and science technologies	18,480	13,203	704	1,474	1,616	1,589	27	82	541	860	18,666	12,965	687	1,694	1,628	1,604	24	84	670	938		
Precision production	33	25	0	1	3	3	0	1	0	3	28	25	0	2	2	2	0	0	0	1		
Psychology	26,803	15,977	3,022	4,013	2,038	1,955	83	154	969	620	26,279	15,107	2,970	4,239	2,120	2,059	61	141	995	707		
Public administration and social services	6,146	3,375	1,295	875	261	239	22	58	165	117	5,025	3,034	1,262	840	245	218	27	39	196	109		
Social sciences and history	85,484	55,483	6,562	10,027	5,712	5,505	207	354	2,654	4,692	81,300	51,328	6,142	10,165	5,462	5,312	170	354	2,781	5,048		
Social sciences	68,698	42,383	5,788	8,334	5,189	5,011	194	271	2,197	4,552	66,013	39,627	5,400	6,468	5,032	4,884	146	277	2,321	4,868		
History	16,786	13,120	776	1,693	917	494	23	83	457	140	15,287	11,701	742	1,677	450	428	22	77	460	180		

Figure 3. Percentage distribution of master's degrees conferred by postsecondary institutions in largest fields of study, by sex: Academic year 2015-16



NOTE: Data are for postsecondary institutions participating in Title IV federal financial aid programs.
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Fall 2016, Completions component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2017*, tables 323.40 and 323.50.

In 2015-16, females earned 465,000 master's degrees, representing 59 percent of all master's degrees conferred. Males earned the remaining 41 percent (320,000 degrees). Of the five fields in which the most master's degrees were conferred in 2015-16, females earned the majority of degrees in health professions and related programs; education; and public administration and social services (81 percent, 77 percent, and 76 percent, respectively). Males earned the majority of degrees conferred in business and engineering (53 percent and 75 percent, respectively).

Of the 178,000 doctor's degrees conferred by postsecondary institutions in 2015-16, almost two-thirds were concentrated in two fields of study: health professions and related programs (41 percent, or 73,700 degrees) and legal professions and studies (21 percent, or 37,000 degrees). The three fields in which the next largest percentages of doctor's degrees were conferred were education (7 percent, or 11,800 degrees), engineering (6 percent, or 10,200 degrees), and biological and biomedical sciences (4 percent, or 7,900 degrees). For the purposes of this analysis, doctor's degrees include Ph.D., Ed.D., and comparable degrees at the doctoral level, as well as first-professional degrees such as M.D., D.D.S., and J.D. degrees.

Appendix F
(complete) Researcher Identity Memo

Bias is defined by Merriam Webster as “an inclination of temperament or outlook; especially: a personal and sometimes unreasoned judgment.” Certainly, a rational, schooled mind knows that bias exists in virtually every moment of everyday life, and certainly in research, and must be acknowledged, while also knowing that bias is not always a negative – it can be viewed as expertise, or passion, or sincere interest, as long as it is declared, addressed, and managed from the onset of a project. In reflecting on teaching a class for beginning qualitative researchers, Mehra (2002) writes that some level of researcher bias is expected and understood by experienced researchers (p. 2). As a formally educated journalist and writer, I understand the power of bias and the constant consciousness it requires. I am certain I do have biases, or positive predispositions in favor of the consistent and meaningful teaching of state history throughout a social studies curriculum. However, I believe this partiality comes from genetics, heritage, training, education, study, research, reasoned real-world practice, collaboration with colleagues, and a desire to make curriculum and content more personal and meaningful to students. According to Dwyer and Buckle (2009) in *The Space Between: On Being an Insider-Outsider in Qualitative Research*, I am definitely an “insider” in relation to state history. I grew up around it, wrote a book about it and have taught it for many years. Dwyer and Buckle offered this quote, which I found personally relevant:

“The qualitative researcher’s perspective is perhaps a paradoxical one: it is to be acutely tuned-in to the experiences and meaning systems of others - to indwell - and at the same time to be aware of how one’s own biases and preconceptions may be influencing what one is trying to understand” (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994, p. 123). The authors go on to discuss that being an

“insider” does not make one a better or worse researcher, but a different one. I certainly believe that it brings meaningful insight and desire to the project, but also requires a great deal more self-policing and awareness as data is collected. It forces the constant reminder of the use of an objective lens, for which I drew heavily upon my journalism background to facilitate.

(Dwyer, 2009, p. 55)

To address biases and alleviate potential concerns, I will offer a brief summary of my ‘researcher identity memo’ (summary below; full version, see *Appendix F*). Traditionally, what one brings to the research from their personal background and identity has been treated as “bias,” something whose influence needs to be eliminated from the design, rather than a valuable component of it. However, the explicit incorporation of your identity and experience (what Strauss, 1987, calls “experiential data”) in your research has recently gained much wider theoretical and philosophical support (e.g., Berg & Smith, 1988; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Jansen & Peshkin, 1992; Strauss, 1987). Using this experience in your research can provide you with a major source of insights, hypotheses, and validity checks... This is not a license to impose your assumptions and values uncritically on the research. Reason (1988) uses the term critical subjectivity to refer to a quality of awareness in which we do not suppress our primary experience; nor do we allow ourselves to be swept away and overwhelmed by it; rather we raise it to consciousness and use it as part of the inquiry process. (p. 12)” (Maxwell, 2008, pp. 224 - 225).

As a child of educators and a five-generation Texas family, pride for one’s home state, a knowledge of its historical significance and the value of personal connections are deeply ingrained. A family who promotes a passionate interest in government and politics, service

beyond self, and one who holds a belief in the educational power of travel also contributed to my interest in heritage, community and state.

I was born in Houston, Harris County, Texas, and grew up in my family's hometown of Conroe, Texas, 40 miles to the Houston's north, in Montgomery County. My paternal great-great-grandparents were earlier settlers of our home county, and my paternal great-grandparents, grandparents and immediate family all lived within a 20-mile radius of their farmstead in Willis. My paternal great-grandfather established the county's first auto parts store, which would serve the community from 1929 – 1987. After his retirement in the 1960s, my father and his father (the son-in-law of my great-grandfather, the founder) ran the business.

My paternal grandmother was a public-school teacher for the majority of her adult life after graduating from Sam Houston State Teachers' College in nearby Huntsville, Texas, in 1939, and then serving as a World War II naval officer. She taught the majority of her 30-plus years in my home school district, Conroe Independent School District, in junior high and high school English classes. After her retirement, she was the first female elected to the CISD School Board, and served for six years. She taught both my mother and father in her classes. Her obituary goes on to say:

“Mrs. Bozman retired from teaching in the 1970s, having devoted more than 30 years to the profession, most of which was with the Conroe Independent School District. She was a "Master Teacher," highly regarded by her peers for her professionalism and dedication to the art of teaching, and by her students for her strict but caring approach, her never-failing dry sense of humor and her ability to instill confidence and a strong passion for learning through her lessons of English grammar, writing and literature. On countless occasions during and after her teaching career, former students would return to visit Mrs. Bozman to express their appreciation for the role she had played in shaping their lives” (Houston Chronicle, 2002).

Her example and presence as briefly described above, along with that of my maternal grandmother's and mother's, have inspired my love of learning, teaching, history, government, and writing, and are my inspiration. In 2009, my home school district honored my grandmother's legacy by naming a new intermediate school after her.

My maternal grandmother was an educator as well. She taught civics and government, also in my home school district. She was very active in politics, being a charter member of the county's Republican women's group and a life-long Service League member. She and my grandfather were acquaintances of the George H. W. Bush family. My maternal grandfather was an optometrist who owned practices throughout Texas, thus affording him and my grandmother the opportunity to live in the Hill Country region, in both Austin and San Marcos; the Valley, in McAllen, and in the north central area, in Corsicana, in addition to our hometown of Conroe. I spent time in all of these locations with them, learning more about my state, its geography, history and economy. Although my grandmother was born in Georgia, and my grandfather in Kansas, they were truly "Texans" investing in Texas and building their whole lives there.

My mother, a graduate of the University of Texas, is also a public-school teacher – having taught journalism and Texas history, and recently retired as the long-time librarian at Peet Junior High in my hometown, in a library also named after my grandmother Bozman. My sister has been a family and consumer sciences educator for over 10 years, and is now the coordinator of the hospitality apprenticeship program for my home school district.

After a childhood and K – 12 educational experience filled with the importance of civic service and the value of state and local history, upon arriving for college in Arkansas, I was surprised to learn that Arkansas history was not a required college course at the flagship, land-grant state university (flagship institutions are typically the best-known institutions in the state,

were generally the first to be established and are frequently the largest and most selective, as well as the most research-intensive public universities [College Board, 2016 – 2017]). I had taken Texas history classes two years in public school (from the same very traditional, yet very impressive and influential teachers who had either taught my parents or worked as colleagues with one or both of my grandmothers) and most Texas colleges and universities require one or more Texas history government or history classes for its students (University of Texas, 2016, p. 18 general graduation requirements). At the time of my enrollment at the U of A, unless in a very specific academic program, Arkansas history, state and local government, and the like were not a basic graduation requirement for the university and are still not. It was not until I began work on my Master of Arts in teaching with a certification emphasis in social studies, that I was required to take Arkansas history. This flew in the face of all that I had been taught was important. To me, when attending a state university, any state university, one should be required to learn about that state – certainly course options such as state and local government or state politics could be included, along with a more traditional state history course, but yes, each student should know something about the state. To combat this lack of academic promotion of the state, I became immediately entrenched by attending university sporting events, changing my driver’s license to an Arkansas license, and volunteering as a campus student ambassador to lead prospective student tours and answer questions about this amazing university, its history, and the state. My indoctrination was swift and total. I was thrilled to learn about my small, but mighty adopted home state.

Many have argued why should a student who may only live in that state for four to five years (or less), learn about that state? My question is, ‘Why shouldn’t they?’ If they choose to

attend school in a state other than their own “home” state, then they should make the effort to learn a little about that state – one semester’s worth, at least – it should be an expectation.

Thankfully, work on my master’s degree required my taking Arkansas history, which despite it being a summer course in an un-air-conditioned building, I loved it. I had a well-respected, seasoned history teaching ‘legend’ and true research historian for the course and loved the summer afternoons filled with lore about the state. I also elected to take an additional state and local government course, further peaking my knowledge and interest in the Natural State. I completed my master’s and earned my teaching licensure in social studies and journalism in 2003. I was lucky enough to secure a phenomenal teaching position at a Fayetteville Public Schools junior high, teaching 8th grade Arkansas history, Introduction to Journalism, and advising for the yearbook – I could not have written a more perfect job description for myself (I would also come to realize, albeit much later, how lucky I was to be teaching in a district that afforded one full year for Arkansas history to be taught in the social studies sequence).

I began teaching my classes in August of 2003, playing fun games with my students to learn the 50 states, capitals, and two-letter postal code abbreviations and teaching them about the ‘how’ and ‘why’ of the symbols of our state. We learned what a stereotype is and how some common Arkansas stereotypes came to be. We learned at least one interesting fact about each of the 75 counties of the state. We explored the state’s six geographic regions; we acted out moments from the lives of notable Arkansans using the “tableaux” method; we wrote about famous Arkansans and their achievements; we crafted children’s stories about Arkansas moments in time; we completed oral history interviews with native Arkansans, and we learned of the stories of Arkansans who had been present in New York City and Washington D.C. on September 11, 2001. We completed writing prompts which simulated the life of an early

Arkansas explorer; we identified and debated the responsibilities of an educated and participatory citizenry and we investigated the impact of the founding some of the world's most powerful companies on our state. I learned through practice (and lots of trial and error, mostly error) that if I thought it was interesting and important, most of my students would think it was interesting and important – I wanted them to be PROUD to be Arkansans when they went anywhere else in the country or the world. I wanted them to know it was more than Bill Clinton, Wal Mart, and the Razorbacks.

With each and every day that passed, and each and every lesson I taught, I strived to perfect my craft and expand my knowledge about Arkansas and its stories. I attended as many professional development sessions as possible and worked to learn as much about the intricacies of the state I could. I set about growing professionally within my district as well through volunteer committee work, community service, various trainings and special projects and assignments.

Unbeknownst to me at the time, at one seemingly benign stop in my professional development quest, I would meet someone who greatly impact my path as a social studies teacher, writer, learner, and professional. At the Arkansas State Historical Association meeting in Fort Smith in 2005, I met Larry Malley, director of the University of Arkansas Press. He was at a Press display booth, with a collection of its publications, including the current Arkansas history textbook. A friend and I stopped briefly at the booth and looked over some of the titles that were on display and Larry engaged me in conversation about who we were, where we were from, and upon learning that we were Arkansas history teachers, asked if we were using the UA textbook and if so, what were our thoughts. Fayetteville Schools did use the textbook at the time and so I politely said it was fine and tried to move along. Larry's inquisitive and conversational Irish

heritage pushed him to keep probing and I finally I told him the book left a lot to be desired for use in a middle level classroom. I shared that it was very dry, lacked good photos and maps, included no lesson ideas or activities, was a difficult Lexile level for struggling readers and/or ELL students and was written in a very academic or upper level syntax which was disengaging for 8th grade students. He asked a few more questions and did not seem put off by my responses – in fact, he asked if we could schedule a meeting in his office in Fayetteville in the next couple of weeks to discuss further.

So began a series of meetings, brainstorming sessions, and friendly arguments about the merits of an investment in a revitalized Arkansas History textbook published by the University of Arkansas Press. At the conclusion of the fourth or fifth “coffee visit” we had (bear in mind I don’t actually drink coffee, and Larry most often drank hot tea, but his preferred nomenclature nonetheless), he slapped his hands on the giant oval-shaped wooden table that served as his office desk and said, “Why don’t *YOU* just rewrite this book?!?!?!?” I laughed and moved on and he reiterated his seriousness. He believed that my teaching the content, having a Journalism/Advertising/Public Relations degree and corporate/technical writing career background would serve this endeavor well. We explored what the process would look like, a contract was drafted, and the work began in 2006, for a 2008 publication and social studies curriculum cycle review by the Arkansas Department of Education (ADE). Larry met with my principal and superintendent and discussed the work and the project as a whole. I was grateful all were on board to allow me to participate. I had served as an MAT mentor teacher and an arrangement was made to allow my fall intern to return for the spring semester to cover my classes. It was decided that I would return only to supervise the distribution of the yearbook (I was the yearbook adviser at Woodland) and to administer standardized tests in April. It was

agreed that I would work on the book during summers, holiday breaks and request a leave of absence for one full semester from the school district in 2007 to finish the project. A research assistant was hired, an office was cleared for me in the upstairs loft area of the UA McIlroy House offices of the Press and this whirlwind of an unexpected project began. I was amazed by (and a little scared of) this publisher's willingness to take a risk and allow me to conquer this task. It was a brave, crazy, innovative, daunting assignment and I was honored by his trust and accepted the challenge, possibly a little naively, but with determination and enthusiasm.

I had several requirements to agree to take on the project: I wanted the book to include significant contributions from teachers, entities and experts around the state; it had to be fresh, modern, visually appealing and engage 21st century educators and learners; it had to be vetted by actual students who would be using the text and it had to have completely redesigned, meaningful content-specific maps, graphs, photos, activities, and charts. Larry hired a cartographer, we formed a panel of content advising experts and set up meetings throughout the state with the Butler Center, the Clinton Presidential Library and Museum, the Special Collections Department at the University of Arkansas Libraries, the Arkansas Historical Association, Central High National Historic Site and AETN, among many others. I set about the task of registering as a certified professional development presenter with ADE and creating four professional development seminars for teachers throughout the state to participate in the re-creation of this tool and receive well-deserved and much needed PD credit for their time and work. I spent the summer of 2006 traveling around the state holding sessions with teachers to deconstruct the existing book, ask and answer questions, brainstorm ideas, identify resources, craft lessons, add local history, and generally provide insight and feedback that would make the next edition a far better version than what was currently available. I researched how many

schools were using the existing UA history book and what how other states addressed state history within the social studies sequence. We also reviewed other state history textbooks for what was done well, what could be used as a model and what to avoid. We chose Texas and Texans, by McGraw Hill as the primary model resource because of Texas' long commitment to intensive state history education and the reach of the book.

My research assistant was a wonderful PhD candidate in the UA History Department who I still keep in touch with to this day. He was a great partner and sounding board during this journey. He edited, fact-checked, and gathered photo permissions (the latter being a task far more daunting than mere words can describe). Photos that needed to be taken for the book were shot by either my husband or me (thank goodness for those required college photo courses) and I also guided all page layout and design. I wrote four brand new chapters for the book and rewrote all the existing chapters. A veteran English Language Arts educator and ELL teacher reviewed all the content and a Lexile analysis was run on all information. The four-person panel of experts reviewed content from a geography, political science, history, and economics lens. As each individual chapter was put through this process and edited and reviewed by the UA Press team, I took it into my classroom and had my students read it, work on lessons and activities based on what they had read and learned, suggest changes, and ask questions. For each chapter, an Arkansas, United States, and World graphic timeline was added; "Big Picture" (thinking/guiding questions) were included and special features such as "CountyQuest" (local history); "Only in Arkansas/Did You Know" (unique facts about or from the state); "I Am an Arkansan" (famous Arkansans), and "A Day in the Life" (primary source accounts) were also written and developed to enhance content and help students make additional connections with the material.

I recall having only two notable ‘disagreements’ throughout the two-year long work period with the team, one over the title of the book and the other over a section in each chapter loosely titled, “So what, who cares...” which was an anticipatory paragraph in each chapter offering some context to the content that followed – why it was important, why it was worthy of study. Larry felt that the title was too assertive, but I felt as though it was “real” – that it was what students actually asked their teachers. In the end, the sections were titled “Why Do We Study This?” which was an acceptable compromise.

The process was constant, intensive, and exhausting, but rewarding. At times, the slashes of the editor’s red pen were brutal, but I knew I needed all the guidance and expertise I could get since I was a newcomer to the world of textbook publishing. In 2008, the final product was released. As a team, the UA Press presented the book to the state curriculum review committee and had a wonderful launch party to celebrate the project coming to fruition. I was relieved and proud that I had finished the work – on time and having met my personal goals for a quality product. It was by no means perfect and I could not have even begun to tackle this without the help of a multitude of people, all of whom I recognized within the first few pages of the book itself. This was truly a project that exemplifies the adage: “it takes a village...”(to write a textbook...). I would not have been able to complete this without help from a huge number of people and organizations. I, in no way, saw myself as the expert or authority then or now, but more as a vehicle to bring together the expertise and authority of those far more well-versed than I, and put it into a format that real kids, in real public schools, could use, learn from and hopefully, enjoy. Once the actual product was complete and out in the world, it was my job to support it and continue to learn from it.

I represented myself, my district, the University of Arkansas Press, and the textbook by continuing to serve as a University of Arkansas social studies intern mentor; by working as a content and curriculum consultant for the Walton Arts Center in Fayetteville for an Arkansas history play (Digging Up Arkansas) and as a content consultant for the US Marshals Museum in Ft. Smith. I presented at an educator professional development hosted by the Bessie B. Moore Center for Economic Education at the U of A and have been a long-standing member of the Arkansas Council for Social Studies (having served as a board member and newsletter coordinator, and was named member of the year, 2008); and the Washington County Historical Society. I worked with a variety of other teachers and historians on the Arkansas History Hub, an online resource bank, and reviewed content for the University of Arkansas Center for Advanced Spatial Technologies (CAST) as curriculum consultant on the project, Rohwer Reconstructed. I was named the DAR Marion Chapter Teacher of the Year, 2009; was the winner of the Susannah DeBlack Arkansas history book award, 2010, and the winner of The James H. Atkinson Award for Excellence in the Teaching of Arkansas History, 2011. I am a member of the National Council for Social Studies, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD), National School Public Relations Association (NSPRA), and the Journalism Education Association (JEA). In addition to work specifically related to Arkansas History and social studies, I have served on a multitude of building-level, district, and community committees and as the volunteer, full-time director of a 5013C non-profit. I have hundreds of hours as a community volunteer, guest speaker, and student global travel chaperone. I continue to serve the Press in an 'as needed' role, revising my work and presenting seminars and workshops as requested.

I believe in accepting diverse personal and professional challenges to become well-rounded as an educator, colleague, leader, Arkansan, and citizen, and to be able to continue to maintain a growth mindset. In the 2017 – 2018 school year, I took yet another turn on the path that is my teaching journey, as one of a four-member team who opened a new virtual (hybrid) high school in Fayetteville Public Schools as the social studies teacher for those enrolled in 9th – 12th grade classes at Fayetteville Virtual Academy (FVA). I also developed an Arkansas History curriculum for the virtual learners, as the content provider does not offer state history modules. In the summer of 2018, I (unexpectedly) accepted an offer to serve as an Instructional Facilitator in the Springdale School District (the district immediately adjacent/north to Fayetteville Schools). The Springdale School District is the largest in Arkansas, serving one of the most diverse populations – a population that includes a large number of Latinx students and the largest concentration of Marshallese students outside of the Marshall Islands. I continued to work to complete my PhD in Curriculum and Instruction in 2019.

Am I biased about the importance of teaching state history – utilizing it as a valuable curriculum vehicle – a learning journey? Absolutely – and I believe so with valid reason. However, I certainly understand and respect the academic and professional requirements of a researcher and the necessity of an objective lens when collecting data, surveying sources, and compiling results. I am wholly committed to the validity, relevance, and integrity of this study and hope that my experiences and connection to the subject lend an authority and meaningful context to the study. The issue is with being an honest researcher, a thorough researcher, and maintaining a constant awareness of biases and working to be as neutral as possible without marginalizing passion. I know that I must complete a comprehensive analysis of all the data, even if the outcome discounts my preconceptions. Mehra notes that in 1998, Denzin reflected

that for research to be of value, it must move beyond the researcher and the researcher's situation (p. 7), and I know that is essential in my hope to explore the value of state history education within the social studies context.

In *Designing Qualitative Research*, Marshall and Rossman (2008) wrote that "Research design should include reflections on one's sense of voice and perspectives, assumptions, and sensitivities" (p. 198) and I know this is true in my case. I strongly believe that my personal educational experience, family history, and background led me to this point. Marshall and Rossman add that "researchers 'come clean' with assumptions, any prior observations or associations that might influence the research, and any personal connections and histories that could be useful or, conversely, could be seen as a harmful bias (p. 198), thus the purpose of this narrative. This piece is me "coming clean" about my motivations, methods and goals in this endeavor. There is no hidden agenda or ulterior motive – it is actually extremely simple: I believe social studies is a critical curriculum component in education and I believe state history is an often overlooked and under-utilized tool within the social studies pedagogy. I am in agreement with Mehra that the traditional research paradigm is no longer completely relevant in the complex, interwoven world of 2019. Certainly, research, and writings must be accurate, fact-based and well-tested, with appropriate data collection methods, especially in the ever-pervasive world of "fake news," but that is not to say that conviction, personal experience, relevance, timeliness, and passion should not play a role – that there is not value in the researcher being a valuable tool in the process. Mehra follows with, "...the researcher is an important part of the process. The researcher cannot separate himself or herself from the topic/people he or she is studying, it is in the interaction between the researcher and researched that the knowledge is

created. So, the researcher bias enters into the picture even if the researcher tries to stay out of it"
(Mehra, 2002, p. 7).

Appendix G
Questionnaire Section of the Survey Instrument

1. Grade(s) you currently teach:
2. Subject(s) you currently teach:
3. State in which you teach? (If you live in a different state than the one in which you teach, please indicate state of residence as well).
4. Number of years as a practicing teacher including this year:
5. In what grade(s) does your district/state teach state history?
6. Overall, in the K – 12 scope and sequence of social studies education, do you think *state* history is
 1. not important.
 2. somewhat important.
 3. important, but not necessary.
 4. necessary.
 5. should be mandatory in grades K – 6 and again in 7- 12.
7. My state has a “rich” state history.

a. Strongly disagree	d. Tend to agree
b. Disagree	e. Agree
c. Tend to disagree	f. Strongly agree
8. A *state* history course should be a mandatory graduation requirement in each state.

a. Strongly disagree	d. Tend to agree
b. Disagree	e. Agree
c. Tend to disagree	f. Strongly agree
9. It is challenging to find useful, professional, contemporary, engaging, meaningful **materials and lessons** to teach state history.

a. Strongly disagree	d. Tend to agree
b. Disagree	e. Agree
c. Tend to disagree	f. Strongly agree
10. My state provides **supports/develops curriculum** to ensure the teaching of state history as a vital and meaningful subject in social studies.

a. Strongly disagree	d. Tend to agree
b. Disagree	e. Agree
c. Tend to disagree	f. Strongly agree

11. Are you required to earn Professional Development hours annually in *state* history education? If yes, how many? Yes No
12. It is challenging to find useful, professional, contemporary, engaging, meaningful **professional development** to improve my practice of teaching state history.
- a. Strongly disagree
 - b. Disagree
 - c. Tend to disagree
 - d. Tend to agree
 - e. Agree
 - f. Strongly agree
13. The required number of state history professional development hours in my state should be increased.
- a. Strongly disagree
 - b. Disagree
 - c. Tend to disagree
 - d. Tend to agree
 - e. Agree
 - f. Strongly agree
14. In your view, what is the purpose of teaching and learning history?
15. In what ways does learning *state* history uniquely contribute to the purpose described above?
16. In your experience, what are the most beneficial impacts that learning state history has on students? Feel free to describe in greater detail.
17. What evidence (student work, anecdotal, research, product, lesson plan or other outcomes) have you collected or come across in the past that demonstrates or illustrates the benefits you described above?
18. What is the most challenging aspect of teaching state history?
19. In your opinion, what are the most important actions that could be taken to improve state history?
20. Would you be willing to participate in a follow up phone interview regarding your experiences teaching state history? Yes No
- a. If *Yes*, please provide your email address for interview scheduling purposes.

*If willing, please feel free to share any evidence you might have (anecdotal, research, product, lesson plan or otherwise) to support responses.

1. Date of Interview:
2. Interviewee/participant name & preferred contact info, school name/location, grade levels and subject(s) you are currently teaching:
3. Years as an educator:
4. College attended/from what institution did you earn you teaching certification?
5. In what areas do you hold teaching licensure/certification?
6. In your opinion, what is the most important social studies course for a student to complete in K – 12 and why?
7. If you are not currently teaching state history, have you taught it previously, and if so, what grade level(s)?
8. At what all grade levels is state history taught in your district? Is this state-wide, or varies by district?
9. Do you know what the overall social studies graduation requirements are in your state? If yes, please provide details.
10. Are students in your district/state required to take a section of state history? If so, at what grade level? If no, do you think this should be a requirement? Why or why not?
11. Did you take a specific state history course as a student in K – 12 and/or college? If so, when and locations?

12. Was a state history course required to earn your teaching certification?

13. How would you describe the perception of state history courses/curriculum/teaching in the professional social studies world? Why?

14. Do you think where a school and/or district is located (geographically within the US) has any impact on the teaching of state history? Why or why not?

15. For students, is a “holiday and heroes” unit approach to state history best, or is a more in-depth semester or year-long course and why?

16. If a state history course is to be taught, where do you believe it best fits into the social studies sequencing of courses, K – 12 and why?

17. In your opinion, pedagogically, what are the most valuable aspects of learning state history for a student/taking a state history course and why? Or do you think that it is not necessary?

18. What types of lesson and/or activities enhance the value of state history content for students? Please describe and explain.

19. Describe what a “sense of place” means to you.

20. Any additional comments or feedback regarding teaching and learning of state history?

Appendix I
University of Arkansas Institutional Review Board (IRB) Approval



To: Shay Hopper
From: Douglas James Adams, Chair
IRB Committee
Date: 04/24/2019
Action: **Exemption Granted**
Action Date: 04/24/2019
Protocol #: 1901174399
Study Title: The State of State History

The above-referenced protocol has been determined to be exempt.

If you wish to make any modifications in the approved protocol that may affect the level of risk to your participants, you must seek approval prior to implementing those changes. All modifications must provide sufficient detail to assess the impact of the change.

If you have any questions or need any assistance from the IRB, please contact the IRB Coordinator at 109 MLKG Building, 5-2208, or irb@uark.edu.

cc: Jason L Endacott, Key Personnel

- Protocol
- Personnel
- Questionnaire
- Special Review
- Permissions
- Notes & Attachments
- Protocol Actions
- Streams

Request an Action

Data Validation

Print

Summary & History

Summary

Protocol Number: 1621174269
 Initial Approval Date: 08/28/2019
 Last Approval Date: Generated on Renewal Approval
 PI: Shay Hogue
 Title: The State of Data History

Sequence: 205 - Example: Grant 04/29/18

Next Submission Date: 02/02/2018
 Expiration Date: Generated on Approval
 Type: Example
 Status: Example

Physician	Role	Role	Admission	Organization
1	Shay Hogue	Principal Investigator	Student Investigator	0002 Student Organization
2	Jeani L. Carlson	Study Personnel	Site PI	

Attachment	Attachment Type	Description	Last updated	Last updated by	Action
Hogue Recruitment Email State of Data History.pdf	Protocol Recruitment Materials	recruitment email for state survey	04/11/2019 09:58 AM	msodgpe@ark.edu	View
Hogue SIGNED CONSENT.pdf	Protocol Consent Materials	consent for survey participation	04/11/2019 09:23 AM	msodgpe@ark.edu	View
Hogue Recruitment Email State of Data History Review Phase 1.pdf	Protocol Recruitment Materials	Phase 1 recruitment email for pretest below w/ interview candidates	04/11/2019 09:21 AM	msodgpe@ark.edu	View
IRB/IEC CONSENT Phase 1 Review.pdf	Protocol Consent Materials	consent for pretest below w/ interview candidates	04/11/2019 09:21 AM	msodgpe@ark.edu	View
Qualtrics survey questionnaire 1, 4.6.18 .pdf	Protocol Data Collection Materials	Survey instrument consent screen and 1 Qualtrics 1	04/11/2019 09:21 AM	msodgpe@ark.edu	View
Qualtrics survey questionnaire 2, 4.6.18 .pdf	Protocol Data Collection Materials	Screening 2nd Qualtrics consent for survey instrument data collection	04/11/2019 09:21 AM	msodgpe@ark.edu	View
Survey Doc for IRB.pdf	Protocol Data Collection Materials	Complete survey instrument/question of what will go into Qualtrics once approved	04/11/2019 09:58 AM	msodgpe@ark.edu	View

Protocol Number: 1901174399
Investigator: Shay Hopper

Expiration Date:
Last Approval Date:

RazorGrant

Document Overview

Description: This exploratory qualitative study will investigate teacher perceptions regarding place and purpose of state history in K-12 social studies curric pedagogy, and ID general dispositions of teachers toward learning and teaching of state hist.

Explanation:

Organization Doc Num:

Protocol Summary

Protocol Number: 1901174399
Sequence Number: 4
Status: Exempt
Expiration Date:
Last Approval Date:
Investigator: Shay Hopper

Protocol Details

Type: Exempt
Summary Keywords:
Application Date: 04/17/2019
Reference Num 1:
Reference Num 2:
FDA Application No:
Title: The State of State History

Area of Research

Code	Description
000001	All Research Areas

Organization:

Type	Organization	Address
Performing Organization	University	University mill AX USA

Funding Source:

Type	Number/Code	Name/Title
Internally Funded/Unfunded Research	unfunded	

Protocol Number: 1901174399
Investigator: Shay Hopper

Expiration Date:
Last Approval Date:

Subjects

Subject	Count
Adults	1000

Investigator:

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Training: No

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Person Name	Role	Affiliation	Email	Training
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