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"Checking Off Boxes": Teachers Describe Civic Education in World History: A Mixed Methods Study

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"CHECKING OFF BOXES": TEACHERS DESCRIBE CIVIC EDUCATION IN
WORLD HISTORY
A MIXED METHODS STUDY

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DISSERTATION
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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the
College of Education
at the University of Kentucky

By
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Lexington, Kentucky
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Lexington, Kentucky
2020

ABSTRACT OF DISSERTATION

"CHECKING OFF BOXES": TEACHERS DESCRIBE CIVIC EDUCATION IN
WORLD HISTORY
A MIXED METHODS STUDY

Scholars have long identified fostering democratic citizenship as a primary purpose of public schooling in the United States, meaning schools should intentionally prepare students with the knowledge and skills needed for active, informed democratic civic life. Furthermore, global interconnectedness has reshaped needed knowledge to participate in civic life. History is often identified as subject content well suited to address civic education and prepare students for citizenship. Though scholars point to a connection between world history and civic education, there is little empirical research studying how civic education informs teachers' curriculum and instruction in world history. The purpose of this explanatory sequential mixed methods study was to address how world history teachers see civic education's role in world history curriculum and instruction. It assessed the ways in which world history civic learning reflects different dimensions of civic education and global citizenship constructs. A framework of best practices for effective civic education was developed and employed in this study. In the first, quantitative phase of the study, a survey was administered to assess if teachers believe there to be a civic purpose within world history and whether or not teachers believe they incorporate civic education into curriculum. The second, qualitative phase, involved interviews to explore manifestations and conceptualizations of world history civics in more depth. Results indicated that participants believe civics has an important role in world history. Teachers' descriptions of civics in world history aligned with best practices of world history civic learning. However, though teachers described world history civic education as present throughout their courses, intentional integration of civics in world history curriculum and instruction was uneven.

Carly Claire Muetterties
(Name of Student)

April 18, 2020
Date

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Chapter One

Introduction

Civic preparedness is a responsibility that largely falls on the shoulders of schools. In order for a nation to maintain democratic structures and principles, there must be an informed, engaged citizenry devoted to democracy's preservation. Scholars have long identified fostering democratic citizenship as a primary purpose of public schooling in the United States, as schools should intentionally prepare students with the knowledge and skills needed for active, informed democratic civic life (e.g., Dewey, 1916; Levine, 2012). Education for citizenship and civic life, or civic education, takes many forms. Broadly speaking, civic education should prepare students for democratic citizenship, as it connects educational experiences to relevant civic contexts outside the classroom (Campbell, 2012). Though civic lessons can be woven throughout all subject areas, social studies is often a subject with which civic education is associated (Barton & Levstik, 2009; Griffin, 1942). History, particularly U.S. history, is often identified as content well suited to address civic education and prepare students for citizenship (see Barton & Levstik, 2008, 2009; Engle & Ochoa, 1988; McNeill, 1985). Indeed, U.S. history provides the content knowledge of national political and social institutions needed to effectively engage in civic practices (Stearns, 1998). In this regard, a purpose of teaching U.S. history courses is to contribute to students' overall civic education and, thus, prepare students for their lives as citizens.[1]

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[1] As will be elaborated upon in the literature review, citizens and citizenship used here is more inclusive than a definition revolving around nation-state legal statuses. I use the terms to refer to active participants in civic life (i.e., informal/formal political, social, economic spheres).

Though U.S. history has content that informs civic participation, global interconnectedness has expanded the knowledge needed to participate in civic life. While globalization increasingly connects the world's inhabitants—politically, culturally, and economically—conceptions of civics should also expand to reflect broadened global identities, rights, and responsibilities (Nussbaum, 2010; Thornton, 2005a). In response to these needs, a global education movement emerged in the twentieth century as a means to address the principles and concepts young people should know to be prepared for realities they will face in a globalized world (Banks, 2017). Accordingly, civic education has evolved to include *global citizenship education*, which advocates for redefining rights and responsibilities in a global society. Though 'global citizenship' has critics, who fear global identity competes with national affiliations, populations around the world are intimately connected. The many different ways people's lives around the world influence one another—from global economic systems to engaging on social media—makes questions about global citizenship unavoidable (Nussbaum, 2009).

Just as national history provides content for civic education, education and disciplinary scholars often identify world history courses as the subject for fostering civic literacies and global competencies associated with global citizenship education (e.g., Bentley, 2007; Zhao, 2010). For example, Watt (2012) believes world history nurtures global citizenship, as it creates citizens, "who would have a flexible and critical approach to life and learning and more multicentric, complex, and cosmopolitan understandings of their own societies and the world at large" (p. 212). However, believing in the connections between history curriculum and citizenship does not mean those connections are made clear in classrooms. As teaching purposes or goals impact curricular decisions

(Martens & Gainous, 2013), education for democratic citizenship must be a clearly identified purpose of history courses to impact curriculum and instruction. If a civics purpose is not driving teachers' decision-making in world history, then its contribution towards developing the desired civic outcomes may be limited (Levinson, 2012a).

Purpose of the Study

This mixed methods study addressed how world history teachers describe the role of civic education in world history curriculum and instruction. The objective was to identify the extent to which teachers believe civic education informs world history teaching and the ways in which teachers believe components of civic education manifest in world history. Additionally, it considered how teachers' conceptualizations of world history reflect scholarship concerning world history and civic education's relationship. Frameworks of best practices in world history civic education and global citizenship were developed and employed for this investigation.

This study used a participant-selection variant of an explanatory sequential mixed methods design (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011), or quantitative preliminary design (Morgan, 1998). The research design involved collecting quantitative survey data first, which was analyzed to determine preliminary trends. The quantitative phase assessed the extent to which teachers believe civic education is important in world history, considering specific components of civic education. It allowed me to identify participants for the second, qualitative data collection phase of interviews. In the interviews, teachers explained civic education's relationship with world history and how it manifests in their classrooms. The qualitative phase explored what world history teachers believe world history civic education looks like by analyzing teachers' descriptions using self-

developed analytical frameworks based on civic education and global citizenship (Campbell, 2012; Gaudelli, 2009). By conducting a mixed methods study of world history teachers, this research provides an initial view into how teachers see civic education's role in the teaching of world history.

There were several assumptions informing this study. The primary assumption is history education contributes to civic education because a primary purpose of studying history is to prepare young people for living in a pluralist democracy, and thus, educate for informed citizenship (Barton & Levstik, 2009; Parker, 2003). Second, in order to have meaningful civic education in world history, teachers should possess a broad, inclusive understanding of citizenship and civics education, rather than a narrow definition centered on individual's legal status within a nation-state (Nussbaum, 2009). Third, global interconnectedness requires meaningful global civic education. Meaningful civic education requires teachers intentionally weave globally minded civic knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences into their curriculum (Campbell, 2012; National Council for the Social Studies [NCSS], 2013; Noddings, 2013). Fourth, educators' beliefs and purpose concerning civic learning within world history, specifically teachers' conceptualizations of global citizenship, have a great impact on curricular and instructional decisions (Martens & Gainous, 2013).

Research Questions

The main research question for the present study was: how do teachers describe civic education's role in world history? Supporting research questions include:

- How do teachers conceptualize civics within world history?

- How do their conceptualizations reflect the civic education components?

- o (1) knowledge, (2) skills, (3) dispositions/attitudes, (4) experiences
- How do teachers' conceptualizations reflect different forms of global citizenship?
  - o (1) neoliberal, (2) national, (3) Marxist/critical, (4) world justice and governance, (5) cosmopolitan

Significance of the Study

Although many scholars believe preparing young people for citizenship to be a primary purpose of education, the ways in which civic education manifests in the various social studies disciplines, particularly world history, is less understood. In the last fifty years, world history has grown at all levels of education (Dunn, Mitchell, & Ward, 2016). Furthermore, world history's growth reflects the belief that world history content contributes to developing globally competent citizens (Nash, Crabtree, & Dunn, 2000).

Despite a perceived connection between world history and civic education, there is little empirical research studying how teachers believe civic education informs curriculum and instruction in world history (Myers, 2016). Additionally, academic world history has a large literature base, but there has not been equal attention to world history education research (Dunn, 2009). In fact, world history education is generally an understudied field in education scholarship (Levstik, 2011). Though several scholars connect world history to civic education in theoretical works (e.g., Girard & Harris, 2013; Nussbaum, 2010; Stearns, 2007), the absence within empirical studies presents an opportunity to explore how civic education informs world history, thereby better understanding gaps between theory and teaching practice in social studies.

Likewise, the coupling of civic education's overall importance to schooling and globalization's impact on civic understandings makes exploring world history's role an

important contribution to social studies education scholarship. As curricular-instructional gatekeepers, teachers' understandings of the relationship between world history and civic education can greatly impact what happens in classrooms (Thornton, 2005b). Practicing teachers could use this work to better align their pedagogical practices and curricular decisions with the different components of civic learning, thereby clearly connecting civic education to teaching practices. Moreover, teacher education programs could consider how to better prepare their preservice teachers to integrate civic education into their curricular decision-making process. In particular, teacher educators could model best practices in order to prepare preservice teachers to connect curricular decisions to the goal of building global civic competencies. This work would also speak to policymakers and educators who wish to integrate more civic education within school curriculum and state standards, as it illuminates the ways in which civic education can flourish in already-required courses.

Summary

By investigating the main research question—how do teachers describe civic education's role in world history? —this study connects theory to teachers' classroom experiences in order to address an empirical gap between what scholars say teachers *should be doing* and what teachers say they are *actually doing*. Scholars have long supported schools' role in preparing young people for citizenship, world history being a subject particularly important for such a task in a globalized world. Likewise, world history scholarship is a robust field of study, replete with discussions of what world history learning should look like. However, education scholarship lacks the same rigor towards understanding whether teachers see themselves as fulfilling their roles as civic

educators—this dearth being particularly acute in world history education scholarship. By

conducting a mixed methods study, this investigation seeks to shed light on

understandings of civic learning within world history, informing whether world history is

teaching for, and with, civics. Through this research, I hope to stimulate conversations in

academia and classrooms towards better understanding teachers' roles in civic learning

across all subjects.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

In this chapter, I review relevant literature and its relationship to the proposed study of civic education and world history. I begin by discussing civic education, citizenship, and global citizenship scholarship, particularly noting areas where definitions of "citizenship" differ and/or are ambiguous. Next, I review history and, more specifically, world history's particular contributions to civic education. This discussion includes a summary of world history education's growth, as well as global citizenship's status within world history education. Next, I present the role of teachers' curricular goals or purposes as they relate to teaching intentionally for civic education in world history. I review scholarship addressing the impact of teacher-identified beliefs, conceptualizations of content, specifically views of citizenship, and the importance of conceptual clarity in curriculum and instruction. Finally, I discuss the theoretical and conceptual frameworks informing this study, including a description of the chosen global citizenship typology, analyzed in consideration of the needed components for effective civic education.

Preparing young people for engagement in civic life has long been seen as a purpose of education, particularly social studies (e.g., Dewey, 1916; Levine, 2012; Parker, 2003). Barton and Levstik (2009) consider education for democratic citizenship as the primary goal of social studies education. Referred to as "laboratories of democracy" by John Dewey, scholars have continued in the Deweyian tradition, believing schools are well positioned to strengthen democratic institutions and practices (Dewey, 1938; Castro & Knowles, 2017). Schools promote democratic processes through cultivating civic learning that emphasizes civic knowledge and active participation

(Levinson & Levine, 2013). Likewise, every state in the United States has civics standards, with most states also requiring civics for graduation (Levine, 2012; Saavedra, 2012). The National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) has consistently advocated for citizenship education, defining social studies as "…the integrated study of the social sciences and humanities to promote civic competence" (NCSS, n.d.). *The College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework for Social Studies State Standards* (2013), recently published by NCSS, weaves civics throughout its guidance for social studies educators. The *C3 Framework* states:

> Advocates of citizenship education cross the political spectrum, but they are bound by a common belief that our democratic republic will not sustain unless students are aware of their changing cultural and physical environments; know the past; read, write, and think deeply; and act in ways that promote the common good. There will always be differing perspectives on these objectives. The goal of knowledgeable, thinking and active citizens, however, is universal. (p. 5)

Despite the focus on college and career preparation, engaged citizenship is, and should also be treated as, a primary goal of schooling itself (Beane & Apple, 2007; Levinson, 2012b). Consensus on the importance of civic education, however, is met with inconsistency as to how civics appears in curriculum and instruction (Campbell, 2012).

Citizenship and Civic Education

In 1999, the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) investigated how schools were preparing young people for citizenship, gathering data from students, teachers, and school administrators in twenty-eight countries. The Civic Education (CivEd) Study results suggest that U. S. teachers

largely support civic education in schools. Responses showed teachers believe they provide students opportunities to learn about patriotism and national loyalty. However, the study found U.S. teachers do not believe their students have many opportunities to engage in civic activities as opposed to teachers' beliefs in other countries, such as Canada and Great Britain (Chin & Barber, 2010). Educating for citizenship may hold a privileged position as a mission of social studies, both in theory and as expressed by teachers; however, the ways in which civic education appears in schools varies. How teachers see civic education impacts the extent to which they create meaningful, impactful civic learning opportunities (Castro & Knowles, 2017). In this section, I review components of civic education, different definitions of citizenship, and review different forms of global citizenship.

The Components of Effective Civic Education

Despite this near unanimity to the importance of civic learning, civic education requirements and opportunities for engagement are not well established in schools. Not coincidentally, civic literacy and civic participation in K-16 schooling have both declined (Baumann & Brennan, 2018). Statewide and national trends show that not only are civic learning opportunities often insufficient to develop students' civic competencies, access to authentic civic learning are also inequitably distributed (Gould, Jamieson, Levine, McConnell, and Smith, 2011). Compounding the problem is that much current discussion around civic education focuses on content demands, notably in the form of citizenship tests (Hess, Stone, & Kahne, 2015). Concentrating on content, as critics charge citizenship tests of doing, implies knowledge alone will implicitly create engaged citizens committed to democratic practices (Noddings, 2013). However, knowledge

accumulation does not necessarily lead to students meaningfully applying content to their

civic lives (Barton & Levstik, 2008), developing civic dispositional commitments

(Parker, 1989), nor lead students to critically assess previously held beliefs (Nyhan &

Reifler, 2010). Likewise, civic learning disconnected from curriculum, including the

causes and solutions to the problems being addressed, lessens the likelihood of future

engagement (Levinson and Levine, 2013). To maintain and foster democratic practices,

civic education must include more dimensions of authentic learning, where students

develop knowledge and skills that have value beyond school, rather than "routine use of

facts and procedures" (King, Newmann, & Carmichael, 2010, p. 44).

     According to Campbell (2012) there are four primary components of effective

civic education: "the knowledge, skills, attitudes[2], and experience to prepare someone to

be an active, informed participant in democratic life" (p. 1). Taken together, the four

components show the different dimensions of civic education and desired outcomes for

meaningful civic learning. I use these four components to frame, what I term, "best

practices" in civic education. *Civic knowledge* is the content base needed for citizenship.

It can take many forms, but civic knowledge loosely defined, should include any content

that contributes to understandings needed for civic life, such as knowledge of values,

politics, economics, social systems, etc. (Niemi, 2012). *Civic skills* are the necessary

skills and abilities to participate in civic life, including evidence-based argumentation,

assessing competing claims, source analysis, comparing and contrasting, deliberation,

and discussion (Parker, 2003; Saavedra, 2012). *Civic dispositions and attitudes* reflect

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[2] Though I use Campbell's definition to operationalize civic education, I added "dispositions" as several scholars discuss democratic commitments in terms of dispositions (e.g., Barton & Levstik, 2008; Crick, 1999; Hess & Zola, 2012). Both "dispositions" and "attitudes" were used in this research to capture nuances in data collection.

commitments to civic principles needed to live in a democratic society. These principles include democratic values, individual rights, and social responsibilities (Pearson & Waterson, 2013). *Civic experiences* are opportunities to practice participating in civic life. Experiences require meaningful application of civic knowledge, skills, and dispositions/attitudes (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004). Experiences participating in civic life help students become engaged citizens, but also contribute to developing civic dispositional commitments (Hahn & Alviar-Martin, 2008). As such, experiences help reinforce world history and civic learning.

Civic experiences can take many forms, including using instructional strategies that promote democratic discourse, critical source analysis, and opportunities for out-of-classroom application (Hess & McAvoy, 2015; Levine, 2012). Many scholars' assessments of engaging in civic experiences, or *being a citizen*, draw upon Westheimer and Kahne's (2004) taxonomy (see Castro & Knowles, 2017; Castro & Muente, 2015). It reflects a spectrum of civic experiences, from the smaller acts of responsible behavior ('personally responsible') and active participation ('participatory') to transformative behavior ('justice-oriented'). For this study, civic experiences that connect learning to an out-of-classroom context are the focus (Levine, 2012). As will be elaborated upon in the conceptual framework, these four civic learning components—knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences—provide a means to analyze curriculum and instruction through a civic education lens.

Defining Citizenship

Though one can identify and parse out common components, meanings of civic education are far from monolithic. Teachers' particular approaches to civic education are

impacted by their views of citizenship and civic education, itself (see Annette, 2008; Castro & Knowles, 2017; Knight Abowitz & Harnish, 2006; Papastephanou, 2008). Accordingly, civic education ideologies have shown to impact teacher instruction (Knowles, 2017; Lowham & Lowham, 2015; Obenchain, Balkute, Vaughn, & White, 2016). Thus, considering how teachers approach civic learning is linked to their beliefs about civic education itself and broader perspectives towards citizenship.

Scholars, educators, and policymakers alike may express commitment to civic education being an important part of modern schooling, but there is little consensus as to what *citizenship* looks like, in theory and in practice (Campbell, 2012). Citizenship is a malleable concept, reflecting several possible theoretical views and frameworks. Definitions of citizenship can be rigid legal statuses, as well as more flexible interpretations of one's standing within a community and/or behavior reflective of the community's values (Levinson, 2014). Smith (2002) identifies four primary meanings of citizenship: (1) a person holding political rights to participate in self-governance; (2) a purely legal status of one's national affiliation; (3) membership within an association of people, political or non-political; and (4) referring to one's conduct or participation within the groups they are a member. Similarly, Arthur, Davies, & Hahn (2008) discuss different interpretations of citizenship based upon views of identity, legal or political statuses, and civic engagement. Banks (2017) believes, at minimum, citizenship is the rights and privileges to which individuals are entitled in a nation-state with the expectation of national loyalty in return.

Cultural identity is increasingly conflicting with dominant perspectives of citizenship within public discourse and curriculum (Ladson-Billings, 2004). Alviar-

Martin (2011) notes that while two citizenship discourses dominate conceptions within the United States—civic republican and liberal democratic worldviews—these two discourses are too nation-centric and, thus, fail to address students' civic realities, particularly the dilemmas posed by globalization. Challenging these worldviews are burgeoning discourses, including multicultural, critical, and transnational citizenship. These forms of citizenship reflect sociocultural worldviews, which result in tiered citizenship wherein people are excluded from full citizenship (Banks, 2008). In particular, people of color are denied full citizenship as they have less access to the privileges of dominant white society (Ladson-Billings, 2004; Rosaldo, 1994).

Despite variances, the most common understanding of citizenship reflects a legal status within a nation-state (Alviar-Martin, 2010). Scholars, however, more often use flexible definitions based on identities, individual rights, and obligations to the residents within a country, not necessarily revolving around a legal status (Levinson, 2014). Whether centered on the nation-state or more fluidly defined, there are three main components shared among definitions: (1) a shared identity indicative of membership; (2) presumed individual rights; and (3) social responsibilities. It then follows that being a citizen requires commitment to, and maintenance of, the associated rights and responsibilities. Who and what is included within those citizenship components informs how civic education manifests. For example, if membership is seen as limited to those within one's own country, a civic disposition committed to social responsibilities may not extend to those non-members (Nussbaum, 2009). Furthermore, teachers' understandings of citizenship are consequential, as one's definition can inform perspectives of what constitutes the knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences needed for civic

education. Establishing a framework of the intersection between citizenship definitions and the four civic education components contributes to better understanding of civic learning in world history classrooms.

Global Citizenship

Interconnectedness of the world's people has led to vigorous discussions as to the form and function of citizenship and civic education in a global society, challenging traditional understandings of citizenship as an individual's relationship with a nation (Alviar-Martin, 2010; Myers, 2016). A particularly contentious area is that around the term 'global citizenship.' Supporters believe looking at the world through a global civic lens is unavoidable. Nussbaum (2010) argues if civic concerns cross borders, as they increasingly do, then understanding citizenship involves a reassessment of civic identity, rights, and responsibilities for a global context. Likewise, most civic education scholars do not see citizenship as a 'zero-sum game' of allegiances (Barrow, 2017; Kymlicka, 2004). Current nationalist and isolationist rhetoric around the world criticizes the overall concept of 'global citizenship' as undermining national loyalties (Barrow, 2017). Global citizenship is not a dismissal of national civic understandings. However, national citizenship alone will not inherently contribute to desired global citizenship competencies. Rather, national citizenship understandings are a part of the broader needs to be competent as a global citizen (Myers, McBride, & Anderson, 2015; Wang & Hoffman, 2016). Even if one believes citizenship should only be framed within nation-based legal frameworks, the ways in which globalization has permeated modern societies make considering citizenship within the global unavoidable.

Defining global citizenship. Much like citizenship, *global citizenship* is a slippery term, particularly in how it appears in education research and in classrooms. Global citizenship is used frequently in scholarship and schools alike, but more as a slogan than as a term with an agreed upon meaning or implications (Gaudelli, 2009). Education research often uses the term global citizenship without providing an explanation as to how the researchers define it (Goren & Yemini, 2017). The assumptions about identity, rights, and responsibilities within global citizenship vary greatly across definitions. As civic ideologies impact curriculum and instruction, arbitrary use is problematic in understanding its impact on achieving the goals of civic education (Knowles, 2017).

Several scholars have created typologies for understanding various global citizenship definitions. One common goal of global citizenship education has been to broaden students' perspectives towards others in the world. Many definitions draw upon Hanvey (1982), who identified five dimensions of a global perspective: perspective consciousness, 'state of the planet' awareness, cross-cultural awareness, knowledge of global dynamics, and awareness of human choices. Dill (2013) sees global citizenship as focusing on two primary ideas: global competency and global consciousness. Global competency concentrates on skills for competing on a global scale, while global consciousness aims to build global mindedness by focusing on such traits as empathy and cultural sensitivity. Andreotti (2014) and Oxley and Morris (2013) both divide global citizenship discourse into two general arenas, reflecting similar distinguishing features. The first categories, labeled 'soft' and 'cosmopolitan' respectively, educate for global awareness and understanding. The second categories, 'critical' and 'advocacy,' require

meaningful engagement with civic issues, addressing inequity through promoting structural change.

Gaudelli (2009) divides global citizenship into five categories or "visions" of global citizenship. His framework includes neoliberal, national, Marxist, world justice and governance, and cosmopolitan. Unlike the definitions described above, Gaudelli bases these categories on the broad global civic landscape reflected in discussions of global citizenship, rather than discussions siloed within academic discourse. Though global citizenship education scholarship may trickle down and impact teachers' practices, teachers and students alike are impacted by popular discourse around globalization. In this regard, Gaudelli's structure is broader and, therefore, can better address teachers and students' lived experiences. For these reasons, I use Gaudelli's categories as my conceptual framework. (See Conceptual Framework below for further discussion of the five visions).

Summary

Effective civic education requires curriculum reflect different dimensions, represented here in the four civic education components: knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences. As civic issues increasingly touch multiple nations, civic learning requires an expanded scope of civics into the arena of global citizenship. Accordingly, how teachers define citizenship and global citizenship impacts how each component may manifest in the classroom. This intersection will be explored further in the Conceptual Framework.

World History's Role in Civic Education

Though educational initiatives may come and go, scholars and policymakers alike have seen the study of history as contributing to students' civic education (e.g., Levesque, 2008; McNeill, 1985; Stearns, 1998). Though some scholars argue that all education is preparation for democratic citizenship (Levine, 2012), history courses are commonly identified as a subject fundamental to civic learning as they prepare young people for living in a pluralist democracy (Barton & Levstik, 2009; McNeill, 1985; Parker, 2003).

The following section reviews how scholars characterize the role of history education in civic education and world history's particular role, highlighting the growth of world history courses in response to civic concerns. This discussion is followed by an assessment of world history's relationship with global citizenship education.

The Purpose of World History Education

The World History Association (WHA) states world history's unique contribution to education is its examination of "transregional, transnational, and transcultural" phenomena, rather than examining groups in isolation (WHA, n.d.). Thus, world history knowledge serves to promote global understandings by studying international connections, interactions, and common phenomena across human experiences (Dunn, 2010; Merryfield & Kasai, 2010). If the purpose of history education is to prepare young people for living in a pluralist democracy, and thus, educate for citizenship (Barton & Levstik, 2009; Parker, 2003), then world history education expands history's purpose to a global stage. Accordingly, world history education is positioned to prepare young people for global democratic living and global citizenship.

World History's Growth and Civic Education

The believed connection between studying history and engaged democratic citizenship is reflected in world history education's growth in the United States. Similar to broader pushes for global studies, world history grew throughout the twentieth century to address international civic concerns (Dunn, Mitchell, & Ward, 2016). Early versions of world history courses in the United States were called 'general history.' The course's narrative was one of the West's ascension to global hegemony, portrayed as a testament to Western values, including democratic ideals (Dunn et al., 2016). History classes' role in contributing to civic education was reaffirmed after World War I's barbarism reflected an apparent rejection of Western democratic values (Segal, 2000). Focusing even more on Western societies, rather than a balanced global world history was, thus, a means to further inculcate the values believed to be needed for democratic citizenship and prevent another global conflict (Evans, 2004). Geopolitical tensions after World War II again pushed education reformers to evaluate how schools prepared young people for democratic citizenship (Nash et al., 2000). Consequently, social studies and world history scholars called for reforms to address students' civic preparation. Propelled by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) Project and the Chicago School of the 1960s, a world history movement emerged with visions of fostering holistic global mindedness and cooperation (Allardyce, 1990; Lockard, 2016; McNeill, 1986). Likewise, the New Social Studies Movement of the 1960s, spurred by Jerome Bruner (1960/1977), encouraged more effective, relevant social studies education. Bruner believed curricular decision-making should be situated towards developing a well-educated citizenry. The importance of addressing relevant problems using

disciplinary skills underpinned the movement, providing a space for civic education within world history (Engle & Ochoa, 1988).

World history continued to grow throughout the 1980s and 1990s, when it became recognized as a distinct academic field of study (Merryfield & Wilson, 2005). The course's growth accelerated in response to various social, political, and economic factors of the late 20th century, including diverse student populations' curricular demands, calls for better global competency preparation, scholars' movement towards more critical political and international perspectives, and concerns about competition in the global marketplace (Graham, 2005; Stearns, 2010). Indeed, the aforementioned Bradley Commission's (1991) guidelines emphasized world history as uniquely positioned to foster needed global civic understandings, recommending two-years of Western and world history. Critics aside, the Bradley Commission influenced post-secondary survey courses and state standards, further expanding world history in education (Swansinger, 2009).

Growth notwithstanding, world history is still criticized for not being a holistic view into the world, limiting its preparation of students for global citizenship. One reason is it remains in the shadow of its curricular predecessor: Western Civilization. Non-Western voices in world history curriculum are often superficial discussions of individual cultures (Nash et al., 2000). Movement towards more globally minded world history has been criticized as ignoring the West (Dunn et al., 2016; Evans, 2004). Thus, despite intentional efforts to move away from Western dominance, change in the worldliness of world history has been limited (Stearns, 2010).

Further evidence of the persistent western-ness of world history can be found in the 2018 announced changes to the AP World History exam, which eliminates content prior to 1450. The change has been criticized from educators of all levels as eliminating earlier world cultures for the sake of focusing on interactions with white Europeans (Flaherty, 2018). The form of world history, therefore, impacts the extent to which it can achieve its disciplinary purpose of preparing students with civic understandings of global phenomena across time and space. Shortened timeframes and narrowed geographic foci inhibit students' development of broad civic understandings for global citizenship.

Despite enduring concerns about its content focus, world history's existence in curriculum is well established in the twenty-first century. After becoming an Advanced Placement (AP) course in 2000, over 20,000 students took the exam in 2002 (Merryfield & Wilson, 2005). By 2019, the College Board reported 313,317 students in AP World History, constituting more than ten percent of all AP students for the year. The number of states requiring world history for high school graduation jumped from twelve in 2004 to 44 in 2013 (Girard & Harris, 2013). The world history course has made a place for itself in U. S. schools, making understanding its role all the more important.

The Intersection Between *Doing* History and Civics

History education and its purpose to prepare students for civic life is well established in scholarship (e.g., Parker, 2003). Indeed, the four civic education components – knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences – intersect with approaches to historical study. Barton and Levstik (2009) identify four primary stances and purposes of 'doing history.' Comparing these four stances of doing history and the civic education components illustrates how the two disciplines complement one another.

Their four stances are: *identify, analyze, respond morally*, and *display*. Students *identify* when they connect themselves within larger historical processes or narratives. To *analyze*, students examine and assess the causal factors of history. Students *respond morally* by revering or condemning events or people of the past. Lastly, *display* requires students communicate information about the past.

A comparison of history and civic education illustrates similar processes and desired outcomes for the two fields. Explicating the relationship between civic education and historical stances creates an operational definition of effective history civic education. Barton & Levstik (2009) believe historical knowledge, or the content chosen for instruction, should help students *identify* with the ideas revolving around civic republicanism, specifically as a means to prepare students for democratic participation. History, in this regard, provides the needed foundational content knowledge of common institutions and a collective past (McNeill, 1985; Stearns 1998). The historical skills included within the *analyze* stance apply to civic reasoning skills, including making rational judgments, assessing competing claims, using and assessing multiple sources as evidence, and perspective taking/recognition. Partially reflecting the *identify and respond morally* stances, Barton and Levstik (2009) believe historical study's outcomes develop dispositional commitments towards civic republicanism by providing models of civic virtue, opportunities to analyze in order to make value and moral judgments, and opportunities to respond morally to the past. Through the *display* stance, students apply their knowledge and skills in an experience including others, providing a space to apply historical learning and practice participating in civic life. (Table 1 in Appendix A summarizes this discussion of the intersection between civic and history education).

Doing World History Civics

If we apply world history and global citizenship scholarship to this discussion of history education, we see how *doing world history* addresses the four components of effective civic and history education, but within a global context. Doing world history provides the broad global content *knowledge* and conceptual frames needed to interact with the world's people, facilitating pluralist understandings towards democratic thinking (Dunn, 2010). Similarly to history *skills* contributing to civic education—making reasoned judgments, assessing competing claims, using and assessing multiple sources as evidence, and perspective recognition (Barton & Levstik, 2009)—world history applies historical and civic skills to broadened temporal, spatial, and abstract phenomena. These unique lenses for understanding the world require a different analytical skillset for world history than national histories (Harris, 2012). World history develops civic republican *attitudes* and *dispositions* by emphasizing multiculturalism, pluralism, and addressing global problems through international dialogue and cooperation (e.g., Bentley, 2007; Watt, 2012). Exhibition of historical knowledge in an *experience* including others (Barton & Levstik, 2009) makes world history a platform to address globally situated issues (Girard & Harris, 2015). Taken together, this discussion of the intersections between different areas of scholarship provides a framework of best practices for effective world history civic learning, through which different global citizenship manifestations can be better understood as contributing to or undermining world history's civic purpose.

World History and Global Citizenship Education

Currently, world history is often cited as the foundational subject for fostering global citizenship commitments (e.g., Bryan, 2014; Girard & Harris, 2014; Myers et al., 2015; Zhao, 2010). This is not to say a U.S. History course would not or cannot foster global citizenship knowledge, skills, attitudes/dispositions, or experiences. Indeed, forms of global citizenship, particularly versions with a robust national thread, can be woven within national histories (see Conceptual Framework). However, teaching world history for global citizenship, in particular, is believed to better address the content and analytical skills needed to solve global problems (Bentley, 2007; Watt, 2012). In fact, several scholars see world history as the course uniquely positioned to foster the global competencies needed for global citizenship (e.g., Harris, 2014; Myers, 2015; Zhao, 2010). For example, Girard & Harris (2013) believe world history addresses global citizenship's needed dispositional commitments, including commitment to global democratic living, cultural pluralism, historical empathy, and engagement with multiple perspectives.

However, despite scholars perceiving world history as having important civic implications, Gaudelli (2003) believes world history instruction does not help students gain meaningful global understandings. One reason may be that despite civic concerns undergirding world history education's development, the perceived connection between world history instruction and civic education is not well established in schools. Rapoport (2010) believes global citizenship is in a state of "curricular insecurity," where it is mentioned in several teaching frameworks that cover global content, but without an established place in school curriculum (p. 180). Rapoport lists several areas of global

studies within which global citizenship appears, none of the subjects being history, world or otherwise.

Moreover, there is a relative absence of the term 'global citizenship' within world history standards. In another study, Rapoport (2009) finds international civic commitments are mentioned in several state standards, though the term global citizen(ship) appears in the standards of only two states – neither instance in the context of world history. In the AP World History Course and Exam Description (2017), civics and citizenship are only mentioned in the context of particular content (e.g., the French Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen). It is not identified as a purpose or outcome of the course.

Citizenship and civic education are also notably absent from world history textbooks. Discussion of global citizenship is generally on the rise in textbooks but appears less frequently in history textbooks as compared to those related to current issues, including international studies or human rights curriculum (Buckner & Russell, 2013). In an analysis of world history textbooks' content and organization, Marino (2011) lists citizenship as a theme of globalization, but does not indicate the role it plays, nor its centrality within the material. Although teaching does not begin and end with textbook curriculum, social studies instruction is still primarily textbook-based (Levstik, 2008). The content of textbooks has implications for how teachers frame history content (Apple, 1992; Bain, 2006; Bromley, 2009). Its absence, therefore, has implications for teachers' curricular decisions.

Even if there are explicit references to global citizenship within curricular resources, this does not guarantee the desired knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, or

experiences needed for meaningful civic education will permeate curriculum and instruction. When global citizenship is integrated in teaching, its role is often quite shallow (Goren & Yemini, 2017). How teachers approach world history may even undermine scholarly visions of global citizenship, particularly when global citizenship focuses on international competition rather than cooperation (Noddings, 2013; Nussbaum, 2010). If the purpose of world history is to foster civic mindedness committed to global democratic life, how teachers attempt to achieve those ends is consequential.

Summary

History and civic education have overlapping educational outcomes. World history's growth throughout the twentieth century reflects its perceived importance towards fostering an informed, engaged citizenry. Table 1 in Appendix A summarizes the intersection between history, world history, and civic education using Campbell's (2012) description of effective civic education and Barton and Levstik's (2009) stances for historical study. Though global citizenship and civic education may have a presence in world history education, scholarship indicates its role is varied, thin, and inconsistent.

<div align="center">Teachers' Curricular Purposes</div>

Central to understanding civic education's place in world history is considering the teachers' role in crafting curriculum with clear civic outcomes driving decision-making. As curricular-instructional gatekeepers, teachers exercise a great deal of control as to how students engage with content (Thornton, 2005b). Teachers' instructional goals and purposes, whether implicit or explicit, impact these content and pedagogical decisions (Darling-Hammond et al., 2005; Gradwell, 2010). Scholars have long indicated the importance for educators to understand both the implications of and instructional

strategies needed to achieve their teaching purpose (e.g., Dewey, 1910/2011; Griffin, 1942; Shulman, 1987). Thus, achieving the goals of civic and world history education, as well as the larger goals of social studies, is contingent on teachers' possession of a clear purpose as to what, why, and how they teach. To better understand the role of teachers' curricular purposes, the following section discusses the role of teacher beliefs and conceptualizations around civic education, as well as the importance of articulating and implementing a conceptually clear civic purpose to achieve learning goals.

Teacher Beliefs

Establishing a purpose for teaching any content area first relies on educators' beliefs about the subject matter. *Teacher beliefs* can be a messy construct. According to Pajares (1992), teacher beliefs reflect personal and professional knowledge, as well as attitudes, values, concepts, dispositions, implicit and explicit theories, and perspectives. Beliefs inform how teachers perceive, "what the subject is about, what it means to know the subject or to be able to carry out tasks effectively within that subject domain" (Calderhead, 1996, p. 720). John Dewey (1910) sees belief as a mode of thought guiding individuals' behavior. Beliefs shape teaching goals and objectives, which consequently, affect curricular and instructional practices (Chin & Barber, 2010). Though teachers' beliefs may evolve, expand, or change, what teachers believe about a subject informs instructional purposes and corresponding teacher behavior.

Conceptualizations of Civic Education

One way in which teacher beliefs manifest in the classroom is through the particular conceptualizations teachers possess for content. *Teacher conceptualizations* for social studies are "stated beliefs about social studies purposes as well as the ways

teachers report these beliefs as realized in classrooms" (Patterson, Doppen, & Miscoe, 2012, p. 192). In other words, teacher conceptualizations are how teachers explain their thoughts, actions, or behaviors to achieve a purpose. Applied to this study, conceptualizations are how teachers describe civic education's role in world history, in thought and practice. As much of the responsibility in preparing young people for citizenship falls on teachers (Westheimer & Kahne, 2003), teachers' conceptualizations shape civic education, and thus, have a great impact on citizenship and students' own concept-building.

There is also burgeoning research concerning teachers' civic identity and the ways in which these conceptualizations impacts classroom instruction. Patterson, Doppen, & Miscoe (2012) confirm Anderson, Avery, Pederson, Smith, & Sullivan's (1997) findings concerning the lack of empirical research on teachers' conceptualizations of civic education. However, research has emerged addressing this issue since that time. Obenchain, Balkute, Vaughn, & White (2016) found teachers' civic identity had instructional impacts in formal and informal curricula. Discussing critical and multicultural strands of citizenship, Castro (2013) finds instructional decisions reflect teachers' views of civic education. In their research on teachers' civic meanings, Lowham & Lowham (2015) report teachers believe public schools play an important part in civic education. However, a consensus as to the importance of civic education is met with a spectrum of beliefs concerning how it does (and should) manifest in curriculum and instruction. Knowles (2017) finds teachers' personal ideologies and conceptualizations of citizenship have pedagogical implications. Instructional decisions are consistent with teachers' views and ideologies towards civic education. For example,

teachers with more critical or progressive citizenship ideologies are more likely to use inquiry learning. Teachers who value more conservative ideologies instead favor direct instruction.

Teachers' conceptualizations about citizenship and civic identity, however, are also affected by dominant societal discourse. In a case study on teachers' civic beliefs and practices in an international school, Alviar-Martin (2011) found teachers described citizenship as being fluid, which reflected the lived experiences of their students. However, teachers' curriculum and instruction instead reflected nation-centric forms of citizenship. Other studies come to similar conclusions. Educators may conceptualize citizenship and civic identity as fluid, inclusive constructs, but their practices often reflect narrow, nation-focused perspectives (Banks, 2004; Myers, 2006). Thus, these studies suggest conceptualizations around citizenship and civic identity impact teachers' decision-making. However, more work needs to be done in order to understand how teachers conceptualize civic education and the relationship between their ideas and what happens in classrooms.

Conceptually Clear Civic Purpose

Lacking a consistent, clear, conceptual purpose throughout one's pedagogy can impact teaching practices. Levinson (2012a) believes teachers' civic purpose must be "inclusive, intentional, and overt" to meaningfully and effectively teach for democratic citizenship (p. 114). Otherwise, saying one is teaching for democratic citizenship is "little more than a mantra, chanted without reflection on its deeper meaning or implications for practice" (Barton & Levstik, 2009, p. 28). Teachers may value schooling's civic mission,

but most do not use civic learning to challenge the status quo or intentionally foster

critical dispositions (Patterson, et al., 2012).

In history education, the problem is particularly important to address. As

previously noted, scholars believe history plays a pivotal role in civic education

(McNeill, 1998). Indeed, possessing knowledge of an issue can improve students'

political efficacy (Cohen & Chaffee, 2013). However, Barton and Levstik (2008) find

that increased content knowledge alone does not necessarily lead to informed civic

decisions. Learning history does not mean students know how to easily apply that

learning to their civic lives (Nash, Crabtree, Dunn, 2001). If the relationship between

history and civic learning is implicit, rather than explicit, it limits the ways in which

students make meaningful connections between learned content and the civic sphere.

Teaching about the past, but not explicitly showing students the modern relevance of

history may, thus, be ineffectual for history to contribute to students' civic learning

(Barton & Levstik, 2009). Clearly connecting history and civic education, therefore,

plays a pivotal role towards achieving desired civic education outcomes.

By the same token, if a civic purpose is not *intentionally* woven throughout one's

curricular decision-making, other purposes may dominate, such as content coverage and

behavior management (Levstik, 2008). Assessing teachers' conceptualizations of civic

education can help uncover the real purpose, or hidden curriculum (Anyon, 1980),

driving decision-making, which may or may not be the expressed purpose.

Summary

Teacher beliefs concerning subject matter impact curricular decisions and reflect

the broader purpose of their teaching. Preparing young people for citizenship may be an

agreed-upon purpose of history education, however a clear civic education thread, reflecting the different components needed for effective civic learning, may not necessarily be woven throughout teacher or school practices. This implicitness can hinder students' preparation for civic life.

Theoretical and Conceptual Framework

The theoretical and conceptual framework for the proposed mixed methods study reflects a pragmatist worldview (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). In this research, I employed post-positivism (Slife & Williams, 1995) and social constructivism (Burr, 2003), emphasizing the role of sociocultural theory, mediated action (Wertsch, 1994), and pedagogical reasoning (Shulman, 1987). In this section, I explain the theoretical and conceptual framework informing my approach to the phenomenon of study. My discussion begins with the broadest theoretical worldviews, moving towards a more focused discussion of the foundational civic education concepts. As I discuss these theories and concepts, I begin with the broadest—the pragmatist worldview and the respective approaches to the research strands —then move more specifically to the proposed study's framing concepts related to civic education and global citizenship.

Mixed Methods: Pragmatist Worldview

In order to conduct a thorough investigation into teachers' perceptions of civic education in world history, this study used a mixed methods approach. A mixed methods study entails uses both quantitative and qualitative research methods to expand the "breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration" of the topic for inquiry (Johnson, et.al., 2007, p. 123). As a mixed methods study, I employed a pragmatist worldview (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Critics believe the epistemologies (theories of

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knowledge) and ontologies (theories of the nature of reality) within mixed methods are incompatible with each other, as the different qualitative and quantitative research strands reflect vastly different lenses through which one interprets the world (Smith & Heshusius, 1986). However, a pragmatist stance allows researchers to be responsive to their data sources. Such an approach to inquiry allows the researcher's epistemological position to function as a heuristic tool of discovery (Greene & Hall, 2010; Maxwell & Mittapalli, 2010). Thus, pragmatism allows the researcher to see the quantitative and qualitative phases as complementing one another, rather than working in conflict (Morgan, 2007; Shannon-Baker, 2016). By the same token, quantitative and qualitative studies do not have to be epistemologically opposed, as "quantitative studies are pregnant with (ontologically) qualitative concepts" (Howe, 1988, p. 15). Thus, using a pragmatist approach allowed the phenomena to be analyzed as both real and constructed. Establishing 'truth' or understanding of the phenomena is contextualized within particular worldviews.

     Post positivism. For the quantitative stage of the proposed research, a postpositivist worldview was used. Positivism believes researcher and research subjects are independent of one another, while post positivism strives for objectivity, but recognizes biases cannot be entirely eliminated (Glesne, 2011). Post positivism seeks to establish knowledge of the world by focusing on particular variables to assess possible cause-and-effect relationships (Slife & Williams, 1995). It uses higher-level theories in order to explain observable behavior (Bredo & Feinberg, 1982). Post positivism informed the study's quantitative research phase, as responses were approached as observable manifestations of teachers' perceptions in the form of objective data.

Social constructivism. The qualitative phase of the study interrogated the data from a social constructivist view, particularly considering sociocultural theory and mediated action (Wertsch, 1994). Social constructivism uses a "critical stance toward our taken-for-granted ways of understanding the world, including ourselves. It invites us to be critical of the idea that our observations of the world unproblematically yield its nature to us" (Burr, 2003, p. 2-3). In other words, social constructivism recognizes ways of understanding reflect social experiences and are, therefore, subjective constructions. Knowledge is a social process, reflective of historical and cultural contexts (Vygotsky, 1978). Social constructivism informed this study as both the researcher and research participants' worldviews are recognized as a reflection of various contextual factors, making data and data analysis subjective. Therefore, the proposed research was not able to make universalizing claims. Rather, it informed understandings of the phenomena—teachers' conceptualizations of civics in world history—as one situated within particular historical and cultural contexts.

Sociocultural theory and mediated action. Using a sociocultural theoretical frame, particularly considering the role of *mediated action*, further informed this study. Sociocultural theory considers the relationship between human behavior and an individual's cultural context and experiences (Wertsch, 1994). Assessing cultural tools, whether material or cognitive in form, provided a means to understand internal (mental) processes (Wertsch, 1998). Mediated action refers to the use of cultural tools to achieve a purpose or objective. Thus, the value of using mediated action theory is it allowed me to "go beyond the individual agent when trying to understand the forces that shape human action" (Coles, 1986, p. 24). In this study's context, teachers' cultural tools were their

conceptualizations of civic education in their teaching. Conceptualizations as a cultural tool may aid or constrain enactment of their perceived civic purpose within the context of world history courses.

Pedagogical reasoning. Understanding teachers' conceptualizations of civic education also required consideration of educators' pedagogical content knowledge and reasoning. Shulman (1987) describes pedagogical content knowledge as "the blending of content and pedagogy into an understanding of how particular topics, problems, or issues are organized, represented, and adapted to the diverse interests and abilities of learners, and presented for instruction" (p. 8). Therefore, pedagogical reasoning is "both the means and ends," as one's knowledge must "deal with the purposes of education as well as the methods and strategies of education" (Shulman, 1987, p. 13). Shulman's model of pedagogical reasoning includes six primary components. Teachers: *comprehend* the idea to be taught; *transform* materials to reflect the teacher's own understanding and to reflect student needs; *evaluate* student understanding; *reflect* on and evaluate their teaching practice; and create *new comprehensions*. As teachers' pedagogical reasoning is complex and often invisible, even to the teachers themselves (Clark & Lampert, 1986), pedagogical reasoning theory helped to illuminate educators' mental processes informing civic education within world history curriculum and instruction.

Doing World History Civics: Conceptual Framework

Competing definitions of citizenship and global citizenship complicated studying how teachers describe civic education's role in world history. Thus, in addition to the different theoretical and epistemological concepts informing the proposed study, the analysis was framed by different conceptualizations of global citizenship, with

consideration of how they contribute to, or inhibit, effective civic learning. In order to better understand the relationship between world history and civic education, I created a conceptual framework of world history civics' potential forms. Using different definitions of global citizenship provided a means to assess the knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences of civic learning in a way that was more context-specific to world history. Creating frameworks of the intersections between global citizenship discourses with citizenship and civic education components benefited this study because it: (1) further clarified how the discourses differ from one another in teacher application; (2) facilitated a comparison of how each form of global citizenship contributes to world history civic learning; and (3) provided a means to analyze teachers' responses on world history civics, considering explicit/implicit meanings and curricular implications.

Creation of the framework had two main phases: first, I established an operational definition of best practices for effective world history civics, grounded in several scholarly fields; second, I used this definition to assess and critique different types of global citizenship, allowing me to evaluate the different ways world history civic education can manifest.

Best practices in world history civic education. First, I used Campbell's (2012) definition of effective civic education to identify four distinct, but interrelated, components of civic learning: knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences. By establishing a definition for each component, I created an operational framework for assessing how civic learning can manifest in classrooms. Next, I compared my civic education framework to Barton and Levstik's (2009) purposes and stances of *doing*

history: identify, analyze, respond morally, and display. The comparison between civic and history education established a framework for understanding their relationship. The particular disciplinary purposes of world history were then applied to the history/civic education framework (e.g., Bentley, 2007; Watt, 2012). The result is a definition of best practices for world history civics in the form of an operational framework of *doing world history* with a civic purpose. In short, the best practices reflect the knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes and experiences that will develop students' pluralist understandings in order to foster global democratic living. See "Literature Review: Doing World History Civics" for an explanation of the world history civic education definition and Appendix A.

Five visions of global citizenship. In order to create a richer understanding of teachers' conceptualizations of civic learning in world history, the second phase of developing the conceptual framework involved assessing different forms of global citizenship in terms of how they would manifest in civic education according to the four civic education components: knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences. Though there are several frameworks scholars use to understand citizenship (see Castro & Knowles, 2017), I am using a global citizenship framework as it more directly reflects the curricular context of world history. Based upon Gaudelli's (2009) five visions of global citizenship, this framework allowed me to contextualize teachers' responses within the class' content and, accordingly, better analyze how teachers make sense of civic education's role in world history. When teachers discussed civic learning within world history courses reflecting a particular global citizenship ideology, I could make inferences as to how civic education may be manifesting in curriculum and instruction.

Accordingly, the five visions, parsed into civic education components, are employed here as a heuristic tool to understand world history civic education.

There are numerous typologies of global citizenship that could have been employed to assess teachers' views of world history civics, as discussed in the previous section of the literature review. Gaudelli's (2009) framework was chosen because its breadth captures the larger global citizenship landscape. Several taxonomies of global citizenship in education revolve around differences in academic scholarship, but do not necessarily reflect views among the general population. The other typologies previously discussed are more reflective of scholarship rather than larger societal discourse. For example, though Dill's (2013) two categories—global competency and global consciousness—both aim to build global mindedness, and thus, reflect desirable outcomes of global citizenship education, they do not necessarily reflect the spectrum of beliefs in terms of how people situate individuals or groups within larger global civics. For instance, it is not clear where a nation-based form of citizenship, which may be opposed to the idea of global citizenship, would fit. Though Dill's framework may capture this form of global citizenship under his umbrella categories, it nonetheless does not parse out this form or other potential variances clearly enough to be used as a framework for analysis. However, in Gaudelli's (2009) framework, nation-based citizenship can be situated within the national global citizenship category, as this vision centers the nation and its civic institutions. Gaudelli's categories facilitate meaningful analysis of civic education in world history, as they do not assume all teachers will fall into academically situated categories. Though there is utility in understanding different scholarly approaches, Gaudelli's framework better reflects teachers' lived experiences as

members of a diverse society, rather than trying to force them into the more narrowly defined academic versions.

Gaudelli (2009) divides global citizenship into five categories or visions. The five visions are: (1) *Neoliberal global citizenship* (NeoGC), framed by the global marketplace; (2) *National global citizenship* (NatGC), situated within the nation-state and national governments; (3) *Marxist/Critical³ global citizenship* (MCGC), civics focused on eradicating exploitive capital systems; (4) *World Justice and Governance global citizenship* (WJGGC), focused on an international legal framework of human rights; (5) *Cosmopolitan global citizenship* (CosGC), reflecting several frames, transcending singular civic identifications or allegiances. The categories may overlap but are discrete enough to facilitate a meaningful analysis of teachers' many possible conceptualizations.

Below is a summary highlighting distinguishing features between the forms of global citizenship. Each vision is parsed out in terms of the three components of citizenship (as identified in the "Literature Review: Defining Citizenship": identity, individual rights, and social responsibilities) based on my analysis of Gaudelli's (2009) description. Then, each global citizenship vision's implications for civic learning and Campbell's (2012) four components (knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences) is discussed. Tables 2 and 3 in Appendix A summarize my assessment of the intersection between citizenship, global citizenship, and civic education using Campbell's (2012) description of civic education and Gaudelli's (2009) visions of global citizenship.

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³ Gaudelli's (2009) Marxist vision is not labeled as "critical," but described as such. I include "critical" in the description as it reflects the particulars of the Marxist form of global citizenship, while also explicitly connecting this vision to larger discourses around critical citizenship.

Neoliberal global citizenship (NeoGC). Global economic development, particularly reflecting capitalistic principles and privatization, frames the neoliberal vision of global citizenship (Gaudelli, 2009). This lens approaches global citizenship as one based on economic participation and competition, as well as individual autonomy and freedom. The neoliberal frame is quite prevalent within global development and broader education policy discourse (e.g., Bryan, 2014; Gaudelli, 2013; Nussbaum, 2010). Indeed, in their cross-national examination of textbooks, Buckner and Russell (2013) find economic constructs, rather than social or political, most often frames globalization.

Civic identity and membership within NeoGC is largely a national orientation with membership framed as participating in the global economy (Gaudelli, 2009). This vision is more focused on individual rights than social responsibilities. Individual rights for neoliberalism center around freedom from authority and principles of free market, laissez-faire capitalism (Knight Abowitz & Harnish, 2006). Social responsibilities are to help one another access and participate in the global economy, though not necessarily on equitable terms.

In terms of the four civic education components, understanding the NeoGC vision must bear in mind its framing of global education's purpose as increasing competitive advantage. Thus, teaching for NeoGC sees civic knowledge and skills as those which will maintain and grow competitive advantage without disrupting existing power structures. There is not critical analysis as "neoliberals contend that democracies are fundamentally in agreement about the rules of civic and social life" (Gaudelli, 2009, p. 71). Furthermore, commitment to competitive advantage trumps other civic dispositions/attitudes, such as learning across difference as a means to foster empathy,

commitment to human rights, or human development (Lévesque, 2008; Nussbaum, 2009; Parker, 2017). Accordingly, civic experiences are about economic participation, as well as the personally responsible citizen archetype (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004) and civic spectatorship (Ross, 2000), as neoliberalism does not seek structural change.

National global citizenship (NatGC). Global citizenship within a national lens elevates the knowledge and civic responsibilities that promote one's national ideals and interests (Gaudelli, 2009). Economic incarnations of global citizenship may dominate textbooks, but much global citizenship literature focuses on national conceptualizations (Buckner & Russell, 2013). An analysis of NatGC, considering Gaudelli's (2009) conceptualization and other scholars' discussions, reveals two strands: one in which the national and global civic spheres are separate, keeping civic commitments or responsibilities situated within the nation; the second strand considers the extent to which rights and responsibilities extend (or should extend) to the world community.

In the first strand, NatGC considers how global relationships can improve the nation or the nation's interests. Civic identity is based on national membership within international spheres. Individual rights reflect those of the particular nation-state. Extending rights to the global community is inconsistent, and thus, not guaranteed. Social responsibilities to help those outside the nation-state are a means to maintain global stability, which supports the nation's ideals and/or interests.

In regard to civic education, this strand of NatGC focuses civic knowledge on U.S. systems, rather than developing a truly trans-national citizen (Gaudelli, 2009). Civic skills include making reasoned judgments, evidence-based argumentation, and compare/contrasting. Though NatGC may be criticized for not reflecting the complexities

of global issues, or for taking a non-critical approach, it can provide useful positioning of the nation within broader global connections to develop these skills (Goren & Yemini, 2017; Myers, 2016). However, the centering of the nation implies the dispositional civic commitments are focused on maintaining global stability to serve the nation, rather than extending responsibilities to global inhabitants (Pike, 2000). Much like neoliberal citizenship, NatGC does not foster civic experiences that disrupt global power structures, particularly U.S. hegemony. Experiences will reflect participation in national civic systems. Being a good citizen means being personally responsible (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004) or engaging in civic spectatorship (Ross, 2000).

The second strand of NatGC differs in its goals, as it has more potential to address global inequity. This strand is well described as globally oriented national citizenship. Parekh (2003) defines the globally oriented national citizen as: (1) critically examining the actions of one's country, thereby deepening students' democratic commitments; (2) interested in global affairs as a reflection of responsibility in ensuring humanity's well-being; and (3) committed to international cooperation to promote the common good. Thus, as in the first strand, civic identity is still based on national membership in an international community. It also uses national frameworks of rights and responsibilities, considering how they would/should be extended to the global community.

The civic knowledge and skills of this NatGC strand does not necessarily differ from the first strand. The notable differences are instead reflected in the civic dispositions/attitudes, which may facilitate critical reflection upon the broader commitment towards rights and responsibilities of the global community (Myers, McBride, & Anderson, 2015). Being a good citizen, and corresponding civic experiences,

can then reflect personal responsibility, participation, and justice-oriented versions of

citizenship (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004). Civic experiences within this strand of national

citizenship, therefore, provide space to enact global change (Wang & Hoffman, 2016).

Marxist/critical global citizenship (MCGC). A Marxist orientation to global

citizenship is "predicated on the eradication of capital," but its manifestation in U. S.

curriculum is often through critical pedagogical practices (Gaudelli, 2009, p. 73). This

form of global citizenship is nearly absent from empirical work and education policy,

though several scholars advocate for critical global citizenship education orientations

(e.g., Andreotti, 2014; Goren & Yemini, 2017). For example, Nussbaum (2010) and

Heilman (2006) both argue global citizenship education must be critical if young people

are to meaningfully tackle international problems.

In MCGC, all members of the global community share a common civic identity,

but this vision also recognizes that membership is unequal. Citizenship rights are

reflective of democratic ideals, such as fairness and equality. Social responsibilities

within the MCGC stance require individuals challenge structures that perpetuate global

inequity in order to promote social transformation.

Accordingly, the required civic knowledge reflects that of critical studies:

understandings of economic, political, and social structural inequities (Knight Abowitz &

Harnish, 2006). In addition to more universal civic skills, the particular civic skills within

the MCGC lens must involve critical analysis. Civic dispositions include commitments to

adopt a social justice stance that challenges structures perpetuating inequity on a global

scale. Civic experiences would need to be firmly situated towards justice-oriented

versions of citizenship (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004). Such experiences have students challenge structural inequities on a global scale.

World justice and governance global citizenship (WJGGC). WJGGC takes a justice-oriented, or social justice, stance. The WJGGC vision of global citizenship has its roots in the post-WWII era with the emergence of international legislative bodies and accompanying codifications of human rights, justice, and a common humanity-based citizenship. International governing bodies, such as the United Nations, provide such frameworks as the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) (1948), which promotes a more inclusive understanding of rights and responsibilities for a global community (Heilman, 2007). The WJGGC stance addresses a common skepticism concerning global citizenship in that without a world government, global citizenship is not possible (Rapoport, 2015), as WJGGC offers a framework for global governance.

Civic identity within WJGGC is an inclusive, humanity-based form of citizenship. Much as national global citizenship situates one's nation as standard-bearer—including national values and ideals – this stance would then position international frameworks as such in determining rights and responsibilities of citizens. Accordingly, individual rights are based on international frameworks, such as the UDHR. Social responsibilities are commitments to international cooperation in order to uphold the international legal frameworks for all members.

The needed civic knowledge for WJGGC requires understanding international legal frameworks of human rights, as well as knowledge fostering understanding across geographic and sociocultural difference. Civic skills would be those needed for deliberation, as well as assessing competing claims, and making reasoned judgments.

The needed civic dispositions include commitment to upholding responsibilities to the global community per an international framework. Civic experiences could encompass any of the three typologies per Westheimer & Kahne (2004). However, as the stance's name implies, it lends itself to more justice-oriented citizenship experiences through opportunities to practice international deliberation and cooperation.

Cosmopolitan global citizenship (CosGC). CosGC believes an interconnected global community of diverse peoples requires democratic principles apply to all of humanity. It also requires viewing citizenship as a fluid construct, rather than an exclusively national identity. Though rarely found in curriculum, definitions of cosmopolitanism are plentiful in education scholarship (Gaudelli, 2009). Reflecting upon its origins in Stoic philosophy, Nussbaum's (2002) definition constructs a cosmopolitan citizenship, wherein "our first allegiance is to no mere form of government, no temporal power, but to the moral community made up by the humanity of all human beings" (p. 7). Appiah (2006) defines cosmopolitanism as "rooted," allowing for local identity, while nonetheless possessing "universal concern and respect for legitimate difference" (p. xv). Thus, CosGC has a broad, fluid framework for considering identity, rights, and responsibilities.

CosGC sees civic identity as transcending a singular classification, instead suggesting several overlapping identities (Gaudelli, 2009). Rights are reflective of democratic ideals, responsive to both the local, as well as universal ethical ideas (Kant, 1785/2009; Nussbaum, 2002). Social responsibilities are to uphold the rights of all of humanity, as well as the responsibility to understand others (Appiah, 2006). CosGC diverges from WJGGC in that cosmopolitanism does not have a concrete framework of

rights, but rather provides a space for reflective inquiry to deliberate upon what global democracy and ethics should look like (Appiah, 2006; Barton & Levstik, 2009).

Civic knowledge within a cosmopolitan vision of global citizenship resembles that of WJGGC, but also intentionally fosters inclusive understandings of humanity by studying both larger phenomena and local particulars. Civic skills include deliberation, assessing competing claims, as well as compare/contrasting, particularly towards establishing a universal ethic. Civic dispositions associated with CosGC require a commitment to uphold democratic principles to all of humanity. Civic experiences could reflect personal responsibility, participatory, and social justice stances (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004). These acts should involve engaging with diverse people in cooperative activities.

Personal disclosure regarding best practices. As educators, we are preparing students for civic life, whether modeling action or inaction in the face of complex issues.. In order to achieve world history's disciplinary purpose towards civic education, I believe effective world history civic education needs meaningful integration of an inclusive definition of citizenship. Civic learning should have rigorous and intentional development of broad knowledge, skills, attitudes/dispositions, and experiences to prepare students for global civic life. The versions I believe best reflect this view are world justice and governance and cosmopolitanism, as these two visions promote comprehensive global knowledge, rigorous and critical skill development, commitment to promoting the common good of all humanity, and opportunities for civic experiences that apply learning in a meaningful and authentic way. For these reasons, I also believe they best reflect the definition of best practices for effective world history civic education.

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Summary

The theoretical framework for this study reflects several worldviews in order to study the chosen phenomenon in a mixed methods study. The framework was the foundation for establishing the proposed study's methods, including the research questions for both data collection strands, as well as the planned analytical approach. The conceptual framework of global citizenship is parsed out according to civic education components. This process provides a comprehensive means of assessing the many possible manifestations of civic education within world history classrooms.

Chapter Three

Methodology

The present study used an explanatory sequential mixed methods research design to examine how teachers describe the role of civic education in world history. The purpose of the study was to better understand and define the ways in which teachers theorize and conceptualize how civic education is woven throughout their world history curriculum and instruction. Civics is a prominent theme across education discourse, but there is much to be learned about how teachers conceptualize civic education, particularly within different disciplines. The main research question for the present study was: How do teachers describe civic education's role in world history? Supporting research questions included: (1) how do teachers conceptualize civics within world history?; (2) how do their conceptualizations reflect the civic education components?; and (3) how do teachers' conceptualizations reflect forms of global citizenship?

The study's quantitative phase established how teachers perceive the importance of civic education in world history, plus their perceptions of the most important ways civic education should manifest. The qualitative phase explored teachers' descriptions of the relationship between world history and civic education. The teachers' discussions of world history civic education were assessed using a self-developed analytical framework based on history education, civic education, and global citizenship (Barton & Levstik, 2009; Campbell, 2012; Gaudelli, 2009).

Rationale

Civic education has long been identified as a primary purpose of schooling (Dewey, 1916). Accordingly, civics requirements are common across state standards

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(Levine, 2012). The recent *College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework for State Social Studies Standards* reaffirmed social studies education's contribution to civic life (NCSS, 2013). Application of learning outside the classroom in meaningful and relevant civic experiences frames the civic life portion of the C3 Framework. As preparation for citizenship is an important objective of education, the ways in which it manifests in education is an important phenomenon to explore.

Teachers' role in achieving this purpose is important. Teachers have a great impact on students' civic learning (Westheimer & Kahne, 2003). By and large, teachers support civic education in schools and believe they provide civic learning opportunities (Chin & Barber, 2010). Teachers report frequently teaching democratic values, however it is often linked to content where those values are more explicitly connected, such as government or US history courses (Passe & Patterson, 2013). Furthermore, teachers hold a variety of perspectives as to what citizenship means and, thus, results in vast differences as to how civic education manifests in classrooms (Patterson, et al., 2012). Civic ideology impacts teachers' curricular decision-making, which affects the form, and extent, that effective civic education manifests (Castro, 2013; Obenchain, et al., 2016). Thus, understanding civic education in classrooms requires investigating teachers' views.

Evolution towards an increasingly connected global society further affects civic education. Globalization connects the world's inhabitants, making consideration of the global civic sphere unavoidable in civic learning (Nussbaum, 2009). Previous scholarship has highlighted the value of world history in preparing students for global citizenship (e.g., Watt, 2012), and other research has assessed how teachers' civic identity impacts classroom practices (Knowles, 2017; Patterson, et al., 2012). Little empirical research

examines teachers' views of citizenship and civic learning in world history courses. If world history is not adequately helping students attain global understandings, as scholars believe it should, research is needed to better understand teacher practices.

The present study was unique in its focus on the intersection of world history and civic education. Rich quantitative and qualitative data in a mixed methods approach contributes to the limited understanding of how civic education appears in world history classes. As teachers exercise a great amount of control over what happens in classrooms, centering teachers in a mixed methods study provides rich forms of data, facilitating a deeper knowledge of an understudied phenomenon.

Mixed Methods Design Rationale

Mixed methods designs are often employed when one data source may be insufficient to address the research question (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Mixed methods research reflects *methodological eclecticism*, in that different methods of inquiry were employed in order to best address the research questions (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2010). By conducting a mixed methods study, the two research strands allowed for a more robust iterative analysis and meaning-making. Likewise, the different methods helped illuminate the contradictions between strands, providing complex understanding of the research results (Greene, Caracelli, and Graham, 1989). Using a mixed methods approach, thus, strengthened the study's results, as it allowed for capitalizing on the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative research methodologies to study the phenomenon (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

Additionally, the quantitative data assisted in identifying study participants for the qualitative phase of inquiry (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Looking at the phenomenon

through quantitative data from a large population, followed by collecting rich qualitative

data, provided a more comprehensive understanding of teacher perceptions. The

qualitative data collection allowed an exploration of how teachers' responses in the

quantitative strand manifest in terms of teachers' approaches to curriculum and

instruction. Together these data sources provided a more complete picture of the

relationship between civic and world history education.

Research Design

To better understand teachers' views of civic education in world history, I

conducted a mixed methods study. As this subject has yet to be adequately empirically

explored, this mixed methods study was well suited to provide an initial glimpse into

world history civics education. A participant-selection variant of an explanatory

sequential mixed methods design, or quantitative preliminary design, was used,

consisting of two distinct phases (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Morgan, 1998). This

design designates the initial quantitative phase as being secondary to the qualitative phase

(Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). It involved collecting quantitative data first in order to

determine preliminary trends. As a participant-selection variant, the quantitative strand

also assisted in identifying and purposefully selecting participants to elaborate upon the

first phase in the second, qualitative phase. The qualitative data collection phase helped

explain meanings within the quantitative results, providing a richer, nuanced description

than could have been provided in either strand alone.

This study was an explanatory sequential mixed methods design, wherein the

qualitative strand was dominant. Thus, it can be classified as a quan-QUAL research

design (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The qualitative strand was given dominance in

that the study wanted to prioritize the voice of world history teachers in constructing an understanding of world history civic education. Below is a visual model of the explanatory sequential mixed methods design:

Figure 1: Explanatory Sequential Mixed Methods Design

quan *Data Collection:* *Cross-sectional Survey*	$\Rightarrow$	quan *Data Analysis: Statistical Analyses*	$\Rightarrow$	**QUAL** *Data Collection: Interviews*	$\Rightarrow$	**QUAL** *Data Analysis: Coding*	$\Rightarrow$	Integration of Quantitative and Qualitative Results
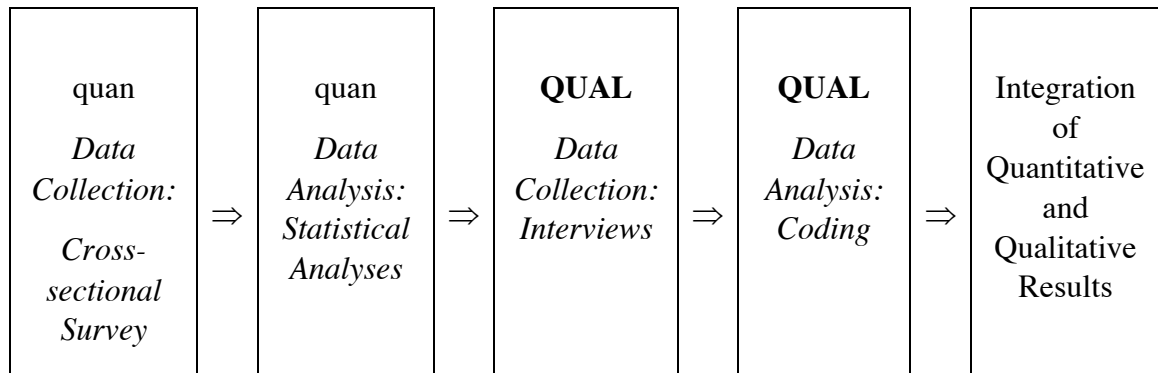
As seen in Figure 1, the study was conducted in steps. The information acquired in the first stage informed data collection and analysis in the qualitative data collection and analysis phase. In Figure 1, "QUAL" is shown in capital letters to emphasize its priority in this research study. Though performed and conceptualized as a sequential process, the two strands were conceived as being in conversation with one another, requiring abductive reasoning to make sense of the study's phenomenon (Greene & Hall, 2010; Morgan, 2007). See Appendix B for full diagram of the study's procedures and timeline.

In the first quantitative phase of the study, survey data was collected from 123 world history teachers through a national online teacher network. The survey was a cross-sectional web-based survey (Nardi, 2006). It assessed the extent to which teachers believe civics appears in world history and other social studies courses, how it informs their curriculum building, and how teachers perceived the importance of different possible manifestations of civic education in world history, as aligned with Gaudelli's (2009) five

global citizenship visions. The second, qualitative phase was a follow-up to the quantitative phase. This phase helped explain and elaborate upon the quantitative results. Civics in world history was explored through interviews with eight world history teachers across the United States.

Phase One: Quantitative Strand

Participants. The participant population was current and former world history teachers. For phase one, the quantitative phase, participants were solicited to participate in the web-based survey using the *C3 Teachers* network contact list. *C3 Teachers* is the companion site to the *College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework for Social Studies State Standards* (NCSS, 2013). According to the website, "C3 Teachers aims to empower teachers as they wrestle with the big ideas and instructional implications of the C3 Framework" (C3teachers.org, n.d.). The *C3 Framework* provides guidance for social studies educators in enhancing their teaching of state social studies standards, focusing on the concepts and skills needed for more rigorous practices reflective of the social studies disciplines. The *C3 Teachers* website was created by the authors of the *C3 Framework* in order to connect educators to curricular resources. I have access to this population as I am the managing editor of the *C3 Teachers* site, which involves maintaining the website, writing monthly blog posts, as well as creating and disseminating the monthly newsletter. Because of my current position as managing editor of the website, I had connections and access to this population. There were 10,092 subscribers (as of 10/16/2018) to the newsletter, which consists of teachers, teacher educators, and others in the field of education. Subscription to the newsletter is completely voluntary. In the email solicitation, current and former world history teachers were requested to take the survey

(See Appendix C for email solicitation). Of the 10,092 email recipients, 123 completed the survey. See Appendix E: Table 1 for survey participant demographic information.

Data collection and instrument. For the quantitative phase of study, data was collected to assess how world history teachers see civic education in their world history courses. It also helped identify and purposefully select individuals for the second, qualitative phase (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Nardi, 2006). The survey instrument was self-developed to measure world history teachers' perceptions of their own curricular decision-making as it relates to civic education. In addition to survey responses, demographic information was included to assist in participant selection for the second phase in order to purposefully select a variance of backgrounds (Maxwell, 2005). No demographic group was purposefully excluded.

Survey questions were written to: generate data answering the research questions, reflect the existing literature on civic education, reveal new information about the phenomenon of study, and generate data concerning participants' demographics, attitudes, and behaviors (Converse & Presser, 1986; Nardi, 2006). Table 3.1 below summarizes each questions' connection to literature and its purpose in addressing the research questions.

Table 3.1: Survey Question Matrix

QUESTION	RELEVANT LITERATURE	PURPOSE OF QUESTION
Section 1: Q. 1-5 Importance of Civics	• Civics is the primary purpose of education towards informed and active democratic living (Campbell, 2012; Barton & Levstik, 2009; Parker, 2003) • World history as the subject for global citizenship (Zhao, 2010; Myers, 2015; Harris, 2014)	• Establish attitude • Determine how important teachers see civics in relation to disciplinary contexts
		• How do teachers conceptualize civics in world history?

Table 3.1 (continued)

Section 2: Q. 6-9 Civic Knowledge	• Citizenship requires shared historical knowledge (McNeill, 1985). • History has long been identified as providing the knowledge base for citizenship (Levstik & Barton, 2008) • World history provides knowledge for global citizenship (Girard & Harris, 2013; Nussbaum, 2010) • Particulars of the five global citizenship visions (Gaudelli, 2009)	• Establish attitude and behavior • Determine the relative extent to which content or knowledge particulars are integrated into curriculum writing • Compares world history to other disciplinary contexts
		• How do their conceptualizations reflect the civic education components? • How do teachers' conceptualizations reflect forms of global citizenship?
Section 3: Q. 10-13 Civic Skills	• Skills needed for democratic citizenship: discussion, deliberation, (Parker, 2003). • Historical skills for democratic citizenship: evidence-based argumentation, perspective-taking (Barton & Levstik, 2008) • World history as the means to address global problems and promote constructive dialogues and cooperation (Watt, 2012; Bentley, 2007) • Particulars of the five global citizenship visions (Gaudelli, 2009)	• Establish attitude and behavior • Determine the relative extent to which particular skills or literacies are integrated into curriculum writing • Compares world history to other disciplinary contexts
		• How do their conceptualizations reflect the civic education components? • How do teachers' conceptualizations reflect forms of global citizenship?
Section 4: Q. 14-17 Civic Dispositions / Attitudes	• Commitment to democratic principles, (Parker, 2003; Barton & Levstik, 2009), historical empathy (Barton & Levstik, 2009), consideration of the common good, civic republicanism, (Barton & Levstik, 2009; Knight Abowitz & Harnish, 2006) • World history fosters cultural pluralism and democratic living (Girard & Harris, 2013) • Particulars of the five global citizenship visions (Gaudelli, 2009)	• Establish attitude and behavior • Determine the relative extent to which fostering of particular civic dispositions or attitudes are integrated into curriculum writing • Compares world history to other disciplinary contexts
		• How do their conceptualizations reflect the civic education components? • How do teachers' conceptualizations reflect forms of global citizenship?
Section 5: Q. 18-21 Civic Experiences	• Civic experiences help contribute to engaged citizenry (Hahn & Alviar-Martin, 2008; Barton & Levstik, 2009).	• Establish attitude and behavior • Determine the relative extent to which curriculum provides opportunities to have civic experiences • Compares world history to other disciplinary contexts

Table 3.1 (continued)

	• Teachers do not include participation in their global citizenship constructions (Rapoport, 2010) • Particulars of the five global citizenship visions (Gaudelli, 2009)	• How do their conceptualizations reflect the civic education components? • How do teachers' conceptualizations reflect forms of global citizenship?

A beta version of the survey instrument was piloted among a subsample of teachers (n=33) with follow-up interviews (n=2). Pilot participants were individually solicited from the larger research participant population. The pilot study was conducted as a small-scale version of this research study in order to establish preliminary conclusions and identify practical problems in the research design (Teijlingen & Hundley, 2002). The pilot allowed an opportunity to scrutinize the survey instrument's strengths and weaknesses, such as whether respondents understood the questions as intended (Ruel, Wagner, & Gillespie, 2016; Sheatsley, 1983). High internal consistency for the thirteen survey questions was determined using Cronbach's alpha ($\alpha = .922$), thereby indicating minimal bias due to faulty item construction. Participants were informed that it was a participating pilot, meaning they were told that responses would inform revisions to the major study's research instrument and procedures (Converse & Presser, 1986). As such, the pilot participants reported the survey instrument's questions were clearly written. However, several participants indicated that including examples for civic knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences would help respondents more accurately align responses and questions. Upon reflection of the pilot, revisions were made to improve the survey instrument's ability to measure the phenomenon of study, as will be discussed below.

The survey was divided into five sections: Importance of Civics; Civic Knowledge; Civic Skills; Civic Dispositions/Attitudes; and Civic Experiences. The first five questions, Section 1: Importance of Civics (Q.1-5), asked teachers to assess civics as an important component of courses, considering it in context of: any class, any social studies class, any history class, US history, and world history. Questions used a 5-point Likert scale to capture variance in participants' attitudes (Likert, 1974). The subsequent four sections were divided based on the civic education component: knowledge, skills, disposition/attitudes, and experiences. Within each of these four sections, participants answered questions where they: (1) rated the importance of different forms of knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, or experiences, as aligned with Gaudelli's (2009) global citizenship visions (Q. 6a-e; 10a-e; 14a-e; and 18a-e); (2) chose the most important knowledge, skill, disposition/attitude, or experience of the five global citizenship options (Q. 7, 11, 15, and 19); and (3) rated how they consider knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, or experiences when curriculum planning for any curriculum and world history, respectively (Q.8-9, 12-13, 16-17, and 20-21). Questions included 5-point Likert scales (Likert, 1974), and a multiple-choice question for respondents to choose the most important knowledge, skills, disposition/attitude, and experience.

Based on the pilot study and scrutinizing the instrument in terms of the research question, several questions were added to Sections 2-5, which align with the civic education components (knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences). The added questions were constructed from the five global citizenship visions (Q. 6a-e, 7; 10a-e, 11; 14a-e, 15; and 18a-e, 19). These questions asked participants to rate the importance of each global citizenship visions' version of knowledge, skills,

dispositions/attitudes, and experiences. The questions were constructed using the self-developed framework of the global citizenship visions' civic education contribution (see Theoretical and Conceptual Framework section; Appendix A: Table 3). The framework summarizes an intersectional analysis of civic education and the five global citizenship visions. It displays key aspects of each form of global citizenship in relation to knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences. For example, neoliberal global citizenship is framed by capitalistic principles, privatization, and global economic development (Gaudelli, 2009). The neoliberal vision's contributions to civic education reflect this frame. Neoliberal civic knowledge was, thus, identified as, "knowledge of the development of the global economy" (Q. 6a).

Parsing each global citizenship vision into a succinct contribution to civic education is admittedly imperfect as it simplified complex worldviews. However, the utility of these questions was twofold: First, it provided survey respondents with a frame of reference as to how knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences can be interpreted. By adding these questions, responses as to the extent to which they plan curriculum in consideration of knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences will better reflect a broad view of civic education. Including several examples, therefore, makes my intended meaning behind each question clearer, providing more meaningful data towards understanding the phenomenon of study. Second, it provided data showing how teachers prioritize different versions of civic education. This information allowed a more nuanced interpretation of the quantitative results, allowing a stronger understanding of teachers' conceptualizations of world history civic education.

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An optional text field followed each question to allow teachers to respond to any question in their own words or explain the context of their responses. This allowed the quantitative phase of study to capitalize on the strengths of open-ended questions, without marginalizing the quantitative method of inquiry (Kasunic, 2005; Nardi, 2006). This text field also allowed for themes across the data sources to be triangulated during analysis, enhancing the study's overall validity (Johnson & Christensen, 2012). For full research survey, see Appendix C.

The survey was administered online using the Qualtrics survey software. The survey was accessed through a URL link. On October 16 and 17, 2018, participants were recruited via email with a request for participation. Email addresses of the potential participants were obtained through the *C3 Teachers* newsletter network. Research procedures were outlined on the survey prior to any questions, per IRB rules and regulations, which includes the eight federally required elements and IRB policy dictated elements (See Appendix D). Participants were required to consent to participation. Upon receipt of the surveys, identifiers were removed and replaced with researcher-created codes. When writing up research, participants were identified by researcher-created pseudonyms. Responses were coded and categorized. The data collection took place between October 16 and November 7, 2018. From 10,092 recipients, 123 completed the survey, which constituted a response rate of 0.82%.

Data analysis and validation. To analyze the data, univariate statistical procedures were used in the form of descriptive statistics and frequency distribution tables. IBM Statistical Package for the Social Sciences 25 (SPSS) was used. Prior to data analysis, data was screened for missing data and outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996).

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Validity of the survey was established through descriptive statistics, frequency

distribution, and internal consistency tests (Cronbach's alpha), wherein the alpha

coefficient for the thirty-seven survey questions suggests the items have high internal

consistency (α = .906). Table 3.2 below presents the reliability indexes for survey items

according to each section and/or appropriate grouping.

Table 3.2: Internal Consistency Tests

Survey Section/Questions	Survey Questions	Cronbach's Alpha
Overall Survey	Q. 1-21	.906
Section 1: Importance of Civics	Q. 1-5	.781
Section 2: Civic Knowledge	Q. 6a-e, 7-9	.801
Section 3: Civic Skills	Q. 10a-e, 11-13	.751
Section 4: Civic Dispositions	Q. 14a-e, 15-17	.765
Section 5: Civic Experiences	Q. 18a-e, 19-21	.765
Global Citizenship Visions: Civic Education Components	Q. 6a-e, 10a-e, 14a-e, 18a-e	.915
Civic Education and Curriculum Planning	Q. 1-5, 8-9, 12-13, 16-17, 20-21	.898

Phase Two: Qualitative Strand

     Participants. For phase two, the qualitative phase, sixteen (16) teachers were

identified and requested for follow-up phone interviews. Of those requested, eight (8)

agreed to interviews. Participants were chosen using purposeful sampling methods,

meaning selection was based on their responses to the quantitative survey (Creswell &

Plano Clark, 2011). Selection of teachers was based on: believing there is a civic

education purpose in world history, responses reflecting trends/themes in the quantitative

data, variance of perspective reflective of trends/themes in the quantitative data, variance

in demographic information (e.g., geographic location, gender, experience, etc.), and

willingness to participate (Maxwell, 2005; Yin, 2011). Though there was no purposeful exclusion of participants based on sex/gender or race/ethnicity, the participants lack racial/ethnic diversity. Of the total number of survey participants, only eight identified as an ethnic group other than White/European (with twenty-eight identifying as "Other"). Though non-White participants were asked to participate in an interview, none accepted the request. Upon identifying individuals for interviews, their participation was requested for interviews, with a reminder that they were not required to participate per the informed consent form. The interviews were conducted in November 2018. To keep responses confidential, participants were assigned researcher-selected pseudonyms. See Appendix E: Table 2 for interview participant demographic information.

Data collection and instrument. The second, qualitative research phase was the prioritized strand of data analysis, as it explored the trends discovered in the initial, quantitative phase. This data collection phase contextualized how teachers see civic education and civic conceptualizations in thought and practice by asking them to "reconstruct their own experiences and reality in their own words" (Yin, 2011, p. 32). Interviews were semi-structured, conducted individually, recorded, and partially or fully transcribed. Detailed field notes were constructed during the interview. The interview questions pertained to how the teachers see civics appearing in world history, both considering the class' content, as well as their particular curriculum planning and instruction. Explicit reference was made to the four civic education components (knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences). The questions were designed to be open-ended so as to not lead participants towards a particular outcome (Bernard, 2011). Accordingly, semi-structured and open protocols were employed during

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interviews, meaning that predetermined questions were asked, but new questions were asked through the course of the interview (Glesne, 2011). My interview organizational sheet, on which I took notes during the interview, had interviewees' survey responses in the margins. This facilitated an iterative process of meaning-making, further connecting the two research strands. (See Appendix G). Interviews lasted approximately 30-60 minutes, depending on respondents' depth of answers. All interviews were coded, transcribed, and categorized. Interviews were conducted using Zoom Video Communications. See Appendix D for full semi-structured interview protocol.

A beta version of the interview protocol was piloted among a subsample of teachers who completed the pilot survey (n=2). Pilot participants were individually solicited from the larger research participant population. As a participating pilot, interview participants were asked to provide feedback on the interview questions (Converse & Presser, 1986). For the second phase of the pilot study, the semi-structured interview protocol was deemed effective in stimulating conversation that addressed the research questions. It facilitated gathering meaningful data by parsing out the different civic education components. The interviews were not overly scripted, which allowed more freedom in participants' expression of their civic conceptualizations.

Data analysis and validation. In order to reduce validity threats of qualitative research during data analysis, Maxwell's (2009) strategies were employed. Research was: detailed, included further investigation into discrepant cases, varied data, and methods of comparison. Data analysis for the qualitative phase reflected five analytical phases: (1) compiling data; (2) disassembling data through coding; (3) reassembling data based on emergent patterns; (4) interpreting and describing data; and (5) making conclusions as to

the data's significance (Yin, 2011). During the process, I recognized that analysis and the data collection are often a synchronized process (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). As the interviews were semi-structured, this allowed an unwrapping of ideas, thereby maintaining my data collection as one of discovery (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Thus, codes were determined using an abductive coding method, which is an integrated process of inductive and deductive strategies (Onwuegbuzie & Combs, 2010). Reflecting Gibbs' (2007) emphasis on determining the relationship between the individual participant and coding, I considered the context of the common codes, which included the individuals' contexts and the context of the data collection. For example, the interviews created a different dynamic between researcher and participant than observations or a survey.

Preliminary codes were based on the analytical framework and emergent themes identified when assessing survey respondents' explanations. These initial codes were: civics/citizenship, civic education components (knowledge, skills, attitudes/dispositions, experiences), teacher purpose, and global citizenship constructions (neoliberal, national, Marxist/critical, world justice and governance, cosmopolitan). As I began coding, I further developed these as well as created additional categories (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). This required being very intentional in maintaining a balance between categorization and connection analyses in order to have a more valid, comprehensive analysis (Maxwell & Miller, n.d., cited in Maxwell, 2005). These categories began as open codes. As they developed, I connected them to each other through axial codes—the cornerstones of my data (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). In Appendix H, I provide a sample of my coding matrix to illustrate my coding organization.

Mixed Methods Analysis

      Advantages and validation. Advantages to using mixed methods is it allows the researcher to capitalize on the strengths of both research methods, thereby enhancing the study's validity, while mitigating each method's limitations (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The mixing of research approaches involved frequent transitioning between the strands, providing an enriched understanding into how the two data sets complement and contradict one another. Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) believe deeper understandings emerge from the dual analysis required of mixed methods studies. The study results allowed for the creation of both statistical and analytic generalizations of the phenomenon of study (Yin, 2009). Thus, there is a certain level of generalizability this research can have for the larger population of teachers. Nonetheless, the study is situated as providing information leading towards more meaningful inquiries into world history civic education.

      In order to further mitigate the limitations of mixed methods research, several of Onwuegbuzie and Johnson's (2006) types of validity (or legitimation) were considered in the study's design: sample integration, inside-outside validity, weakness minimization, sequence, paradigmatic mixing, commensurability, and multiple validities. Sample integration required carefully considering how the sampling yields different inferences. The two groups do not have the same assumptions—nor do interview participants' views holistically reflect those of the survey participants. Inside-Outside Validity meant integrating an emic/etic viewpoint, in that I very intentionally developed an insider/outsider perspective for both research strands. Weakness minimization meant combining of the methods to minimize weakness and play on strengths of the other,

rather than exacerbate weaknesses. Sequential legitimation required choosing a mixed methods sequence to minimize potential problems, as well as considering how a different sequence would have yielded different results. Paradigmatic mixing required clearly explaining and merging my epistemological, ontological, and methodological beliefs. Likewise, commensurability meant meta-inferences needed to reflect a mixed research worldview. Multiple validity legitimations meant addressing validities of each research strand.

Limitations. Though conducting a mixed methods study addressed many of the limitations of one research strand alone, the particulars of this study posed potential limitations in data interpretation. One limitation is the teachers solicited to participate came from the C3 Teacher network. Teachers within the C3 Teacher network voluntarily receive updates and/or resources related to the *C3 Framework* through a newsletter or other similar communications from those who manage the website (including myself as the managing editor). An important component of the *C3 Framework* is the third "C": civic life. Throughout the *C3 Framework* and C3 Teachers resources, "civic life" manifests explicitly in civic experiences identified as "taking informed action." Though the network's reach means participants reflect diverse geographic locations, years of experience, and other demographics, their voluntarily connection with the network means they are likely more familiar with the *C3 Framework* and its civic principles than teachers who are less knowledgeable about the *C3 Framework's* structure and contents. Likewise, membership in teacher networks and communities can reinforce application of scholarship in the classroom (Lieberman, 2000). To situate the phenomenon of study into the universal, generalizations were made within this context (van Manen, 1990). Thus,

this proposed study focused on a particular group of teachers, but allows for larger, contextualized, analytic generalizations about civic education within world history.

As there is a lack of research on how teachers conceptualize civic education in world history courses, the study gathered rich data, providing a foundation for further research into this phenomenon. Additionally, this study focused on examining how teachers perceive their emphasis of the civic education components in world history, relative to other social studies disciplines, providing the beginning of a clearer understanding of what teachers believe about civic education's manifestations in their classrooms. Though teachers may have reported placing importance on civics in their curriculum building, this self-reported data does not indicate the level of explicitness or conceptual clarity within instruction, nor guarantee that students are learning the desired civic competencies.

This study explored how teachers describe civic education and assessed how their conceptualizations may impact curriculum and instruction. In this regard, the study suggests what civic learning may look like in world history classrooms based upon self-reported data. However, this research is limited in that it did not collect classroom-level data and, thus, the study does not provide empirical evidence of teachers' implementation of civic learning. This study, instead, sought to create a foundational understanding as to how teachers perceive civic learning in world history with possible implications for curriculum and instruction.

Chapter Four

Findings

This mixed methods study used an explanatory sequential research design to examine how teachers describe civic education's role in world history. The goal of the study was to better understand and define the ways in which teachers theorize and conceptualize civic education in world history curriculum and instruction. The main research question was: How do teachers describe civic education's role in world history? Supporting research questions included: (1) how do teachers conceptualize civics within world history?; (2) how do their conceptualizations reflect the civic education components?; and (3) how do teachers' conceptualizations reflect forms of global citizenship?

The findings presented in the following sections are based on survey data collected from 123 world history teachers and interviews with eight of the same teachers. The study's explanatory sequential design meant data collection had two distinct strands. Findings are presented according to the respective research strand. The quantitative results are presented first, followed by the qualitative results. However, data analysis was an abductive reasoning process. I transitioned between data sets, looking for complementary and contradictory data, thereby creating a richer understanding of the phenomenon of study. Thus, both research strands are discussed iteratively in Chapter 5: Discussion and Implications.

Quantitative Survey Findings

Introduction

In the first phase of the study, collection of the quantitative data was designed to measure the extent to which teachers believe civic education to be important, considering four identified components: knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences. Below quantitative findings are organized by research questions and the quantitative data analysis procedures. First, I present the univariate statistical analyses in the form of descriptive statistics and scale item frequency tables. Results are organized into three broad categories and related question sets: Importance of Civics, Global Citizenship Visions in Civic Education, and Curriculum Planning. The second section within the quantitative findings describes participants' responses within the survey questions' optional explanation fields.

Organized by question set, three primary findings emerge from the quantitative data: (1) the majority of respondents indicated that civics is an important component of all classes, including world history; (2) though all forms of global citizenship were rated highly, world justice and governance global citizenship (WJGGC) and cosmopolitan global citizenship (CosGC) were rated the most highly; (3) The majority of respondents also indicated that they consider the different components of civic education (knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, experiences) when they plan curriculum.

Descriptive Statistics and Frequency Tables

Univariate statistical procedures were performed using both descriptive statistics and scale item frequency analysis. In order to display results, I divided questions into three sets: the Importance of Civics (Q. 1-5); the Global Citizenship Visions in Civic

Education (Q. 6a-e, 7, 10a-e, 11, 14a-e, 15, 18a-e, 19); and Curriculum Planning (Q. 8-9, 12-13, 16-17, 20-21). The descriptive statistics and frequency tables are presented for each set. The descriptive statistics tables display the means and standard deviations calculated for the responses to questions using a 5-item Likert-scale (Strongly Agree, Agree, Neutral, Disagree, Strongly Disagree). To deepen understandings of the data's meaning, scale item frequency analyses were performed, displaying participants' responses in percentages according to the respective Likert-scale responses. Frequencies were also calculated to more clearly show agreement versus disagreement by calculating the frequency of "strongly agree" and "agree," as well as "disagree" and "strongly disagree," represented in blue and light grey respectively (See Tables 4.2, 4.4). For the second Likert-scale, "extremely important" with "very important" and "slightly important" with "not at all important" were calculated. Results are highlighted in blue and light grey (See Table 4.9).

Question Set 1: Importance of Civics. The first set of questions (Q.1-5) were designed to determine if participants believe civics is an important component of different classes: any class, any social studies class, any history class, US history classes, and world history classes. These questions asked participants to use a five item Likert-scale to rate civics' importance (Strongly Agree, Agree, Neutral, Disagree, Strongly Disagree). Descriptive statistics and the frequency tables revealed that the majority of respondents believe civic education is important across the subject areas, including world history.

Descriptive statistics. Means and standard deviation for these questions were calculated to determine overall ratings of civic education's relative importance. For these

survey questions, the mean scores ranged from 1.13 (US history) to 1.66 (any class), situating the respective means between *strongly agree* (1) and *agree* (2). The smallest standard deviation was in response to civics' importance in US history (.361), indicating that the data points tended to be closer to the mean. The largest standard deviation occurred in responses pertaining to civics' importance in any class (.828), indicating a wider range of response values. Table 4.1 displays a summary of the analysis.

Table 4.1: Importance of Civics: Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Importance of Civics			
1. Civics is an important component of ANY class.	123	1.66	.828
2. Civics is an important component of ANY SOCIAL STUDIES class.	123	1.19	.431
3. Civics is an important component of ANY HISTORY class.	123	1.30	.600
4. Civics is an important component of US HISTORY classes.	123	1.13	.361
5. Civics is an important component of WORLD HISTORY classes.	123	1.37	.592

1=Strongly Agree   2=Agree   3=Neutral   4=Disagree   5=Strongly Disagree

Scale item frequency analysis.   Most of the participants believed civics is an important part of any class, with agreement percentages ranging from 88.6% (any class) to 99.2% (US history). 94.3% of respondents agreed or strongly agreed that civics was an important component of world history classes. Though this is a strong majority, it is the smallest percentage after *any class*, meaning *any social studies class*, *any history class*, and *US history* all showed more agreement by 2.5-4.9 percentage points. Table 4.2

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displays a summary of the analysis. Interestingly, teachers indicated they believe civics is important to any history class, but more people viewed civics neutrally in the context of world history, specifically. This difference implies civics is generally viewed as important in history in the abstract, but less important when considered specifically in terms of world history.

Table 4.2: Importance of Civics: Scale Item Frequency

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. Civics is an important component of ANY class.	51.2%	37.4%	5.7%	5.7%	0%
	88.6%			5.7%	
2. Civics is an important component of ANY SOCIAL STUDIES class.	82.9%	15.4%	1.6%	0%	0%
	98.3%			0%	
3. Civics is an important component of ANY HISTORY class.	74.8%	22%	2.4%	0%	0.8%
	96.8%			0.8%	
4. Civics is an important component of US HISTORY classes.	87.8%	11.4%	0.8%	0%	0%
	99.2%			0%	
5. Civics is an important component of WORLD HISTORY classes.	68.3%	26%	5.7%	0%	0%
	94.3%			0%	

Question Set 2: Global Citizenship Visions in Civic Education. Analysis of the third set of questions, Global Citizenship Visions in Civic Education (Q. 6a-e, 10a-e, 14a-e, 18a-e), followed the same process as the previous two question sets. However, these questions were based on a different Likert-scale, where participants rated each vision's civic education contribution according to level of importance (Extremely Important, Very Important, Moderately Important, Slightly Important, Not at All Important). Descriptive statistics and the frequency tables show respondents largely value all visions of global citizenship. However, when asked to prioritize associated forms of knowledge, skills,

dispositions, or experiences, respondents preferred WJGGC and CosGC—the two visions most aligned to the best practices for world history civic learning.

   Descriptive statistics. The means and standard deviations were calculated for these questions to determine participants' overall ratings of the different global citizenship visions. Using the self-developed conceptual framework (Appendix A: Table 3), these questions identified each visions' contribution to civic education per the four components: knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences.

   For these survey questions, the mean scores ranged from 1.41 (Q.6e: CosGC knowledge) to 2.61 (Q.14a: NeoGC dispositions), reflecting a scope of means between *extremely important* (1) and *moderately important* (3). The smallest standard deviation was in rating WJGGC knowledge (.560), indicating that the data points tended to be closer to the mean. The largest standard deviation was in rating NeoGC dispositions (.980), indicating a wider range of response values. Table 4.3 displays a summary of the analysis.

Table 4.3: Global Citizenship Visions in Civic Education: Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Neoliberal Global Citizenship (NeoGC)			
6a. Knowledge of the development of the global economy	122	1.68	.646
10a. Skills to be career-ready and compete in a global marketplace (e.g., reasoned judgments, evidence assessment)	123	1.58	.678
14a. Commitment to free market principles	123	2.61	.980
18a. Experiences participating in the global economy (e.g., buying products reflective of one's values)	123	2.31	.851
National Global Citizenship (NatGC)			
6b. Knowledge of the nation's place and influence in global systems	123	1.61	.648

Table 4.3 (continued)

10b. Skills to maintain and/or promote the nation's interests in global affairs (e.g., comparing and contrasting, evidence assessment)	123	1.76	.780
14b. Commitment to foster the nation's ideals and interests through global relationships	123	2.23	.913
18b. Experiences participating in national political/civic systems (e.g., mock congressional hearings)	123	2.02	.863
Marxist / Critical Global Citizenship (MCGC)			
6c. Knowledge of the cause and effects of inequity/unfairness within global political and economic structures	122	1.5	.633
10c. Skills to address inequity/unfairness in global systems (e.g., critical analysis, evidence-based argumentation)	123	1.59	.676
14c. Commitment to social responsibilities by challenging structures that perpetuate global inequality or inequity	123	1.80	.689
18c. Experiences challenging exploitive systems through advocating for social justice policy; (e.g., contacting stakeholders concerning international problems)	123	1.98	.779
World Justice and Governance Global Citizenship (WJGGC)			
6d. Knowledge of others in order to understand the need and establishment of international rights and responsibilities	123	1.44	.560
10d. Skills to foster democratic deliberation and address global problems through international cooperation (e.g., evidence-based argumentation, deliberation, discussion)	123	1.47	.605
14d. Commitment to cooperate with the international community to uphold universal human rights	123	1.47	.605
18d. Experiences participating in deliberative practices on global rights and responsibilities (e.g., Model UN, contacting stakeholders concerning international problems)	123	1.84	.729
Cosmopolitan Global Citizenship (CosGC)			
6e. Knowledge of sociocultural differences in order to foster an inclusive understanding of humanity	122	1.41	.557
10e. Skills to establish and foster global universal values (e.g., deliberation, discussion, listening)	122	1.54	.645
14e. Commitment to extend a universal ethic of rights and responsibilities to all people across difference	123	1.45	.630
18e. Experiences engaging with diverse people for cooperative social and/or political activities (e.g., engagement with different communities and perspectives)	121	1.60	.571

Table 4.3 (continued)
        1=Extremely Important   2=Very Important   3=Moderately Important

                4=Slightly Important   5=Not at All Important

Scale item frequency analysis. Ratings of each global citizenship visions'

contribution to knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences reflected some

variance. Though the majority of responses still put almost every global citizenship

visions' contribution as being extremely or very important, the questions' ratings

included several more "moderately important" responses. Findings reported in Table 4.4

are summarized below according to each global citizenship vision. Though there is

variance, the visions' contributions to civic education were all still largely highly rated.

     Neoliberal global citizenship (NeoGC). For the NeoGC vision, the associated

civic knowledge and civic skills were primarily rated as extremely or very important:

91.1% of respondents rated NeoGC civic knowledge, knowledge of the development of

the global economy, as extremely/very important. NeoGC civic skills, the skills to be

career-ready and compete in a global marketplace, were rated as such by 83.8% of

respondents. Ratings for NeoGC civic dispositions (Q. 14a), commitment to free market

principles, were the lowest among all the civic dispositions questions (Q. 14a-e) and the

lowest of all the questions overall. 40.6% of participants rated NeoGC civic dispositions

as extremely or very important, 45.5% finding it moderately important, and 13.9%

finding it slightly or not at all important. Though still highly rated, neoliberal civic

knowledge had the lowest extremely or very important rating (90.2%) of the different

global citizenship visions. Lastly, NeoGC civic experiences, experiences participating in

the global economy, received 62.6% of respondents believing it to be extremely/very important.

National global citizenship (NatGC). The majority of respondents rated each NatGC contribution to civic education as either extremely or very important. 91.1% of respondents rated NatGC civic knowledge, knowledge of the nation's place and influence in global systems, as extremely/very important. NatGC civic skills, skills to maintain and/or promote the nation's interests in global affairs, received extremely/very important ratings from 83.8% of respondents. 62.6% of respondents rated NatGC civic dispositions, commitment to foster the nation's ideals and interests through global relationships, as extremely/very important. Lastly, NatGC civic experiences, experiences participating in national political/civic systems, received extremely/very important ratings from 75.7% of respondents. Of the four civic education components, the most moderate ratings were for NatGC civic dispositions (Q.14b), where a third of respondents rated it as moderately important (30.9%). NatGC civic skills (Q.10b: 62.6%) and experiences (Q. 18b: 75.7%) had the least amount of respondents rate it extremely or very important across the five different visions.

Marxist/critical global citizenship (MCGC). The majority of respondents also rated the civic education contributions of the MCGC vision as being extremely or very important. MCGC knowledge, knowledge of the cause and effect of inequity/unfairness within global political and economic structures, was rated as extremely/very important by 92.6% of respondents. MCGC civic skills, skills to address inequity/unfairness in global systems, received extremely/very important ratings from 89.4% of respondents. 84.6% of respondents rated MCGC civic dispositions, commitment to social responsibilities by

challenging structures that perpetuate global inequality or inequity, as extremely/very important. Lastly, MCGC civic experiences, experiences challenging exploitive systems through advocating for social justice policy, had 77.2% of respondents find it extremely/very important. Of the four civic education components, civic experiences had the most moderate responses, wherein 19.5% of respondents rated MCGC civic experiences (Q.18c) as moderately important.

World justice and governance global citizenship (WJGGC). WJGGC civic education had the highest ratings of importance, second to CosGC. A majority of respondents rated the civic education contributions of WJGGC as being extremely or very important

WJGGC civic knowledge, knowledge of others in order to understand the need and establishment of international rights and responsibilities, was rated as extremely/very important by 96.7% of respondents. WJGGC civic skills, skills to foster democratic deliberation and address global problems through international cooperation, received extremely/very important ratings from 94.3% of respondents. 94.3% of respondents rated WJGGC civic dispositions, commitment to cooperate with the international community to uphold universal human rights, as extremely/very important. Lastly, WJGGC civic experiences, experiences participating in deliberative practices on global rights and responsibilities, had 82.2% of respondents find it extremely/very important. Across the five different visions, WJGGC civic skills and civic dispositions received the highest number of respondents finding it extremely or very important.

Cosmopolitan global citizenship (CosGC). This global citizenship vision received the highest ratings in terms of importance for world history. CosGC civic knowledge

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(Q.6e) and civic experiences (Q.18e) received the most extremely and very important ratings, with 96.7% and 95.8% of respondents rating them as such, respectively. CosGC civic knowledge is the knowledge of sociocultural differences in order to foster an inclusive understanding of humanity. CosGC civic experiences are experiences engaging with diverse people for cooperative social and/or political activities. CosGC civic skills, the skills to establish and foster global universal values, (Q.10e) and civic dispositions/attitudes (Q.14e), commitment to extend a universal ethic of rights and responsibilities to all people across difference, were also rated highly: civic skills (93.5%) and civic dispositions (92.7%).

Table 4.4: Global Citizenship Visions in Civic Education: Scale Item Frequency

	Extremely Important	Very Important	Moderately Important	Slightly Important	Not at All Important
Neoliberal Global Citizenship (NeoGC)					
6a. Knowledge of the development of the global economy	41.8%	48.4%	9.8%	0%	0%
	90.2%			0%	
10a. Skills to be career-ready and compete in a global marketplace (e.g., reasoned judgments, evidence assessment)	52%	39%	8.1%	0.8%	0%
	91%			0.8%	
14a. Commitment to free market principles	15.4%	25.2%	45.5%	10.6%	3.3%
	40.6%			13.9%	
18a. Experiences participating in the global economy (e.g., buying products reflective of one's values)	15.4%	47.2%	29.3%	7.3%	0.8%
	62.6%			7.3%	
National Global Citizenship (NatGC)					
6b. Knowledge of the nation's place and influence in global systems	48%	43.1%	8.9%	0%	0%
	91.1%			0%	
10b. Skills to maintain and/or promote the nation's interests in global affairs (e.g., comparing and contrasting, evidence assessment)	42.3%	41.5%	13.8%	2.4%	0%
	83.8%			2.4%	
14b. Commitment to foster the nation's ideals and interests through global relationships	22.8%	39.8%	30.9%	4.9%	1.6%
	62.6%			6.5%	
	28.5%	47.2%	18.7%	4.9%	0.8%

Table 4.4 (continued)

18b. Experiences participating in national political/civic systems (e.g., mock congressional hearings)	75.7%			5.7%	
Marxist / Critical Global Citizenship (MCGC)					
6c. Knowledge of the cause and effects of inequity/unfairness within global political and economic structures	57.4%	35.2%		0%	0%
	92.6%		7.4%	0%	
10c. Skills to address inequity/unfairness in global systems (e.g., critical analysis, evidence-based argumentation)	51.2%	38.2%		0%	0%
	89.4%		10.6%	0%	
14c. Commitment to social responsibilities by challenging structures that perpetuate global inequality or inequity	35.8%	48.8%		0%	0%
	84.6%		15.4%	0%	
18c. Experiences challenging exploitive systems through advocating for social justice policy; (e.g., contacting stakeholders concerning international problems)	27.6%	49.6%		3.3%	0%
	77.2%		19.5%	3.3%	
World Justice and Governance Global Citizenship (WJGGC)					
6d. Knowledge of others in order to understand the need and establishment of international rights and responsibilities	59.3%	37.4%		0%	0%
	96.7%		3.3%	0%	
10d. Skills to foster democratic deliberation and address global problems through international cooperation (e.g., evidence-based argumentation, deliberation, discussion)	58.5%	35.8%		0%	0%
	94.3%		5.7%	0%	
14d. Commitment to cooperate with the international community to uphold universal human rights	58.5%	35.8%		0%	0%
	94.3%		5.7%	0%	
18d. Experiences participating in deliberative practices on global rights and responsibilities (e.g., Model UN, contacting stakeholders concerning international problems)	35%	47.2%		0.8%	0%
	82.2%		17.1%	0.8%	
Cosmopolitan Global Citizenship (CosGC)					
6e. Knowledge of sociocultural differences in order to foster an inclusive understanding of humanity	62.3%	34.4%		0%	0%
	96.7%		3.3%	0%	
	53.3%	40.2%	5.7%	0.8%	0%

Table 4.4 (continued)

10e. Skills to establish and foster global universal values (e.g., deliberation, discussion, listening)	93.5%			0.8%	
14e. Commitment to extend a universal ethic of rights and responsibilities to all people across difference	62.6%	30.1%	7.3%	0%	0%
	92.7%			0%	
18e. Experiences engaging with diverse people for cooperative social and/or political activities (e.g., engagement with different communities and perspectives)	44.6%	51.2%	4.1%	0%	0%
	95.8%			0%	

In Table 4.5, I identify which global citizenship vision's contribution to civic education received the most and least number of extremely or very important ratings.

Table 4.5: Global Citizenship Component: Extremely/Very Important Rating Frequency

	Neoliberal	National	Marxist/ Critical	World Justice & Governance	Cosmo-politan
Most Extremely/ Very Important Ratings: Knowledge				X	X*
Most Extremely/ Very Important Ratings: Skills				X	
Most Extremely/ Very Important Ratings: Dispositions				X	
Most Extremely/ Very Important Ratings: Experiences					X
Least Extremely/ Very Important Ratings: Knowledge	X				
Least Extremely/ Very Important Ratings: Skills		X			
Least Extremely/ Very Important Ratings: Dispositions	X				
Least Extremely/ Very Important Ratings: Experiences		X			

Table 4.5 (continued)

*World justice and governance and cosmopolitan global citizenship knowledge received the same cumulative extremely/important scores, but cosmopolitan received more "extremely important" ratings.

In order to create a cumulative score of the global citizenship visions, Importance

Scores were calculated by adding the strong importance and weak importance

percentages for each vision. This calculation quantifies strong importance responses

(*Extremely Important, Very Important*) and weak importance responses (*Slightly*

Important, *Not at all Important*). The Importance Scores show that respondents rated

CosGC the highest Strong Importance, while NeoGC had the smallest Strong Importance.

Table 4.6 displays the calculated scores.

Table 4.6: Global Citizenship Component: Importance Scores

	Strong Importance Score	Weak Importance Score
Neoliberal	284.4	22
National	313.2	14.6
Marxist / Critical	343.8	3.3
World Justice & Governance	367.6	0.8
Cosmopolitan	378.7	0.8

The Global Citizenship Visions table (Table 4.4) shows the extent to which

participants found each component important. The survey also included a multiple-choice

question after each question series (Q. 7, 11, 15, 19), which asked participants to choose

the most important of the five global citizenship visions' contributions. The global

citizenship vision most frequently chosen across the questions was CosGC, which was

chosen most frequently for civic knowledge (Q.7: 35%), dispositions (Q.15: 46.7%), and

experiences (Q.19: 42.6%). The majority of respondents chose WJGGC civic skills

(Q.11: 55.8%) as the most important skills. NatGC was chosen least frequently for civic

knowledge (Q.7: 8.9%) and civic skills (Q.11: 2.5%). NeoGC was chosen least frequently

for civic dispositions (Q.15: 1.6%) and civic experiences (Q.19: 5.7%). Table 4.7 below

presents the responses chosen most and least frequently and are highlighted accordingly.

Table 4.7: Most Important Global Citizenship Component: Scale Item Frequency

	Neoliberal	National	Marxist/ Critical	World Justice & Governance	Cosmo-politan
Which of the following best reflects the most important…					
7. Civic Knowledge	12.2%	8.9%	19.5%	24.4%	35%
11. Civic Skills	17.5%	2.5%	12.5%	55.8%	11.7%
15. Civic Dispositions / Attitudes	1.6%	8.2%	22.1%	21.3%	46.7%
19. Civic Experiences	5.7%	16.4%	18.9%	16.4%	42.6%

Indicated as most important MOST frequently
Indicated as most important LEAST frequently

Question Set 3: Curriculum Planning. The process described above was also

applied to the Curriculum Planning questions, which were the last two questions in

Sections 2-5 (Q. 8-9, 12-13, 16-17, and 20-21). These questions asked participants to use

the same five-item Likert-scale (*Strongly Agree* to *Strongly Disagree*) to rate how their

curriculum planning considered the ways in which content reflected the respective civic

education component (knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, experience). Descriptive

statistics and frequency tables revealed the majority of teachers indicated they plan

curriculum in consideration of civic education.

Descriptive statistics. For this set of survey questions, the mean scores ranged

from 1.87 (Q. 17: World History, Dispositions) to 2.02 (Q. 21: World History,

Experiences), situating the respective means around *agree* (2), with little mean variation

between the eight questions. The largest standard deviation occurred in responses

pertaining to consideration of civic experiences in world history (Q. 21; SD = .746),

indicating a wider range of responses pertaining to participants' consideration of civic

experiences when planning world history curriculum. Table 4.8 displays a summary of

the analysis.

Table 4.8: Curriculum Planning: Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Knowledge			
8. When I plan ANY curriculum, I consider the ways in which the content reflects necessary CIVIC KNOWLEDGE.	123	1.97	.712
9. When I plan WORLD HISTORY curriculum, I consider the ways in which the content reflects necessary CIVIC KNOWLEDGE.	123	1.93	.744
Skills			
12. When I plan ANY curriculum, I consider the ways in which the content reflects necessary CIVIC SKILLS.	123	1.92	.697
13. When I plan WORLD HISTORY curriculum, I consider the ways in which the content reflects necessary CIVIC SKILLS.	123	1.91	.713
Dispositions / Attitudes			
16. When I plan ANY curriculum, I consider the ways in which the content reflects necessary CIVIC DISPOSITIONS/ATTITUDES.	123	1.98	.724
17. When I plan WORLD HISTORY curriculum, I consider the ways in which the content reflects necessary CIVIC DISPOSITIONS/ATTITUDES.	123	1.87	.665
Experiences			
20. When I plan ANY curriculum, I consider the ways in which the content reflects necessary CIVIC EXPERIENCES.	123	1.98	.665
21. When I plan WORLD HISTORY curriculum, I consider the ways in which the content reflects necessary CIVIC EXPERIENCES.	123	2.02	.746

1=Strongly Agree   2=Agree   3=Neutral   4=Disagree   5=Strongly Disagree

Scale item frequency analysis. Most of the participants across the data indicated they considered the components of civic education when they plan curriculum. Of the four components—knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences—civic dispositions/attitudes were identified as the component most considered in curriculum planning (Q. 17: 85.4%). The strongest disagreement of the four components was planning civic knowledge for any curriculum (Q. 8: 4.1%). However, all the disagreement responses were less than 5% of total responses, showing a large agreement in considering civic education when planning for world history and/or other curriculum. See Table 4.9 below for the frequency table.

Table 4.9: Curriculum Planning: Scale Item Frequency

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
KNOWLEDGE					
8. When I plan ANY curriculum, I consider the ways in which the content reflects necessary CIVIC KNOWLEDGE.	22.8%	61.8%	11.4%	4.1%	0%
	84.6%			4.1%	
9. When I plan WORLD HISTORY curriculum, I consider the ways in which the content reflects necessary CIVIC KNOWLEDGE.	27.6%	54.5%	14.6%	3.3%	0%
	82.1%			3.3%	
SKILLS					
12. When I plan ANY curriculum, I consider the ways in which the content reflects necessary CIVIC SKILLS.	26%	58.5%	13%	2.4%	0%
	84.5%			2.4%	
13. When I plan WORLD HISTORY curriculum, I consider the ways in which the content reflects necessary CIVIC SKILLS.	26.8%	58.5%	11.4%	3.3%	0%
	85.3%			3.3%	
DISPOSITIONS / ATTTITUDES					
16. When I plan ANY curriculum, I consider the ways in which the content reflects necessary CIVIC DISPOSITIONS/ATTITUDES.	23.6%	57.7%	15.4%	3.3%	0%
	81.3%			3.3%	
17. When I plan WORLD HISTORY curriculum, I consider the ways in which the content reflects necessary CIVIC DISPOSITIONS/ATTITUDES.	28.5%	56.9%	13.8%	0.8%	0%
	85.4%			0.8%	
EXPERIENCES					
	21.1%	61%	16.3%	1.6%	0%

Table 4.9 (continued)

Statement					
20. When I plan ANY curriculum, I consider the ways in which the content reflects necessary CIVIC EXPERIENCES.	82.1%			1.6%	
21. When I plan WORLD HISTORY curriculum, I consider the ways in which the content reflects necessary CIVIC EXPERIENCES.	23.6%	54.5%	18.7%	3.3%	0%
	78.1%		18.7%	3.3%	

Summary. Survey data revealed strong support for civic learning in world history education. Just as scholars believe civic learning is a primary purpose of education, (e.g., Parker, 2003) descriptive statistics revealed the majority of respondents believe civic education is important across subjects, with little variance. Likewise, the survey reveals world history teachers prioritize cosmopolitan understandings of global citizenship, while deprioritizing neoliberal and national global citizenship—the two most common forms (Gaudelli, 2009). Accordingly, this finding shows the world history teachers are standing in opposition to dominant trends in education practice, instead more aligned with education scholarship, which elevates inclusive civic understandings, such as CosGC (Gaudelli, 2013; Nussbaum, 2010). Finally, the last finding showed respondents indicated they plan in consideration of the ways their curriculum reflects civic education components (knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences). As instructional goals impact curricular decisions (Darling-Hammond, et.al., 2005), this finding suggests an ideological alignment between teachers' and disciplinary goals of world history.

Survey Comments

In order to triangulate and enrich the study's data, data analysis also included participants' comments made in each question's optional "explain" text field. Collectively, these text fields produced 243 comments. The number of comments per question is noted below (see Table 4.10, shaded boxes represent category totals).

Comments helped inform interpretation of survey data, but were not a prioritized data strand (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Discussed below are the comments, which were reviewed and coded for emergent themes. Findings are presented below to mirror the survey organization: Importance of Civics, Global Citizenship Visions in Civic Education, Choosing the Most Important Global Citizenship, Curriculum Planning, and Overall Comments.

Table 4.10: Comment Frequency Table

	TOTAL COMMENTS
IMPORTANCE OF CIVICS	86
1. Civics is an important component of ANY class.	30
2. Civics is an important component of ANY SOCIAL STUDIES class.	19
3. Civics is an important component of ANY HISTORY class.	12
4. Civics is an important component of US HISTORY classes.	11
5. Civics is an important component of WORLD HISTORY classes.	14
GLOBAL CITIZENSHIP VISIONS	91
Neoliberal Global Citizenship (NeoGC)	24
6a. Knowledge of the development of the global economy	9
10a. Skills to be career-ready and compete in a global marketplace (e.g., reasoned judgments, evidence assessment)	5
14a. Commitment to free market principles	7
18a. Experiences participating in the global economy (e.g., buying products reflective of one's values)	3
National Global Citizenship (NatGC)	17
6b. Knowledge of the nation's place and influence in global systems	6
10b. Skills to maintain and/or promote the nation's interests in global affairs (e.g., comparing and contrasting, evidence assessment)	2
14b. Commitment to foster the nation's ideals and interests through global relationships	7
18b. Experiences participating in national political/civic systems (e.g., mock congressional hearings)	2
Marxist / Critical Global Citizenship (MCGC)	17
6c. Knowledge of the cause and effects of inequity/unfairness within global political and economic structures	8

Table 4.10 (continued)

10c. Skills to address inequity/unfairness in global systems (e.g., critical analysis, evidence-based argumentation)	4
14c. Commitment to social responsibilities by challenging structures that perpetuate global inequality or inequity	3
18c. Experiences challenging exploitive systems through advocating for social justice policy; (e.g., contacting stakeholders concerning international problems)	2
World Justice and Governance Global Citizenship (WJGGC)	16
6d. Knowledge of others in order to understand the need and establishment of international rights and responsibilities	6
10d. Skills to foster democratic deliberation and address global problems through international cooperation (e.g., evidence-based argumentation, deliberation, discussion)	5
14d. Commitment to cooperate with the international community to uphold universal human rights	3
18d. Experiences participating in deliberative practices on global rights and responsibilities (e.g., Model UN, contacting stakeholders concerning international problems)	2
Cosmopolitan Global Citizenship (CosGC)	17
6e. Knowledge of sociocultural differences in order to foster an inclusive understanding of humanity	5
10e. Skills to establish and foster global universal values (e.g., deliberation, discussion, listening)	7
14e. Commitment to extend a universal ethic of rights and responsibilities to all people across difference	2
18e. Experiences engaging with diverse people for cooperative social and/or political activities (e.g., engagement with different communities and perspectives)	3
MOST IMPORTANT GLOBAL CITIZENSHIP	29
7. Civic Knowledge	12
11. Civic Skills	10
15. Civic Dispositions / Attitudes	4
19. Civic Experiences	3
CURRICULUM PLANNING	31
Knowledge	17
8. When I plan ANY curriculum, I consider the ways in which the content reflects necessary CIVIC KNOWLEDGE.	7
9. When I plan WORLD HISTORY curriculum, I consider the ways in which the content reflects necessary CIVIC KNOWLEDGE.	10
Skills	8
12. When I plan ANY curriculum, I consider the ways in which the content reflects necessary CIVIC SKILLS.	4
13. When I plan WORLD HISTORY curriculum, I consider the ways in which the content reflects necessary CIVIC SKILLS.	4

Dispositions / Attitudes	3
16. When I plan ANY curriculum, I consider the ways in which the content reflects necessary CIVIC DISPOSITIONS/ATTITUDES.	1
17. When I plan WORLD HISTORY curriculum, I consider the ways in which the content reflects necessary CIVIC DISPOSITIONS/ATTITUDES.	2
Experiences	3
20. When I plan ANY curriculum, I consider the ways in which the content reflects necessary CIVIC EXPERIENCES.	1
21. When I plan WORLD HISTORY curriculum, I consider the ways in which the content reflects necessary CIVIC EXPERIENCES.	2
22. Additional Comments	6
TOTAL COMMENTS	243

The question number and respondents' ratings follow each quote or reference, where applicable. The following rating abbreviations are used: Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neutral (N), Disagree (D), Strongly Disagree (SD), Extremely Important (EI), Very Important (VI), Moderately Important (MI), Slightly Important (SI), and Not at All Important (NI). When two numbers are listed, this indicates that the respondent used the same response on multiple questions. Question 22 asked for additional comments, and thus, did not have an associated rating. Most respondent commentary occurred at the beginning of the survey, possibly reflecting a response fatigue (Nardi, 2006). This provided richer data for understanding earlier questions than those later in the survey. This discrepancy was taken into account when analyzing the data.

The importance of civics. Common among responses for this question set was connecting the importance of civics to living in a democratic republic, such as informed decision-making, civic participation, and engagement. Civics was referred to as "the most socially relevant outcome for a student" (Q.1, SA). "Civic participation should be applied to any learning environment in order to promote college, career, and civic mindedness"

(Q.1, SA). Education's goal is to "help students understand the social world….to use that

knowledge to make sound decisions as members of our democratic republic" (Q.2, SA).

Participants noted civic education builds students' preparation for their lives as

democratic citizens.

Variances of how respondents described civics' importance often reflected class

contexts. One respondent said, "the emphasis on civics will be different for certain

subjects" (Q.2, D). For example, the first question asked about the importance of civics in

any class. Comments from those who disagreed, all referenced math and science as

subjects within which civics does "not necessarily play a role…" (Q.1, D) or is "not…an

easy fit" (Q.1, N). Social studies classes were frequently listed as an ideal civic space.

"Social studies classes provide the perfect place to introduce civics related curriculum

that connects to the course content" (Q.2, A). Within social studies, particularly between

the different histories, respondents qualified civics' importance. Whereas one respondent

said there "should be no differentiation between the type of history class" (Q.5, SA),

others believed the type of history class was important, stating civics in world history is

"not as important as US history" (Q.5, A). World history civics was also described as a

means to situate national civics because it allows a "means of comparison" with the

United States (Q.5, A). Complementing the survey quantitative data, these survey

comments further showed how world history teachers see civic education as important,

but nonetheless relative to the subject area.

Global citizenship visions in civic education. Generally speaking, though the

global citizenship visions were each viewed as important by the majority of respondents,

their explanations further illuminated variance as to educators' perspectives and

integration of civics into the classroom. Each vision is presented below with consideration of each form's contribution to civic education (i.e., knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences).

Neoliberal global citizenship (NeoGC). In total, NeoGC produced 24 comments. Respondents' descriptions of NeoGC showed general support of the visions' importance in world history. Several respondents believed understanding free-market principles, the NeoGC civic knowledge example, to be important but qualified it in the explain field to say that, "students should not be forced into a certain point of view" (Q.14a, A). As "we are increasingly affected by the global economy" (Q.6a, SA), it is important to understand the growth of the global economy's impact in this political climate (Q.6a, A) and "understand the relation between economic issues and foreign/domestic relations and issues" (Q.6a, A). By the same token, teachers noted NeoGC helps position the United States and reinforce its hegemony. One respondent, in indicating NeoGC's importance, stated, "Students are less knowledgeable of other nations [sic] status, economy, and their connectedness. Other nations are much more globally aware" (Q.6a, A). Teachers acknowledged NeoGC knowledge would, thus, make the U.S. more competitive with other nations' students.

However, responses indicated limits to NeoGC dispositional commitments—a commitment to free market principles. Though strongly agreeing on the NeoGC civic disposition, one respondent qualified their answer in that, "commitment to [free market principles] is indoctrination, not civic education" (Q.14a, SA). "Global citizens should have a working familiarity with this and other topics. They need not be Adam Smith or Jeremy Bentham" (Q.6a, SA). This, and similar qualifications, indicated teachers saw

NeoGC as important overall, but as a part of larger understandings, rather than a dominant theme.

Time and integration of NeoGC experiences received several comments. NeoGC experiences are opportunities to participate in the global economy. "I think there is very little opportunity to teach in experiential ways…This is a challenge that has a lot to do with time, testing and community standards, not necessarily teacher intent" (Q.18a, A). NeoGC civic experiences are "almost entirely outside of class" (Q.18a, SA), though students, "need more experiences with this in an education setting" (Q.18a, A). Holistically, teachers support this global citizenship vision, but their comments lack the enthusiasm of the other global citizenship visions, as will be discussed in subsequent responses. This enriches data results from the quantitative portion of the survey. Though NeoGC had lower ratings, respondents still largely supported its contributions to global citizenship. However, comments provide insights into the lower ratings and, likewise, suggest tempered support by those who did rate it highly.

National global citizenship (NatGC). NatGC had 17 comments. Comments concerning NatGC ranged from emphasis on its importance in positioning the nation within global systems, to it possibly impeding on world history. Respondents believed NatGC civic knowledge, knowledge of the nation's place and influence in global systems, can facilitate deeper global understandings. When looking at topics where the United States has a strong role in world affairs, students need to consider "the role of American foreign policy" (Q.6b, A). "Much like the global economy, the US interest in global affairs has a basis, and students should understand this to make educated voting decisions" (Q.6b, A) and to "understand the US's influence in foreign policies such as

NAFTA, TPP, Iran Nuclear Arms Deal…" (Q.6b, A). NatGC can position the nation within larger global processes, encouraging students' global understandings.

However, several comments indicated the limits of NatGC. For example, in terms of NatGC dispositions, commitment to foster the nation's ideas and interests through global relationships, one respondent stated, "while a student's home country is important, we must be careful to not discredit other countries ideals" (Q.14b, SA). Further elaborating on the point, another respondent stated, "the concepts of us/them and we before anyone else is selfish and harmful to all" (Q.14b, D). NatGC civic knowledge "is not going to be something everyone has the ability / need to know in-depth" (Q.6b, SA). One respondent agreed with the importance of NatGC civic knowledge, but qualified it by indicating, "students who write about the US too much on the [state mandated] world history test essays can get failing grades" (Q.6b, A). Though one respondent agreed with the importance of NatGC civic dispositions/attitudes, they stated, "this just isn't what we teach in world history" (Q.14b, A). NatGC's role is acknowledged as contributing to students' civic competencies, but teachers contextualize its role carefully—it is a part of, but not a substitute for, civic education in world history.

Marxist /critical global citizenship (MCGC). MCGC had 17 total comments. Overall comments for MCGC showed support but several also remarked on the challenges embedded within this form of global citizenship.[4] These teachers' comments connect the importance of civic action with MCGC civic education. In terms of MCGC's emphasis on equity and fairness, several respondents indicated the importance of integrating such civic education components. "People need to…know when people are

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[4] It is important to reiterate, these questions were not labeled as Marxist, which otherwise may have impacted responses.

not being treated fairly" (Q.10c, A). Consequently, "equity will only be achieved when people stand up and do something about it" (Q.6c, SA). "As American citizens we have the resources to address problems other countries may not" (Q.14c, SA). Teachers' comments emphasize unfairness should be met with action to address and rectify disparities.

The potential controversial nature of action regarding equity and fairness was also a common thread throughout comments. "Inequity/unfairness seems to make a judgment about economic structures that some people could argue is biased and should not be taught" (Q.6c, SA). A couple respondents challenged the MCGC skills, skills to address inequity/unfairness in global systems, in that they believe others would "argue we don't need to address inequity/unfairness" (Q.10c, SA). MCGC experiences, experiences challenging exploitive systems, are important, "but hard to follow through on…lots of trepidation in schools (mine, anyways) with allowing students to 'get political'" (Q.18c, A). In history classes specifically, MCGC's focus on justice was emphasized as helping students connect the past and present. "Being able to see injustice taking place in history helps students see it taking place today" (Q.6c, A). Towards the study of history itself, a respondent stated MCGC dispositions, commitments to social responsibilities by challenging structures that perpetuate global inequality or inequity, can address how historiographies are structured, thereby, "challeng[ing] the inherently unequal 'norms' of history" (Q.14c, A). Another indicated, however, "some theories of history and teaching can only 'see' [MCGC] civic knowledge. There is more to life and history than unfairness" (Q.6c, A). These comments suggest limitations to MCGC manifesting in world history explicitly, as issues of unfairness were perceived as being too politically

charged, as well as insufficient alone to make meaningful civic connections to world history.

   World justice and governance global citizenship (WJGGC). In total, WJGGC produced 16 comments. Respondents' comments on WJGGC revolved around believing this form of global citizenship generally promotes global understandings needed for international relationships. WJGGC civic skills, skills to foster democratic deliberation and address global problems through international cooperation, are "key! We've lost this ability in our country" (Q.6d, SA). "People need to be able to have conversations with people who have differing opinions from them" (Q.10d, A). "As we learn about the world and our interconnectedness, students see how colonies, spheres of influence, and alliances impact the role countries play with each other and when countries step in to help each other or take military action" (Q.6d, A). In terms of the WJGGC civic disposition, a commitment to cooperate with the international community to uphold universal human rights, another respondent said, "the US need to stop being bullish" (Q.14d, SA). Teachers expressed placing a high value on WJGGC's diplomatic slant for world history. In terms of the United Nations specifically, which frames this global citizenship vision,[5] teachers indicated use of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. "I choose to organize a lot of my course around the question of human rights, and how we fall into patterns as societies of both advancing and denigrating the ideals. We read the UDHR day one, and use it as a 'touchstone' throughout the course" (Q.14d, A). WJGGC's framing of citizenship on global relationships, thus, was perceived positively in comments.

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[5] Notably, the United Nations is only referenced explicitly in terms of the Model UN as a potential civic experience; Q.18d.

Cosmopolitan global citizenship (CosGC). CosGC had 17 comments on the survey. Though one respondent questioned the premise of a CosGC ethic— "is there such a thing as global universal values?" (Q.10e, A)—several survey respondents commented on the importance of this global citizenship vision's emphasis on global responsibilities and engaging with difference. Though one response indicated, "I'm not certain it is our responsibility to influence the rest of the world" (Q.10e, SA), the United States' global responsibilities were mentioned. "We must champion human rights. We must be 'the good guys' and stand up for what is morally right. We are AMERICANS" (Q.14e, SA). CosGC civic knowledge, knowledge of sociocultural differences in order to foster an inclusive understanding of humanity, was deemed particularly important "especially now with our current administration" (Q.6e, SA). The implication being that the current political climate has not adequately fostered commitments to global responsibilities.

Engaging with difference, the CosGC civic experience example, received high praise across the comments. One comment simply said, "YES!" (Q.18e, A). "One of the most important things we do in World History is providing a glimpse of how we are so similar in spite of our many differences" (Q.6e, A). Students need exposure to different ideas (Q.18e, SA), in order to foster understanding and empathy. "A sense of empathy for our fellow humans is what will save us all" (Q.6e, A). Indeed, many respondents were emphatic in their support of CosGC's components reinforcing CosGC's version of civic education as highly valued by world history teachers.

Choosing the most important global citizenship. When asked to select the most important global citizenship vision's contribution to civic education knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences, several respondents added justifications for their

selections. These questions had 29 total comments. Though every form of global

citizenship knowledge received high importance ratings, survey explanations provided

some nuance to their responses, which further speak to the prioritization of WJGGC and

CosGC. While comments associated with WJGGC and CosGC were emphatic in their

support, for the other three forms—NeoGC, NatGC, and MCGC—respondents'

comments are less so. Instead, there were more justifications and/or qualifications about

these civic education visions, expressing support with reservations. This inference also

reflects the overall ratings in the survey questions, where NeoGC, NatGC, and MCGC

had lower ratings.

Below, respondent explanations are discussed. As previously noted, comments for

each question lessened as the survey progressed, leading to more robust comments for

knowledge (Q.7) and skills (Q.11) than dispositions (Q.15) or experiences (Q.19). This

response rate is possibly the result of survey fatigue (Nardi, 2006), impacting data

findings. However, it may also reflect emphasis on knowledge and skills for civic

learning. This topic will be elaborated upon in the discussion chapter.

Knowledge. This question had 12 comments. Comments connected to NeoGC,

knowledge of the development of the global economy, affirmed participants' choice for

the most important civic knowledge by explaining how integral economic systems are to

history. For example: "Economic development and interactions serve as the basis for

many of the other interactions throughout world history, including other concepts listed"

(Q.7, NeoGC). Several respondents used the explain survey field to qualify their choices.

For example, one participant noted that they "would have chosen knowledge of the

development and demise of liberal democratic regimes" (Q.7, NatGC), as the most important civic knowledge.

Most of those who provided comments chose MCGC civic knowledge, knowledge of the cause and effect of inequity/unfairness within global political and economic structures, as the most important (5 of the 13 comments). All comments for this form of global citizenship qualified rather than simply reaffirmed their choice. For example, one respondent discussed seeing the MCGC and CosGC responses as two sides of the same coin in that, "it's difficult to choose between inequity and sociocultural differences….foster[ing] inclusive humanity despite sociocultural differences impacts how [students] are able to see and understand inequity in political and economic systems" (Q.7, MCGC). Another respondent believed MCGC had a negative connotation, making it difficult for them to choose between NatGC and MCGC (Q.7, MCGC). These responses indicate the ways teachers may grapple with identifying and teaching for civic knowledge, particularly MCGC.

Skills. This question had 10 comments. For this question, survey respondents had to choose the most important civic skill for world history. Every comment qualified their choice, explaining that they also valued other possible choices. In fact, three of the commentators did not respond to the multiple-choice question, stating some variation of, "those are all important. I cannot select just one" in the explain field (Q. 11, NONE). "You really need to have all those skills for each one," said another participant (Q.11, NONE). "I believe all of these to be equally important," said one respondent. They chose WJGGC, skills to foster democratic deliberation and address global problems through international cooperation, because they believe schools need more argumentation,

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deliberation, and discussion, "applied everywhere" (Q.11, WJGGC). In order to "address issues of inequity," referring to the MCGC civic skills, skills to address inequity/unfairness in global systems, students need to be prepared to "interact in a global system" (Q.11, NeoGC). Accordingly, teacher respondents saw civic skills as interrelated to one another, making the skills difficult to parse out or rate more or less highly.

Dispositions/Attitudes. This question had 4 comments. As in comments related to civic skills, the comments for civic dispositions noted the questions' options are interrelated. The disposition answer choices are "all equal" according to one respondent (Q.15, NONE). To another respondent, teaching world history must reflect "a growth mindset," implying the dispositions will evolve (Q.15, MCGC). Possibly speaking to the difficulty in choosing, one respondent simply stated, "I really don't know, do you?" (Q.15, CosGC). These responses suggest a holistic view of dispositions/attitudes, encompassing several different ideas rather than clearly focused on, or privileging, one.

Experiences. This question had 3 comments. When forced to choose the most important form of civic experiences, much as with the previous components, comments served to qualify choices. "Again all [are] important," stated one respondent (Q.19, NatGC). "I think all these opportunities you've listed are excellent for students' education" (Q.19, NeoGC). Similarly to dispositions/attitudes, responses indicated teachers perceived many different forms of civic education experiences to be valuable.

Curriculum planning. Curriculum planning questions produced 31 total comments. Comments related to curriculum planning for civics revolved around three primary themes: opportunity, intentionally planning for civics, and limitations posed by testing and state standards.

Many teachers indicated they integrated civics into their curriculum and instruction at "every opportunity" or "whenever possible" (Q.8, SA). Opportunities were often qualified in terms of current events. "I do this when it fits with the curriculum I teach. I generally incorporate current events when I can to make those connections" (Q.16, 17, SA). Another respondent indicated they connect the "curricular threads to 'real life' civic questions" (Q.9, A). Without connecting civics to world history, one respondent said, "specific world events cannot be explained" (Q.9, SA). Planning for civic education is accordingly impacted by perceived connections between present and past circumstances.

Despite most respondents agreeing that they plan for civic education in their classes, their explanations qualified survey responses by noting it was not necessarily a conscious decision in planning, or it came up organically in the class and, thus, was not necessarily pre-planned. "I don't think I plan [for civics] but civics frequently arises in classroom discussions and examples" (Q.9, A). Considering civic skills occurs "throughout the course of a topic but not always done on a daily basis" (Q.12, SA). Several indicated they do not "consciously" or "cognizantly" think about civic knowledge or skills (Q.9, A; Q.12, A). "I believe we should do this more; I am just aware of the lack of such planning" (Q.9, SA). "I don't think I make cognizant plans to include civics in my history lesson plans, particularly when on my own. When collaborating I think it comes up more often" (Q.8, A). Several respondents, particularly for civic skills, noted civic education is already integrated within their class, but do not intentionally consider it as civic education; rather, "they are just social studies skills/historical thinking

skills" (Q.13, A). Thus, responses indicated civics is often implicitly woven throughout teachers' curriculum and instruction, rather than a purpose driving decision-making.

Several survey respondents indicated state standards or mandated tests limited integrating civics to the extent that they would like. Though several agreed that civics was considered when planning world history curriculum, "we have state standards that drive our curriculum planning" (Q.9, SA). By the same token, another teacher thought many social studies teachers "believe that the content IS the curriculum," leaving little space to deliberately integrate civic education competencies (Q.12, A). "Content knowledge as shown by test scores is the push rather than a civic minded student," said one respondent in response to several questions (Q.9, 12, 13, SA). Incorporating civic knowledge was contingent on if the, "course [is] aimed at the state test, or a course I design myself" (Q.9, A). Though all agreed on considering civic education when planning curriculum, such explanations express limitations in civics' classroom manifestations.

Overall comments. In the "Additional Comments" field, survey respondents contextualized themes presented throughout the data. Presented here are three notable insights from survey respondents, speaking to: the implicitness of civic education teaching, limitations, and potential opportunities, respectively. One respondent showed the implicitness of civic education in their classroom: "I have been teaching high school world history for 15 years, along with some social studies electives. I have only occasionally thought about civics, and then only in my elective classes, where I have more time and fewer constraints" (Q.22). Testing and mandated curriculum present limitations. "Incorporating meaningful global civic experiences can be difficult with the

pressures of mandated curriculum and assessment, but I do my best to incorporate as many aspects of global civics into the daily work of my courses" (Q.22). Though hurdles exist, the C3 Framework was noted as having the potential to "bring the civic lens into the planning for any course – how does it matter for me? How can I take informed action?" (Q.22). These three quotes suggest teachers see situational factors hindering world history and civic education's relationship in classrooms, as well as potential ways to illuminate opportunities for civic learning.

Summary. Respondent explanations on the survey added nuance and additional context to their ratings. Explanations reaffirmed the importance many educators place on civic learning and its various manifestations. However, they also provided information concerning practical limitations, including mandated teaching requirements (e.g., standards, testing) and the intentional consideration of civics when planning curriculum.

Survey comments also further elaborated upon how respondents viewed the different forms of global citizenship. As the many versions of global citizenship knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences were rated favorably by the majority of survey respondents, survey explanations showed shades of gray to their ratings, as well as how the different versions were perceived to be in conversation with one another.

Summary of the Quantitative Findings

Using survey question data, complemented by data from comment fields, three primary findings emerge from the survey: (1) the majority of respondents indicated that civics is an important component of all classes, including world history; (2) though all forms of global citizenship were rated highly, world justice and governance (WJGGC)

and cosmopolitan (CosGC) were rated the most highly, while neoliberal (NeoGC) and national (NatGC) were rated less favorably; (3) The majority of respondents also indicated that they consider the different components of civic education (knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, experiences) when they plan curriculum.

These findings align with best practices of world history civic learning. First, scholars have long advocated on behalf of schooling's purpose towards preparing young people for civic life (Castro & Knowles, 2017; Dewey, 1916), notably the importance of history education towards those ends (McNeill, 1985; Stearns, 2007). Survey results show participants are in agreement concerning the civic objective of world history. Second, though NeoGC and NatGC may be the most common forms of global citizenship in education (e.g., Bryan, 2014; Gaudelli, 2013; Nussbaum, 2010), scholars frequently advocate for cosmopolitan or critical civic stances (e.g., Appiah, 2006; Nussbaum, 2002).

Findings show teachers report that they valued civic knowledge that fosters inclusive understandings; civic skills that foster democratic deliberation and international cooperation to address global problems; civic dispositions/attitudes to engage students with questions about the responsibilities in serving the global community's needs; and civic experiences emphasizing engagement with diverse people for cooperative and/or political activities. Accordingly, these survey findings show the world history teacher participants report that they prioritize a vision of global citizenship aligning with best practices in world history civic learning.

Third, best practice in civic education requires educators provide civic learning opportunities that include the knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences for students to participate in civic life (Campbell, 2004). Teacher respondents indicated

they consider these four components of civic education when planning their curriculum. Thus, the survey findings suggest world history teachers integrate the different components of civic learning in their decision-making for world history.

Qualitative Findings

Introduction

In the second phase of this mixed methods study, qualitative data was collected in order to examine how teachers describe civic education's role in world history. Qualitative data, in combination with the quantitative data, produced a richer understanding of the research question: how do teachers describe civic education's role in world history? The complementary supporting research questions are: How do teachers conceptualize civics within world history?; How do their conceptualizations reflect the civic education components?; and How do teachers' conceptualizations reflect different forms of global citizenship?

Using data from eight interviews with world history teachers—Ms. Carrell, Ms. Lee, Ms. Compton, Mr. Ronald, Mr. Weiss, Mr. Tillery, Ms. Higgens, and Ms. Newson[6]—the qualitative strand was designed to better contextualize results from the quantitative research strand. This section presents the results of the qualitative data collection. Mirroring the question sets and findings from the survey research, the interview findings are grouped as follows: (1) Teachers believe civic learning helps students understand and connect to world history; and (2) Teachers value forms of civic knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences aligned with the definition of best practices in world history civics. Findings 3 and 4 reflect the challenges hindering

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[6] Researcher-selected pseudonyms.

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integration of civics while planning curriculum and instruction for world history: (3) structural challenges limit civics in world history, including the perceived time pressures and focus on high-stakes testing; and (4) integration of civics was often implicit, rather than an explicit purpose driving course planning. Results are discussed below, organized by the four primary findings and key themes associated with each finding.

Finding 1: Civic Learning Helps Students Understand and Connect to World History

Teachers' discussions of civic education within world history indicated they see a mutually beneficial relationship between world history and civic education learning. Barton & Levstik (2009) believe that as members of a pluralist democratic society, both national and global, students need to have the conceptual tools to apply learning to modern contexts and to use learning for informed decision-making that seeks to promote the common good. Through this process, history prepares students to be informed, active members in a global, pluralist democracy. Participants' responses reflect the tenor of Barton & Levstik's work. Teachers' discussions of using historical and civic thinking as conceptual tools throughout their curriculum speaks to participants conceptualizing world history civics as the vehicle for fostering global civic competencies (Girard & Harris, 2014).

I have divided discussion of Finding 1 into two main parts. First, I discuss how teachers believed civic concepts help students better understand events in world history. I have organized this sub-finding into two ways teachers discussed civics' contribution to understanding world history, using phrases from the interviews: it helps illuminate the ways in which history *echoes* (themes and phenomena reappear through time and space)

and *ripples* (consequences of the past endure into the present). Second, teachers also described civics in world history as a means to directly connect content to students' lives, contributing to how students see citizenship. The civic connection helps students orient themselves and the United States in world affairs, which facilitates questions of global rights and responsibilities. Accordingly, teachers saw world history civics as a means to empower students to enact social change.

Civic Concepts Help Students Understand World History

       Historical echoes. "I don't like the whole mantra that we're doomed to repeat [history]," said Mr. Tillery, "but there are parallels. Here are similarities and here's how people in the past dealt with them." Several teachers, including Mr. Tillery, saw civic education's value in world history as helping students understand the echoes of history—the themes and phenomena that reappear through time and space. Holistically, this relationship was described as reciprocal in that current concerns help students understand similar events of the past, while the past also helps students understand the present.

       Historical echoes can help connect students to content as a frame of reference for current concerns. "If we're not informed about these histories of conflicts, then we can't make decisions as to how the U.S. should react now," said Ms. Newson. Students cannot understand "how global conflicts begin…if they don't understand the history of similar conflicts…." Similarly, Mr. Weiss asked, "how can I connect the long dead people to students?" World history reveals how events of the past "connect to civic issues…and themes," providing insight into modern phenomena.

       Accordingly, world history provides a means to learn or determine the larger historical lessons needed to address current concerns. "If world history is a place to

explore [civic] questions, when people weren't civil or were abused or we didn't listen to all the voices…. then we can reclaim our civility and not wait until a formal civics class" (Ms. Compton). Civics allows students to look at "the ways that different groups of people have attempted to change their own government or get involved in their government in different countries at different times" (Ms. Higgins). Teachers believe students' perspectives as to current actions on civic issues should, therefore, be informed by world history.

Teachers also believed emphasizing civic themes in world history helps students think more conceptually, connecting echoing events across time and space. For example, Ms. Carrell noted, "during the Protestant Reformation, [students] were having a hard time seeing that the church was upset about losing power and money…not about Martin Luther leaving, as a person. Now looking at questions of the Scientific Revolution, they see why they're upset. It's not about Galileo as a person, but upset about losing money and power again." In this example, Ms. Carrell saw power and challenges to established authority as the civic concepts helping her students make historical connections between the Protestant Reformation and the Scientific Revolution. Indeed, Ms. Compton found students more engaged in history revolving around women's rights than in her prior courses. "Students are more outraged because of their awareness of events revolving around women's topics than students of previous years." Thus, current civic discourse, for Ms. Compton's students, allowed better understanding of past civil rights struggles. Mr. Ronald noted the role of civics in addressing historical echoes when discussing modern nationalist movements. "We're in a phase of nationalism and not just in the United States…. This seems to be another cycle. It's because we haven't had that world

civic training in our schools." Using world history to explore civic issues, according to

Mr. Ronald, could, thus, quell nationalism and promote more global mindedness.

Historical ripples. "Your impact as a student doesn't just impact the U.S. It's sort

of like a pebble…the ripples continue out." In his pebble metaphor, Mr. Ronald spoke to

another way in which civics helps students understand world history—it provides a lens

to better detect the consequences of the past enduring into the present. Borrowing Mr.

Ronald's term, I use "historical ripples" to summarize how several teachers discussed

civics as illuminating how past events continue to impact modern concerns. "'Who cares

about the Treaty of Versailles?' Well, here's how it applies today," Ms. Newson said,

citing an example of a globally consequential event, whose impact still affects

international relationships today.

Specifically, world history ripples were frequently connected to current events. It

benefits students to "see how the United States has had a role in creating what exists in

some countries, like those in the Middle East or Latin America. And those are hard

conversations to have, but it's important for kids to understand why some of these

situations and conditions exist today" (Ms. Carrell). Thus, immersing students in world

history helps them address "the ghosts of the past, the hauntings of the past. Having to

deal with our hauntings requires us to feel compassion for other cultures" (Mr. Weiss).

Studying and assessing the United States' role in current circumstances, thus, fosters

more meaningful global understandings of the present.

Additionally, teachers saw civic education in world history as helping students

consider how current events will ripple in the future. Ms. Higgins believes world history

makes students think about how, "what they're doing in their small town in

Michigan…impact[s] the rest of the world." "What I didn't understand when I was in school," Mr. Ronald said, "was the impact we have here impacts the rest of the world." In this regard, teachers noted world history civics helping students to situate themselves in a long progression of world history.

World History Helps Students Understand Themselves as Citizens

      Positioning the United States. Part and parcel to illuminating echoes and ripples of historical events' consequences is civics helping students position the United States within larger world history. Indeed, in this positioning of the United States, Mr. Ronald noted world history allows teachers to have students consider, "America's civic duty to the world." Though she stated this is not a part of the course curriculum or state standards. Ms. Carrell believes:

> It's important for kids to understand why some…situations, conditions exist today
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> or have existed in the past.…Kids and adults don't think the rest of the world is
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> important in how the United States is run or don't think the United States is
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> affected by the rest of the world. Yet our history exists because…it is interwoven
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> into the rest of the world and continues to be.

Thus, civic concepts show how diverse peoples of the past and present are connected to the United States and United States history.

      Connecting the United States to world history also serves as a means to connect students to their role as international actors. "When they begin thinking about the actions of the US on a personal level, it makes them think about how our government acts responsibly on a global scale" (Ms. Newson). World history shows that students are "American[s] and you play a role as a resident of the U.S. and can advocate for the role

the U.S. should play" (Mr. Tillery). Accordingly, teachers said such learning experiences show students have agency as members of a nation on a world stage, thereby connecting history to students' civic lives.

Students as global citizens. Teachers believe civics in world history also contributes to students' needed understandings for global citizenship. Particularly, world history civics helps students conceptualize their civic identity within larger global processes. Teachers discussed promoting expanded awareness and global understandings in world history in order to develop students' overall global consciousness, reflecting CosGC and 'soft' global citizenship (Andreotti, 2010; Oxley & Morris, 2013). Mr. Weiss said world history helps students "look at the bigger picture of the situation that they're in as a citizen of the world." Students "need some perspective as to how tiny they are; be exposed to their place as a citizen in the world" (Mr. Tillery). Part and parcel to establishing a global civic identity is to consider the associated global responsibilities. When asked how she would define civic education in world history, Ms. Newson said:

> I think of it through global citizenry, [in that] students have to have a handle on political and economic systems in order to understand global networks….
> It's our responsibility as global citizens to use information to make more informed decisions in the contemporary world. How can students make informed decisions about Syria if they don't understand nationalism or how global conflicts begin?

Similarly, other teachers referred to incidences of global violence to emphasize students' global civic responsibilities. "Some of the topics that we use, such as slavery or human trafficking and genocide, we talk about in terms of responsibilities of being a citizen of the world, of their country" (Ms. Higgins). However, teachers expressed limitations in

teaching for global responsibilities. Mr. Ronald expressed the importance of global citizenship, as well as his personal frustrations with how limited these concepts appear within US schools, whereas, "other parts of the world" teach about global citizenship. "We are citizens of the planet in addition to the country. We need to be mindful of the greater world." These discussions speak to teachers' views of civics in world history helping to establish a broader global civic identity and associated responsibilities (Myers, et al., 2015).

Student empowerment. "My goal is to get kids actively engaged in their community," Ms. Lee said. "There's no better way than to show them what happened in the past." To this end, participants saw world history civics as a means to empower students to see themselves as civic actors. Ms. Newson saw this potential across the curriculum: "Whether we're learning about Genghis Khan or whatever, if they see themselves as having agency, then they buy in. They see themselves…and that gives them a sense of action." Civics in world history allows the class to look at "the ways that different groups of people have attempted to change their own government or get involved in their government in different countries at different times….It shows [students] they can fix the problem" (Ms. Higgins). Similarly, empowerment for Mr. Tillery comes through helping students identify with those of the past. "I want to show students that they are the same amount of a person as any other big person in history…that history is made up of individual actors, collectively making a change." World history can, thus, show how change-makers of the past are exemplars for students' own civic actions (Levstik & Barton, 2008).

Summary

Interviewed teachers expressed strong support concerning civic and world history education's beneficial relationship in helping students gain both civic and historical understandings. They saw world history courses as contributing to the development of students' global civic competencies (Bentley, 2007; Watt, 2012). Teachers described the civic thread of world history as connecting students to larger global phenomena, facilitating questions of identity, rights, and responsibilities associated with global citizenship. Complementing one another, civic learning helps develop students' historical understandings. Likewise, historical study develops students' understanding of themselves as global citizens.

Finding 2: Teachers Value Best Practices for World History Civic Learning

In the interviews, teachers' descriptions of knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences for civic learning in world history showed a variety of different themes and concepts, reflecting several aspects of the five global citizenship visions. Using the language of pedagogical reasoning theory, understanding teachers' comprehensions of civic education speaks to one level of how content is transformed and manifests in classrooms (Shulman, 1987). If we think of teachers' world history civics definitions as a cognitive tool, then their tools either support or inhibit integration of a robust civic thread within world history (Wertsch, 1998). Using the five different forms of global citizenship, as identified by Gaudelli (2009)—neoliberal (NeoGC), national (NatGC), Marxist/critical (MCGC), world justice and governance (WJGGC), and cosmopolitan (CosGC)—findings reveal the different ways knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences may manifest within world history. Most

notable within the interviews was the presence of Marxist/critical global citizenship (MCGC), world justice and governance global citizenship (WJGGC), and cosmopolitan global citizenship (CosGC). These forms of global citizenship reflect the competencies students need to participate in global civic life, per this study's framework of world history civic learning. Though not entirely absent, aspects of neoliberal global citizenship (NeoGC) and national global citizenship (NatGC) lacked significant representation in the interviews.

In this section on Finding 2, I discuss the ways teachers described civic learning, organized by the knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences. Sub-findings are contextualized in terms of the global citizenship visions, where applicable. Teachers' discussions of the different components of world history civics were most robust for civic knowledge and dispositions/attitudes. Likewise, the least robust discussions related to civic skills and experiences.

World History Civic Knowledge.

Two important ways scholars believe world history contributes to the larger purpose of civic education are: (1) it provides the broad global content knowledge and conceptual frames needed to interact with the world's people; and (2) provides content to better understand multiple perspectives (Dunn, 2010; Merryfield & Kasai, 2010). Teachers' discussions of world history civic knowledge largely complemented this definition.

Teachers' discussions of civic knowledge were the most robust of the four civic education components. These discussions provided a wealth of data about the particular content teachers believed contribute to world history civic education. The discussion

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below highlights four sub-themes within the broader civic knowledge theme, contextualized in terms of the global citizenship visions: global governance, global responsibilities, multicultural perspectives, and the absence of individualism.

Knowledge of global governance. Content related to political systems, specifically considering different forms of global governance, were often identified as important forms of civic knowledge in world history curriculum. Of the global citizenship visions, seeing civics as a framework of governance suggests teachers may prioritize NatGC or WJGGC, both of which reflect national or global governing systems, respectively. NatGC is the knowledge of U.S. legal and political systems, as well as the place of the United States within global systems. WJGGC is knowledge of international legal frameworks and human rights, including content about the need to establish international rights and responsibilities (Gaudelli, 2009).

Ms. Carrell said she defines civics in world history around concepts of government. "In world history, I think of teaching kids about…the different types of government that exist in the world." Ms. Compton contextualized her understanding of civic knowledge in terms of the differences she experienced teaching in a U.S. school versus one in South Korea, the students' relationship with the national government having different implications than in the United States. South Korean students "are able to practice citizenship, but it looks different from ours…. They still live the Cold War. Those are interesting connections that can be made with world history and they are very aware." Government and implications of the respective governing system, therefore, impacted Ms. Compton's conceptualizations of civic knowledge.

Indirectly speaking to a government-orientation towards world history civics, Ms. Higgins stated that her civics courses integrated world history more often than world history used civics. She said, "civics is a second or third thought [in curriculum planning]. I think about geography before that. Civics falls down the line to things they need to know about cultures, economics…Government isn't at the top and it probably shouldn't be." Though Ms. Higgins conceptualized world history civics within government knowledge, she did emphasize other important forms of knowledge within world history to foster civic mindsets.

Knowledge to address global responsibilities. Directly and indirectly, several teachers saw world history civic knowledge as the content calling into question global responsibilities of the past and present. In application, many teachers said civic knowledge manifested when considering global responsibilities. "When I think about civic knowledge," Ms. Newson said, "I think a lot about things like colonialism, imperialism, globalization—those kinds of things that I think are some of the more negative ways in which global civics has played out as it relates to the United States." She believes civic knowledge is the bedrock to help students consider their "responsibility in keeping my country accountable." Accordingly, this content should address questions of appropriate action towards global responsibilities.

A perceptible thread among several interviews was positioning civic responsibility in world history through a critical stance. Though Marxist or critical global citizenship is the most infrequent global citizenship vision in curriculum, some scholars believe that global citizenship education must be critical in order to address international concerns (Heilman, 2006; Nussbaum, 2010). Indeed, discussion of global responsibilities

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often reflected shades of MCGC. MCGC civic knowledge includes content on the cause and effect of global political and economic systems. Two of the teachers interviewed, Ms. Lee and Newson, talked explicitly about choosing content revolving around issues of injustice or inequities, moving their responses towards a more Marxist or critical framework. These teachers used content to "drive students to make a better community within which they live" (Ms. Lee). Accordingly, they chose content that exposed unfairness in order to propel civic learning.

Another common global responsibility to which several teachers explicitly referred was the international community's role in addressing global violence, specifically genocides and transgressions by the United States. When asked for an example of civic knowledge within her world history curriculum, Ms. Higgins said, "we have a robust unit in conjunction with World War II and genocide, where we focus on the Holocaust, but retroactively pull in the Armenian genocide…and contemporary examples." She said she also connects world history content on slavery to modern incarnations of human trafficking. Mr. Weiss listed several examples where he used history to illustrate the United States' complicity. These historical connections included national and international internment during World War II, the Iran-Contra affair to "see our guilt in this situation," and treatment of the LGBTQ+ community, specifically the Stonewall Riots. Ms. Newson echoed connecting the United States with larger historical processes in her discussion of civic knowledge integrated into a Cold War unit. "I may start with neo-imperialism and ask, 'are we guilty of that?' Then we learn about the Salvadorian Civil War, looking at the Cold War through the lens of Latin America rather than the traditional Cold War lens. They assess it through a dual lens." Indeed, Ms.

Newson illustrated the means through which she uses world history to have students apply different conceptual frames in order to understand global phenomena and address multiple perspectives related to global responsibilities.

Knowledge to broaden multicultural perspectives. Students possessing strong world history knowledge, several teachers said, have a better understanding of diverse groups around the world. Across the interviews, teachers saw world history as a means to expand multicultural perspectives, facilitating students' engagement with cultural differences. In this regard, teachers were discussing content fostering knowledge of sociocultural differences in order to create an inclusive understanding of humanity, reflecting CosGC civic knowledge (Gaudelli, 2009). Despite the societal tension around global citizenship, teachers' concerns about being too "political" did not appear in their discussions of helping students see themselves as citizens of the world. Mr. Ronald saw engagement with different perspectives as an important component of fostering global citizenship, in particular as a means to combat nationalism. He believes the lack of collaboration between the United States and other countries "will continue until we have a generation of adults who have been educated on the world community." Similarly, Ms. Compton saw world history civic knowledge in terms of the larger inclusivity of multiple perspectives. "Civic knowledge is knowledge of the world outside and how that information is used and perceived by other groups." In particular, she discussed the western bias of popular media in the United States. "Are we overlooking a continent because of our biases now? […] What does that mean for how we're perceiving the world?" She believes world history civic knowledge that fosters multicultural perspectives, therefore, positively contributes to students' global competencies.

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Absence of knowledge promoting individualism. Though aspects of each global citizenship vision could be identified to varying degrees in the interviews, notably absent were aspects of NeoGC civic knowledge. NeoGC emphasizes individualism through free market laissez-faire capitalistic principles and focuses on individual rights. Thus, this study identified NeoGC civic knowledge as knowledge of individual rights, as well as the development of the global economy (Gaudelli, 2009; Knight Abowitz & Harnish, 2006). None of the interview participants discussed global economics with more than passing reference. For example, in order to be global citizens, Ms. Newson said, students need to "understand the global network and the inner-working of the economy and government." However, Ms. Newson and the other interviews did not add any emphasis implying they prioritized understanding global economic systems. Interestingly, concepts such as freedom and individual rights were also not discussed, except in the context of responsibilities to others. Accordingly, individualism can be classified as largely absent from the interviews.

World History Civic Skills

Common skills associated with both civic and history education included making reasoned judgments, assessing multiple sources of evidence, and compare and contrasting (Barton & Levstik, 2009; Campbell, 2012). For world history, these skills should be applied to a broad temporal, spatial, and abstract phenomena (Harris, 2012). Teachers referred to these skills within a world history context. However, discussion of skills did not necessarily reflect a discernible world history version of civic skills.

The discussion of the world history civic skills findings highlight two primary themes: civic skills as contributing to students' ability to think, but civic skills being generally conceived as universal, rather than reflecting a distinctly world history skill set.

Skills for civic thinking. Space to think was often discussed in relation to world history civics. Mr. Ronald lamented a lack of thinking in social studies, as he discussed civic skills in terms of what high stakes tests are not assessing. In regard to his state's civics test: "It's repeating information. That's the antithesis of what we're supposed to be doing." Instead, several teachers noted the need to emphasize historical study's processes. "I don't want to change their minds on what they're thinking, but to change how they're thinking" (Mr. Weiss). "Civics in the curriculum," Mr. Weiss explained, gives students, "time to think." Ms. Compton stated, "as long as we can teach them how to think and not what to think, then parents will accept that. And that's the biggest challenge social studies teachers face." Thus, discussion of thinking in world history by the teachers meant giving space for students to apply reason and make judgments. Ms. Carrell's examples of civic skills related to source analysis. For example, when learning about the Korean War, students examined bias in textbook descriptions from North and South Korea. "They don't know which is which, but they look at the differences, consider how they can tell which came from which country, then use other sources to help them determine accuracy, triangulate sources, and illuminate the biases." Thus, world history was perceived as contributing to students' larger analytical abilities, which teachers weave throughout social studies courses.

Universal civic skills. Including civic skills in world history is "easier…. even if I wasn't doing it on purpose," Ms. Compton said. Civic skills are a part of "the

overarching goals of social studies, regardless of what class you're teaching." She continued to explain civic skills as being relatively universal, not necessarily reflecting the discipline's particulars. "Ideally, we should be able to offer any social studies class and kids should walk away with the same skillset, which should inform their civic mindedness." Indeed, Ms. Compton captures much of what the teachers said about civic skills—they are common among the social studies, but there is not necessarily a world history-specific skill set. By the same token, these discussions of world history civic skills were not discernably one form of global citizenship or another.

In world history, civic skills are applied to broadened temporal, spatial, and abstract phenomena. Thus, the needed conceptual tools for world history are more abstract than other histories, making the analytical literacies similar, yet nonetheless distinct from national or regional histories (Harris, 2012). Particular skills may appear across the social studies subjects, but different disciplines employ distinct analytical lenses (NCSS, 2013). Though civic skills are present, teachers may not be considering the unique contributions of world history to students' analytical abilities beyond particular content knowledge.

As noted, though several analytical skills could be associated with the forms of global citizenship—for example, compare/contrasting as a feature of CosGC civic skills but also NatGC—when considering the particulars of the different global citizenship skills, interview responses offer little discussion of any of the global citizenship visions. The exception, however, was two participants' explicit references to civic skills as a means to enact systemic change. Their responses, thus, reflected MCGC civic skills, which are the skills needed to address inequity/unfairness in global systems, including

critical analysis and evidence-based argumentation. Both Ms. Newson and Ms. Lee provided examples of using world history curriculum as a vehicle for students to consider civic engagement through critical stances. In this way, world history provided opportunities for students to compare situations of the past to their present circumstances. Students can connect history "to themselves and consider the actions they need in order to take action" (Ms. Newson). Having the means to assess and make meaning of the past was a particular skill that propelled civic engagement and change-making in world history.

World History Civic Dispositions and Attitudes

World history civic dispositions and attitudes include commitments to multiculturalism, pluralist democratic values, as well as to address global problems through international dialogue and cooperation (Bentley, 2007; Girard & Harris, 2013; Watt, 2012). Overall, teachers emphasized civic dispositions and attitudes in the context of students' responsibilities to the global community. However, discussions also showed perceived limitations to teaching for world history civic dispositions.

The discussion below highlights four broad themes in the data related to the "commitments" of civic dispositions/attitudes, contextualized in terms of the global citizenship visions. The four primary themes are: commitment to global responsibilities; the impact of partisanship and narrow worldviews; absence of commitments to free market or national interests; and the overall absence of teaching for civic dispositions/attitudes in world history.

Commitment to global responsibilities. Throughout the interviews, teachers emphasized trying to foster students' commitments to global responsibilities. Teachers'

discussions of responsibilities reflected aspects of MCGC and CosGC. The MCGC and CosGC visions emphasize global responsibilities, but in different forms: the MCGC civic dispositional commitment is to challenge structures that perpetuate global inequality or inequity. CosGC's civic dispositional commitment seeks to extend a universal ethic of rights and responsibilities to all people across difference. WJGGC also emphasizes responsibilities, as it focuses on international cooperation with the world community. However, aside from one mention of the Model UN, a discernable discussion of WJGGC civic disposition/attitude was absent (Gaudelli, 2009). Below I summarize discussions of CosGC and MCGC, respectively.

Commitment to a universal ethic. Creating a universal concern for others through engagement with differences often framed teachers' views of developing students' global responsibilities. Ms. Compton said skills and dispositions speak to:

> The overarching questions with a 'so what' connection…. These are really good experiences for kids and very necessary. Some of us have forgotten how to be nice to each other in a civic environment. If world history is a place to explore those questions, when people weren't civil or were abused or we didn't listen to all the voices, then, I don't know, we can reclaim our civility and not wait until a formal civics class.

Ms. Compton's response positioned civic dispositions as commitments to maintain a democratic environment, which includes asking questions of global responsibilities. This discussion largely positioned her view of civic dispositions as reflecting a CosGC ethic.

Likewise, though considering civic experiences, Mr. Ronald discussed fostering a disposition towards helping people around the globe. He indicated he discusses his

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military service with students to "relate personal experiences like being an ambassador overseas." He believes this "shows how to bring the citizen into the classroom. This is a good thing to do—to try to help other people." Fostering cross-cultural relationships are a civic disposition in this discussion, reflecting the CosGC commitment to fostering a universal ethic to the world's community (Appiah, 2006).

Commitment to challenge global inequity. Likewise, global responsibilities were often discussed in terms of challenging structures of oppression, reflecting a MCGC dispositional commitment. Critical global citizenship allows students to meaningfully address global problems as it provides space to address global and systemic inequity (Heilman, 2006; Nussbaum, 2010). For example, Mr. Weiss has students consider individuals' responsibilities in the context of environmental protests of the 1960s. He believes inquiring about the movement addresses desirable civic dispositions: "what's the problem? What caused it? What's being done now? What solutions do you propose? Teach them to throw those ideas out there and open up a discussion." This sentiment complements other teachers' descriptions of dispositional commitments in world history. Ms. Higgins saw her curricular choices related to civic knowledge as complementing those associated with dispositions. Civic dispositions and "civic knowledge go hand-in-hand. Some of the topics we use—slavery, human trafficking, genocide—we talk about responsibilities of being a citizen of the world, of their country. That if they're going on in another part of the world, it's your responsibility to, at the very least, spread awareness. Those are the moral lessons you emphasize." Ms. Newson said she is "constantly asking students what our responsibilities are—is it to protest? To act? What is it in this particular situation?" But Ms. Newson finds this process difficult. "Thinking,

instilling civic dispositions in students is hard. You have to make students care about what goes on in the world…. it's about building their empathy and that's hard for students." Both Ms. Newson and Ms. Lee emphasized addressing issues of inequality or oppression requires caring about the world. Additionally, commitment to action was woven throughout Ms. Lee's discussion of world history civic dispositions. She wants to instill a commitment to civic engagement: "It's not someone else's job to make things happen." In this context, teachers discussed how world history could foster commitments to challenge structural inequality or oppression.

Commitment to challenge narrow worldviews. Staunch partisanship and narrow worldviews were issues noted in several interviews while discussing civic dispositions and attitudes. Teachers described partisanship as challenging world history civics, while also noting civics' potential to be the antidote to those same tensions.

Ms. Lee said she actively combats partisanship in her world history courses. When assessing an issue, she has students look at both sides even if students say, "'I already know what I think.' But you have to look at both sides." She used current events in Syria as an example. "We considered events in Syria. We did a whole lesson on Israel and Palestine, watched a video about Syrian refugees. A lot of kids can't tell you ten things about that region of the world and they already have an opinion formed. We need to get them to see beyond preconceived notions." Mr. Ronald discussed his integration of historical propaganda in relation to civil dispositions, emphasizing contextual factors and purposes of propaganda. He believes this contributes to students' perspectives on current issues. Ms. Compton noted partisanship as a particular challenge in world history civics, which requires teachers intentionally integrate civil discourse and civic skills within

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world history, such as assessing multiple viewpoints. When discussing modern global institutions, she said students' discussions get heated. "[We] mention what positive classroom citizenship looks like to keep those classrooms civil. So, we did talk about [civics] in that context; where do you get your source material, openness to information regardless of how you feel about the information."

Mr. Weiss believes his colleagues, more so than himself, are less intentional about considering the development of students' civic dispositions in world history. "My colleague will send students to conservative websites to find information, which doesn't expose them to both sides of the picture. I don't think he thinks about his civic disposition as a teacher." Though sometimes limited, when civic dispositions and attitudes are a part of world history, teachers say narrow worldviews hinder students' dispositional commitments, but teachers believe such commitments are nonetheless important to develop in order to combat the current partisan climate.

Commitments to free market and national interests. The dispositional commitments of NeoGC and NatGC were notably absent from interview discussions. One significant NeoGC dispositions/attitude is a commitment to maintain free market principles (Gaudelli, 2009). None of the interview participants referenced a commitment to free market principles, nor did they make any mention of the global economy, global development, or other associated ideas. Likewise, the NatGC disposition/attitude was absent. NatGC dispositions/attitudes reflect a commitment to foster the nation's ideals and interests through global relationships (Gaudelli, 2009). Thus, the prevalence of NatGC in education discourse notwithstanding (Buckner & Russell, 2013), teachers' descriptions de-emphasized centering of the nation's ideals or interests in world history.

One possible exception comes from Mr. Ronald, who described dispositions in terms of students serving as "ambassadors" when travelling abroad. However, this comment was in the context of overall international relationships, rather than explicitly promoting the nation's ideals and interests.

Absence of civic dispositions in world history. Regardless of the form it took, teachers expressed limitations in terms of their curricular decision-making related to civic dispositions and attitudes. Several indicated that civic dispositions were not deliberately integrated into lessons, due in part to their being perceived as controversial. For example, Ms. Carrell indicated she emphasizes the importance of voting and having students take informed action, but noted she was not intentionally fostering civic dispositions. Similarly, Mr. Ronald said civic dispositions are "low on the scale," of his curriculum planning. When it comes to civic dispositions, Mr. Tillery referenced this research's survey and said he has not gotten to modern economic issues, such as global poverty. Instead, his world history classes are "more likely to just think about how people are different." Though aspects of civic dispositions/attitudes are woven throughout teachers' responses, teachers said it was not a deliberate part of their curricular decision-making.

World History Civic Experiences.

"Civic experiences are the Holy Grail, but it's the hardest part." This perspective from Ms. Newson well encapsulates the teachers' overall sentiments towards bringing civic experiences into world history. Loosely defined, civic experiences in world history are a platform to address globally situated issues or problems (Girard & Harris, 2015). As has been discussed throughout the findings, teachers discussed a multitude of different learning experiences related to world history civics. For this study, however, focus was

on civic experiences that applied learning to an out-of-classroom context (Levine, 2012).

Overall, interview discussions of civic experiences were the least robust of the four civic

education components. As such, examples of civic experiences aligning with the global

citizenship visions were either singular or absent entirely. Discussion of the findings are

presented according to two main themes: presence of civic experiences per the global

citizenship visions and discussion of their overall absence.

Global citizenship experiences. Throughout the interviews, teachers emphasized

use of civics to explicitly connect the past and present in world history. As a platform to

address these issues beyond the classroom, however, examples were sparse. Below I

discuss a specific example for WJGGC and MCGC civic experiences, respectively, and

the absence of examples for the other global citizenship visions.

WJGGC civic experiences are opportunities to participate in deliberative practices

on global rights and responsibilities. In the interviews, Mr. Weiss provided an example

reflecting a WJGGC experience. Mr. Weiss' students attended World Affairs Councils,

where his students communicated with international groups, including conducting panel

discussions. Through these experiences, he believes students can better "synthesize where

they are in history and where we are today." These civic experiences connected world

history content to address globally situated issues.

Challenging exploitive systems through advocating for social justice policy,

reflecting a MCGC civic experience, was a specific example provided by Ms. Lee.

Scholars may believe MCGC experiences are important for students (e.g., Heilman,

2006; Nussbaum, 2010), but they appear infrequently because they are perceived as being

too politically charged (Knight Abowitz & Harnish, 2006). However, these types of civic

experiences featured prominently in Ms. Lee's classroom. Ms. Lee creates tasks that connect the past and present, resulting in assessments of current policies. For example, after learning about the Industrial Revolution, her students assessed modern day textile production, which included creating public service announcement videos about international working conditions. "I want to create opportunities to get them out there and look at things from a different perspective…they haven't left my classroom, but they've learned a lot about the world" (Ms. Lee). This civic experience used world history to propel a critical assessment of modern systems of oppression.

Three of the global citizenship visions were absent in discussions of world history civic experiences: NeoGC, NatGC, and CosGC. NeoGC civic experiences are experiences focused on global economic participation, big or small. None of the interviews mentioned global economic participation as a civic experience in any form. NatGC civic experiences, which include opportunities to participate in national political or civic systems related to global issues, were also not mentioned explicitly. CosGC civic experiences emphasize engaging with diverse people for cooperative social and/or political activities, such as engaging with different communities or perspectives. Examples of CosGC experiences were largely absent from the interviews. Though, as previously noted, teachers lauded the importance of CosGC viewpoints, examples of these experiences engaging with others, nonetheless, were absent in the data.

Absence of civic experiences in world history. Several teachers indicated civic experiences were important, but few said they integrated them consistently, if at all. Some teachers, including Ms. Newson, found opportunities to explicitly connect the past and present in civic experiences, manifesting in world history classroom exercises. She

noted she tries to leave space in her curriculum to connect learned content to current events, culminating in a civic experience. However, all teachers also expressed limits in terms of world history civic experiences.

Because of the depth of information required in her courses, Ms. Higgins indicated integrating civics experiences "hasn't even crossed my mind." Ms. Compton strongly agreed on the importance of integrating civics experiences, but noted "there's more space in the regular [non-Advanced Placement] classroom, depending on how comfortable the teacher is with letting go of the narrative timeline." For Ms. Newson, civic experiences were important, but she indicated they were not something she necessarily planned ahead of time. Instead, she made space in her curriculum to capitalize on connections between current events and historical content. "It's hard to plan those things," she said. "When I'm thinking about planning, as long as you allow for flexibility, you can seize on those moments" to connect world history to civics. "I think students have a real hunger for that now." Thus, teachers said that civic experiences are valued but difficult to integrate into planning.

Summary

Teachers' descriptions of world history civics—expressed through discussions of knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences—show several ways in which the different global citizenship visions manifest in classrooms. Though NeoGC and NatGC are the dominant discourses around global citizenship (Alviar-Martin, 2010; Bryan, 2014), the qualitative findings reveal a near absence of either discourse. Instead, teachers' examples most frequently related to MCGC, WJGGC, and CosGC. Though research shows these forms appear infrequently in schools (Gaudelli, 2009), this study

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reveals teacher participants prioritized these visions, which are much more holistic, inclusive understandings of global citizenship.

Finding 3: Structural Hindrances to World History Civics

As noted in the previous findings, teacher participants believe world history and civic education have a mutually beneficial relationship. However, teachers' discussions of world history show a much more complicated story as to how civics manifests in classrooms. Teachers listed constraints hindering civic learning from occurring. These constraints, whether real or perceived, can hinder authentic learning practices in world history classrooms, such as the practices identified in this study that contribute to an effective civic education (Cornbleth, 2002; King, et al., 2010). When asked about the challenges in integrating civic education in world history, teachers listed several hindrances reflecting conditions of current educational structures, notably: time limitations; high stakes testing and standards; textbooks and available resources; and students' inadequate social studies education prior to taking world history. Finding 3 is organized around these structural hindrances identified by teachers.

Limited time

"It would be amazing," if world history was expanded in current high school requirements said Ms. Carrell. "It would be awesome to do more world, but it's still short." Mr. Weiss also said time is the biggest constraint to civic education in world history. You need to learn "how to do it and learn how to incorporate it into your curriculum" without sacrificing content coverage. "Even in the non-AP world history class…I still feel I need to cover particular content," limiting the space Ms. Compton feel she can bring in civic education. "History is the story of people," Ms. Higgins said, "but

sometimes that gets lost, especially in world history because we're in such a race to talk about different events" in order to teach required content. Mr. Tillery sees civic education as further exacerbating current time constraints:

> How do you make [civic education] something else that I'm trying to cram into world history? […] Here, it's everything from the beginning to now. Things get left out. We can't cover everything. To add a couple days where we really discuss extreme global poverty and how the US should contribute to charities or not prop up dictators, etc. Though those are good lessons, I can't spend just a day on that. A week would be better, but…we're doing things at the expense of others…

For these teachers, civic education was conceived as additional content for world history courses, the integration of which results in sidelining other necessary content. Thus, civic education is limited as a factor impacting teachers' decision-making in world history curriculum and instruction.

High stakes testing and curriculum standards

Curriculum requirements, in the form of high stakes testing expectations or state standards for world history, were perceived as limitations to integrating knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences of civic learning within world history. Teaching goals, as outlined by state curriculum standards, present teachers with a framework to guide their curricular decision-making. However, several teachers noted civic education's absence from world history standards. Mr. Weiss thinks current standards minimalize civics. He was "encouraged by adjustments to the Common Core," but otherwise feels the role still needs to be intentionally increased. Requirements revolving around world history felt limiting to Ms. Higgins. "Standards are a part of the

problem" of world history civics, said Ms. Higgins. In particular, her state's standards have been criticized for "whitewashing history." She continued, "there's nothing in the standards that address civics in world history….to include more [civics], it's an extra thing." Mr. Ronald discussed the fact that few policymakers emphasize civics in education, world history or otherwise. "What's surprising is…that there's not a demand for a more global perspective," among stakeholders.

Standards alone are not the problem, as many teachers noted the role of assessment in driving curriculum planning. Though some teachers noted the *C3 Framework's* emphasis on civic learning and civic outcomes, they noted a dearth of world history materials. "Other than the *C3 Framework*, civics is left out of a lot of standards…. Some states are moving to less restrictive standards, but they also need to move their assessments as well" (Ms. Newson). Accordingly, content requirements for high stakes tests and other assessments, notably the Advanced Placement (AP) World History exam, were also seen as hurdles to integrating civic education. The AP World History exam does not reference civic themes driving the course (College Board, 2017). Though noting improvements to the AP testing structure, which allows for more skills-based assessment, Mr. Weiss believes teachers are still subject to the test, which is very much content-driven. Ms. Compton believes the AP World History Exam's requirements stifle integration of civic education. "In AP World History, it's a prescribed curriculum. There are fewer opportunities for those discussions, whereas in a normal one, we can slow it down and put those [civic] lessons together. I had more freedom to do that…. but if we're focusing on the details, it's harder to fit civic knowledge in." Though she acknowledged that the exam's recent changes have allowed more flexibility, they are

nonetheless still demanding, therefore limiting her ability to bring more civic education into the classroom. The "biggest obstacle is high stakes testing, without any doubt at all," explained Ms. Newson. "That's [teachers'] biggest obstacle. [The state test is] not a text dependent exam. It's very much rote memorization." She explained that tests—the results of which being consequential for the school, teacher, and individual students—means teachers do not have the space to integrate civic education. "If that's the case," she said, "you're starting on page one of the textbook and moving through it," in order to cover all the necessary content for assessments.

World history textbooks and resources

Resources, particularly world history textbooks and professional developments, were noted to be quite impactful in shaping world history courses, as well. Notably, teachers discussed the *lack* of civic learning within textbooks and other resources (Marino, 2011). "You have to be willing to step away from the textbook" to bring civic education into world history, explained Ms. Lee. "It's hard because everything is test score-driven…but you need to find ways to go beyond the standards and textbook to connect things to modern day." Mr. Tillery said he likes that the *C3 Framework's* guidance incorporates civic themes, but felt the accompanying resources at the *C3 Teachers* site hindered integration into world history because the inquiry materials are too large in scope. Instead, he said there are not enough small-scale materials to daily bring world history civics alive in his classroom.

Ms. Higgins noted that her state adopted a new electronic world history textbook that has much more robust materials, but still felt limited in terms of resources. She believes that teachers "need specific professional development! [Teachers want] ideas

about what people are doing. Teachers love to beg/borrow/steal, but [professional development] can spark ideas in different areas; show information on how to do it" [emphasis added]. To that end, Ms. Newson echoed Ms. Higgins. She believes, at present, there are inadequate professional development opportunities to help teachers integrate civic education into world history. Teachers need to see "how to use the Common Core to their advantage." Whether of the standards or other world history materials, Mr. Weiss saw it as a matter of helping teachers develop their questioning abilities within world history. "We aren't being taught the kinds of questions to ask. How can we change the dialogue in teacher programs to make people change the dialogue?" Interviewed teachers said they needed supports, whether in resources or other curricular guidance, in order to know how to ask the questions to propel students' inquiries connecting world history to civic issues.

Inadequate student social studies preparation

Several teachers believe students' age makes world history civics difficult, noting students' difficulty in grasping complicated topics, whether due to a narrow perspective or overall social studies preparation. Ms. Compton stated that high school students "want to talk about it…but world history is tough." Additionally, Ms. Newson believes empathy can sometimes be a challenge for students, who struggle seeing the larger picture of events. "A lot of times you want to make the content relevant, but that requires you have students look outside of themselves…. teenagers' brains are not built that way." Hence, Ms. Compton also believes world history civics manifests differently depending on students' ages. There are "different discussions with kids depending on how old they are and whether they will make those connections" to present circumstances. Ms. Carrell also

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saw students' age as affecting their ability to make civic connections. "The other thing that's hard is that they're sophomores. There's stuff that their brains have trouble seeing. The world is so big and there are so many connections to be made. As juniors in US history, they grasp it so much better. It's amazing that one year." Whether due to age or prior social studies instruction, Ms. Carrell believes students are better prepared to make connections between civic knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences within US History; this course being taught the year after world history at her school.

Students' lack of adequate social studies training before world history was noted as a major limitation to meaningful world history civics. Mr. Ronald explained, "speaking specifically about world civics, if has to be taught early. You can talk about it later in life, but like anything else…. if it's taught early with younger kids, I think that would have a better chance of having an impact later when the kids are older." In his state, Mr. Ronald said social studies is not taught until seventh grade. "Prior to that, the vast majority of kids don't get social studies or civics. That's part of the reason we have a disconnect when it comes to our duty of citizens. Not just the United States but also how our citizenship affects the world." Ms. Newson noted a similar problem in her state. "There's no [required] social studies. Our school wanted to teach social studies anyway. Technically, it was under 'cultural humanities.'" Thus, Ms. Newson and other teachers did not believe her history classes were built on a strong foundation of robust social studies. Interviews revealed the teachers perceived world history civics' efficacy as partially contingent on students' prior social studies learning.

Finding 4: Teachers Do Not Intentionally and Consistently Plan for World History Civics

Holistically speaking, Ms. Higgins well-encapsulates a problem for world history civics: "Our civics course pulls in world history more than world history brings in civics." Though teachers could point to instances of civic learning (knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences) occurring in their world history courses, they expressed limited attention to intentionally pulling in those components of civic education into their curricular planning. Additionally, teachers rarely made the explicit connections between content and civics or citizenship, suggesting an implicitness of the relationship. I discuss the implicitness of world history civics in Finding 4, noting its absence in decision-making and in the use of the term "civics" or "citizenship."

Impact on Decision-Making

Though teachers indicated civics is important in their curricular planning, interview responses revealed a more limited extent to which they intentionally used civics concepts in their decision-making. Ms. Compton believes, "currently, at least with my teaching and the teachers in my department, I think [civics] plays a small role. That's not how it should be, but it's a diminished role. I know that it would be helpful to connect things to the modern day. That's what the district wants to see. But, what it is and what it should be are two different things." Mirroring Ms. Compton's statement, instead of civics manifesting in world history as the teachers believed it should appear, on the whole, teachers discussed civics as more often manifesting unintentionally or given lip service rather than woven throughout curriculum.

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Several teachers discussed civics as something that appeared in lessons, but was not something about which they consciously thought. Mr. Ronald explained the oft-secondary role civic education plays in his world history curriculum-building:

When we're talking about world history, I try to include something about civics in it. Just based on my own experiences. But I don't know if I consciously think about "in this particular lesson what am I going to specifically include about civics?" If it comes up, it's not necessarily an afterthought, but it's not the primary purpose of the lesson. There's nothing in the standard that addresses civics in world history. In my situation, it's always from an American perspective. To include more, it's an extra thing. If it's easy to incorporate, I will. But I don't sit down and think about how to include it. That's not my primary goal.

In this regard, civics was among several themes that appear in world history, but not a main concern driving curricular decision-making. Overall, much like "economics or culture, we cover that [in world history] but it's not a cognizant lesson on civics." Ms. Carrell saw civic learning as "more of a side note than a teaching premise." By the same token, Mr. Weiss said his colleagues believe civics appears throughout their teaching, but treat it as a box they check off, as they go "through the curriculum they remember from childhood," rather than a conceptual frame informing world history curriculum and instruction.

Often teachers discussed civic education materializing in world history when it related to the specific content. Ms. Carrell said civic education manifests in her world history courses, "when it comes up." She explained, "I don't think about civic knowledge…except when I very deliberately teach on absolute monarchs or we have a

unit on the Cold War…. Other than that, it less informs lessons." Because of the "depth of information we are required to cover," Ms. Higgins said, "specifically integrating [civic knowledge] hasn't even crossed my mind." In fact, Ms. Compton said there were "places where I feel I danced around it" and "I'm not sure it's on my radar," rather than intentionally focusing on the civic angle. "The engagement piece might have been on accident, but not deliberate" (Ms. Compton). Teachers' responses suggest that although they could identify connections within world history to civic education, planning was unintentional, rather than a factor propelling decision-making.

Explicit References to "civics" and "citizenship"

In order to further consider the position of civic education in world history, teachers were asked the extent to which they explicitly used the words "civics" or "citizenship." Though not entirely absent, teachers expressed limited use of the words. Mr. Weiss said he was using the terms civic or citizenship in his world history classes "more and more, but not as much as I should. I explain why we do what we do…. I say what you're learning is to help you make decisions." Ms. Lee indicated she does not use the word "civics" or "citizenship" regularly in her class. "I use the term civic engagement more. That word comes up 1-2 a month, but it's not a regular thing." Rather, she frequently encourages students to get involved in their communities.

Curricular context was one factor impacting the words' use. Ms. Compton said, "citizenship is [discussed] within very specific contexts. In Greece and Rome, when we talk about the Revolution, or are comparing revolutions." When asked if she discussed things specifically as "civics" or related to citizenship, Ms. Compton said, "no, not to the kids, but to the department members." Narrow definitions of civics were also seen as

restrictive, according to Mr. Ronald. "Civics has been defined here as American citizenship or American citizen responsibilities like voting and things like that," Mr. Ronald remarked. "So I don't use the term civics talking about world history, but for US history I definitely do." Ms. Carrell's department chair emphasizes civics across the subjects. She said that he reminds the other teachers that, "we are the most important subject because we teach people how to be good citizens." By the same token, civics is something she believes teachers "check off" in world history, rather than it being an emphasized element.

Summary

According to the interviews, several challenges hinder world history civic learning from happening in classrooms. There were two main categories of hindrances: structural hindrances identified by teachers and the implicitness of civics within teacher decision-making. Teachers noted several structural hindrances limited their integration of civic learning. These hindrances include limited time, high stakes testing, curriculum standards, textbooks, resources, and students' inadequate social studies training. The second category, implicitness of civics, reflects the limited extent to which teachers explicitly connected learning or curriculum planning to civic education. As teaching for democratic citizenship should be an explicit objective in social studies teaching for students to connect content to civic contexts (Barton & Levstik, 2009; Levinson, 2012a), these findings suggest the limits of civic learning within world history classrooms.

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Summary of Findings

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Using a mixed methods research design, I examined how world history teachers describe the role of civic education in world history. Each research strand's findings are

organized based upon the survey question sets: importance of civics, forms of global citizenship, and curriculum planning. Analysis of the quantitative and qualitative research strands with one another revealed where the findings complement and contradict one another.

Comparison of the two strands' findings shows the conflicting data as it relates to curriculum planning. In the survey data, three primary findings emerged: (1) the majority of participants indicated that civics is an important component of all classes, including world history; (2) though all forms of global citizenship were rated highly, world justice and governance global citizenship (WJGGC) and cosmopolitan global citizenship (CosGC) were rated the most highly. These forms of global citizenship reflect the pluralist understandings needed for democratic global living and, likewise, constitute the best practices for world history civics; (3) the majority of respondents also indicated that they consider the different components of civic education (knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, experiences) when they plan curriculum.

The picture gleaned from interviews temper these results. The interview findings are: (1) teachers believe civics helps students understand and connect to world history; (2) teachers value forms of civic knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences aligned with the definition of best practices in world history civics; (3) structural challenges limit robust civic learning in world history, including time pressures and the focus on high-stakes testing; and (4) integration of civic learning was often implicit, rather than a purpose driving planning.

As will be elaborated upon in Chapter 5: Discussion and Implications, the two research strands align in terms of the importance of civics and the vision teachers hold for

citizenship in world history. The data sets contradict one another in terms of curriculum planning. While the survey data findings indicate teachers consider civics when planning curriculum, the interview data shows hindrances get in the way, limiting the extent to which teachers *actually* plan with civic learning in mind. These findings suggest a disconnect exists between what teachers believe they should be doing and what happens in the classroom.

Chapter Five

Discussion and Implications

The main purpose of this study was to examine how teachers describe civic education's role in world history. Using an explanatory sequential mixed methods design, 123 world history teachers completed a web-based survey. Of those participants, eight participated in an interview. I used abductive reasoning to consider the emerging codes and themes from the different data sets. The main research question for the study was: How do teachers describe civic education's role in world history? Supporting research questions included: (1) how do teachers conceptualize civics within world history?; (2) how do their conceptualizations reflect the civic education components?; and (3) how do teachers' conceptualizations reflect forms of global citizenship?

In this chapter, I will expand upon this study's findings and discuss their importance by connecting themes between the two data strands with relevant literature and my theoretical and conceptual frameworks. The discussion is organized around three main ideas: (1) world history is well-positioned to prepare students for global civic life; (2) however, civic learning is not a prioritized outcome driving teachers' instructional decision-making, rendering the conceptualizations teachers' hold for world history civics largely dormant, which hinders meaningful civic learning; and (3) furthermore, dormancy of a robust civic education may also undermine teachers' visions for civic learning. Without clear and explicit connections to their identified civic learning goals, teachers may be, instead, reinforcing the status quo. I conclude by discussing the study's larger implications and making recommendations for future research.

By constructing a framework of best practices for world history civic learning and exploring world history teachers' descriptions of world history civics in a mixed methods study, this research's findings provide empirical evidence of the tension in world history between how teachers *should* teach (expressed by scholars and the teachers, themselves) and how they *do* teach. In general, social studies education is plagued by a disconnect between theory and practice (Levstik, 2008). While civic education is an educational priority, in theory, how civic learning manifests in world history classrooms is not well understood. To that end, this study adds empirical evidence of civic learning in world history, noting the connections and limits between theory and practice in world history civic education.

Centering teachers in a study of world history civics addresses an important component of what happens in classrooms. As teachers are curricular instructional gatekeepers, they exercise a great amount of control as to what and how they teach (Thornton, 2005b). Likewise, preparing students to engage in civic life largely falls on teachers' shoulders (Westheimer & Kahne, 2003). Teachers' views of civic learning are, therefore, consequential in how that information is communicated to students. If teachers' are conceptualizing world history civic education in a way that would foster effective civic learning, then world history teachers are well-positioned to have world history achieve its lofty purpose of creating informed, engaged, globally-minded citizens— possessing the knowledge and skills to meaningfully address global problems (Bentley, 2007; Watt, 2012). If teachers hold narrow views of civic education for world history, in either their philosophical or pedagogical approach, it can hinder the extent to which

world history education centers learning for global civic life (Obenchain, et al., 2016; Myers, 2006).

This research shows that the world history teachers who participated in the study hold views about world history's contribution to civic learning that are similar to many scholarly views. Teachers identified civics as a central component of world history classes—civic and history education having a mutually beneficial relationship enhancing students' learning and contributing to students' global civic understandings. Teachers in both data sets supported features of global citizenship that align with teaching world history civics for pluralist democratic understandings, notably cosmopolitan global citizenship. Both data sets' show teachers de-prioritize neoliberal and national global citizenship—the two most prominent forms of global citizenship. These two visions are the least likely to foster pluralist views of citizenship and instead reinforce the status quo (Gaudelli, 2009; Knight Abowitz & Harnish, 2006).

Comparing the data strands' findings, however, show a tension between civics' importance and teachers' curriculum planning. While the survey findings showed strong support across the different components of civic education—the knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences needed to participate in democratic life (Campbell, 2012)—interviews revealed civic learning likely appears inconsistently within world history courses. Thus, this study suggests implementation of a robust civic education in world history is limited. Despite support for civic education, civics and civic outcomes may not be at the forefront of world history teachers' minds when planning curriculum and instruction. It is clear from the findings that participants value civic education, but the extent to which world history civics manifests in classrooms is much less clear.

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Preparing Students for Global Civic Life

This study provides empirical evidence that teachers share the conviction of world history learning's contribution to students' civic education. Scholarship abounds with discussions concerning the importance of civic education in modern schooling, as well as world history education's particular relationship with developing global civic competencies (Girard & Harris, 2013). Many experts believe world history is well-positioned to foster the civic competencies students need for global living (e.g., Bentley, 2007; Harris, 2014; Watt, 2012). Rather than seeing global phenomena as geographically compartmentalized, world history promotes "transregional, transnational, and transcultural" understandings of the world, according to the World History Association (n.d.). These understandings are needed in order to make sense of modern global challenges (Merryfield & Kasai, 2010). As discussed in Chapter 4, participants confirmed their belief in the importance of civics throughout learning experiences, including world history. Likewise, findings revealed teacher participants conceived of civic education contributing to world history because civic learning provides a conceptual tool for examining historical and current events, respectively (Wertsch, 1998). Participants believed civic ideas provide space for students to connect world history learning to modern civic concerns.

Teachers' perspectives on world history and civic learning provide a partial view into what happens in world history classrooms. Teacher beliefs about a subject impact their instructional purposes and behavior (Pajares, 1992). Likewise, as gatekeepers, teachers exercise a great deal of power as to what is and is not taught (Thornton, 2005b). Much like scholarly perspectives of the relationship between civic and world history

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education, participants positioned world history as contributing to students' lives as civic

beings, believing world history civics illuminates historical connections. As such, these

world history teachers' expressed beliefs about world history civic education indicates

world history is well-positioned to fulfill the discipline's larger civic purpose (Watt,

2012). As will elaborated upon in a later section, though teachers' beliefs about world

history and civic learning align with scholarship, their beliefs about how to create

opportunities for civic learning in their classrooms are much more limited.

In Support of a Pluralist Global Civic Worldview. Civic education can be

conceived of in many ways. Teachers in this study were generally in agreement of civic

education's importance. However, beliefs about what civic education looks like reflect a

broad spectrum of themes and concepts, which impact curriculum and instruction

(Campbell, 2012). Some forms of civic learning provide students opportunities to apply

learning in civic spaces, while others focus on content accumulation with few (if any)

opportunities for civic engagement (Evans, 2006). As such, teachers' definitions of civic

learning impacts decision-making for curriculum and instruction. To understand teachers'

perspectives of civic learning in world history classrooms, studying if teachers value

world history civics must be coupled with an understanding of how they make sense of

civic learning in a world history context (Shulman, 1987).

Using global citizenship visions as an analytical tool, teacher responses were

assessed in consideration of the five different global citizenship visions—neoliberal

global citizenship (NeoGC), national global citizenship (NatGC), Marxist/critical global

citizenship (MCGC), world justice and governance global citizenship (WJGGC), and

cosmopolitan global citizenship (CosGC)—and the extent to which each vision supports

best practices for world history civic learning. Exploring world history civic practices through five different forms of global citizenship helped create a more comprehensive assessment of participants' perceptions of civic education's role within world history. This portion of the study provides empirical evidence of world history civic learning by considering how variances amongst definitions can affect what civic learning looks like in classrooms (Knowles, 2017).

Participants in the study not only strongly believed in the importance of world history civics, their preferences amongst the civic visions also aligned with the best practices of world history civic learning, a definition created for this study comparing world history and civic education scholarship (See Appendix A). Though participants supported the many different incarnations of world history civic learning, findings showed prioritization of the CosGC and WJGGC visions, which I contend, best reflect scholarship concerning students' needs for global civic life. Study participants valued civic learning in world history that supports pluralist understandings needed to engage in, and promote, global democratic living (Dunn, 2010; Merryfield & Kasai, 2010). Likewise, participants expressed commitments to teaching for global consciousness and multiculturalism, preparing students to reassess civic identity, rights, and responsibilities in a global context (Nussbaum, 2010). Teachers discussed promoting awareness and global understandings to develop students' overall global consciousness (Andreotti, 2010; Oxley & Morris, 2013). Findings also showed teachers valued democratic deliberations to foster international cooperation in order to tackle modern problems (Bentley, 2007). Thus, participants prioritized civic learning in world history that reflects the knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences identified as best practices for world history

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civic learning, as the elements they valued foster pluralist understandings for global democratic living.

Though in theory this should not be surprising, it stands in opposition to the research on the prevalence of different forms of global citizenship education—neoliberal global citizenship being the most common in education discourse yet least prominent in teachers' discussions here (e.g., Gaudelli, 2009). Overall, participants' responses contrasted with prominent mainstream discursive trends in global citizenship (e.g., NeoGC and NatGC), which are largely criticized by scholars for not adequately addressing the responsibilities of living in a global age (Bryan, 2014). Participants did not discuss concepts such as freedom and individual rights except when discussed in the context of students' responsibilities to the world. Likewise, NeoGC concepts, such as individualism and free market principles, received the least amount of support in the survey and were nearly absent in the interviews. As both NeoGC and NatGC may undermine civic learning for pluralist democracy (Myers, 2016), a de-prioritization of both forms reinforces the conclusion that teachers do not support these worldviews and, instead, hold more inclusive visions of global citizenship, such as cosmopolitanism.

Furthermore, teachers hold a holistic perception of world history civic education, which may also address the problems of narrowly focused Western-centric content (Stearns, 2010). The competencies embedded within effective world history civic education encourage pluralist democratic worldviews (Dunn, 2010). Thus, teachers' discussions of world history civic education addressed the larger issues plaguing the subject—both in terms of the needed holistic global competencies of history, as well as

global civic competencies, connecting world history content to meaningful civic concerns.

It is clear from assessing these findings that the teachers in this study largely hold conceptualizations that contribute to fostering the global civic understandings needed for an effective world history civic education, preparing young people for living in a pluralist democracy (see Appendix A). While scholars have long argued for these connections conceptually, this research is an entry point into developing a stronger, empirical understanding of world history teachers' roles in contributing to the civic mission of schooling.

Advocates of world history civic learning should be encouraged by this study's results, but acknowledge its limits. Teachers' beliefs have a great impact on their curricular instructional decision-making (Pajares, 1992). If these participants provide us a window into world history classrooms, then this study suggests a relationship exists between civic education and world history learning. However, as will be elaborated upon in the next section, teacher beliefs about civics may be impactful, but do not necessarily result in a direct translation to classroom practices (Banks, 2004). Teachers may be able to identify best practices, but holding these views does not always mean teachers will foreground these practices (Thacker, Lee, & Friedman, 2016). Hence, teachers' beliefs about the importance of world history civic learning does not necessarily mean those beliefs are manifesting in classrooms (Patterson, et al., 2012). If teachers hold powerful ideas about world history civic learning, then what is hindering classroom practices?

A Dormant World History Civic Education

In the previous section, I discussed how the world history teacher participants perceive the importance of civic education and how they conceptualize world history civics. As discussed in Chapter 4, this study's quantitative findings suggest world history teachers consider civic education's components (knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences) when planning curriculum. However, comparing different findings with one another, notably the survey explanations and interviews, reveal several factors hindering civic education having a prominent role in classrooms.

In the following section, I discuss how teachers' perceptions have rendered world history civics dormant in their curriculum planning practices. In particular, I discuss how teachers' perceptions of civic learning, plus their perceptions of constraints, hinder meaningful civic learning from taking place. Hindrances to civics manifesting in world history classrooms can be summarized in two primary ways: (1) participants see civics implicitly woven throughout world history, but do not consider it an explicit purpose driving curriculum decision-making; and (2) participants conceive of civics competing with other factors that impact curricular and instructional decisions. Thus, although findings suggest alignment with scholarship, the classroom presence of best practices for world history civics is likely limited. By exploring the relationship between teachers' ideas and explanation of their practices, this research contributes to understanding the schism between what teachers know to be best practices and what happens in classrooms.

Dormancy results from implicit civic learning. To meaningfully and effectively teach for democratic citizenship, teachers must make the curriculum's civic purpose "inclusive, intentional, and overt" (Levinson, 2012a, p. 114). Lacking a consistent, clear,

conceptual thread of civics in curriculum and instruction can, therefore, hinder world history education's contribution to larger civic competencies (Barton & Levstik, 2008). Though survey responses showed the majority of teachers consider civic learning—knowledge, skills, dispositions/attitudes, and experiences—when planning world history curriculum, survey explanations and interviews indicate civics' impact on curriculum planning is not as strong as the findings suggest. Instead, participants often saw civics as appearing organically in the classroom, not a factor driving their planning process. Hence, this research suggests a disconnect between what teachers know are best practices for world history and what's happening in classrooms (Patterson, et al., 2012). Teachers may not be intentionally cultivating civic learning as much as they recognize they should.

Participants' experiences, thus, reveal a tension in world history civics. As teachers' instructional goals and purposes impact content and pedagogical decisions, civics' absence during teachers' planning weakens its presence within world history (Darling-Hammond et al., 2005). Lacking an intentional civic outcome means other purposes potentially eclipse civic education's role in shaping world history curriculum (Levstik, 2008). Instead of planning for an explicit civic purpose, teachers saw world history civics as an implicit component of their courses. If connections between history and civic education are implicit, students' potential to make meaningful connections between content and the civic sphere are limited (Barton & Levstik, 2008). "Simply teaching students about events that are relevant to the present… without ever directly mentioning that relevance, may not be effective" (Barton & Levstik, 2009). Thus, focusing on world history learning without explicitly connecting learned content to civic

life might do little to develop students' global civic competencies, undermining world history's contribution to civic education.

Dormancy results from perceived constraints. As the ideas teachers possess about content, consciously or otherwise, impact curricular and instructional decisions, it is vitally important that teachers recognize a relationship between civics and world history learning (Shulman, 1987). However, if teachers believe their hands to be tied in terms of their decision-making—whether by standards, the lack of resources, or other limitations—then their teaching will be bounded by those perceived constraints (Cornbleth, 2002). Likewise, teachers may possess definitions of citizenship that elevate civic learning as a primary purpose of world history. But, if teachers see limited pathways in their curriculum for civic learning, then opportunities for world history civics will be limited (Patterson, et.al., 2012). Though the study's results may suggest world history teachers support the civic mission of schools and the civic goals of world history education, the absence of intentional civic learning opportunities hinders attainment of those goals.

For example, let's consider how teachers' perceptions around content demands act as a hindrance to world history civics. Participants described civic education content knowledge as competing for curricular space (and time) in world history. Though not universally so, teachers' discussions of civic education frequently centered on civic content knowledge, and indeed, resulted in the most robust conversations across the different components of civic learning. Teachers often referred to specific instances in world history where students could assess the relationship between individuals and their government. Notably, Ms. Higgins best captured this perspective, stating that civics falls

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down her list of priorities because "government isn't at the top and it probably shouldn't be." The potential problem here is twofold. Civics has limited space in world history classrooms because: first, civic education is primarily seen as specific content knowledge, rather than a multidimensional concept; and, second, the content knowledge is often connected to government/governance.

This result is not surprising. Conceptualizing civic education predominantly as content knowledge reflects recent policy reform around civic education, which also focuses on civic content knowledge accumulation, rather than skills, dispositions/attitudes, or experiences (Levine, 2012). However, narrowly defining civic education as particular content knowledge may hinder the ways in which it can manifest in world history. The relationship between individuals and the government is an oft-cited theme of civic education, but it does not reflect the discipline as a whole, nor does it reflect all components of the political realm (Barton & Levstik, 2009). Likewise, content coverage is often a primary focus of history courses, placing teachers under constant time pressures to cover a wealth of historical information (Levstik, 2008). If teachers see civic learning primarily as content knowledge, rather than a multi-faceted disciplinary lens for learning world history, "civics" may be sidelined in favor of other content priorities.

It is important to note that the above assessment is not meant to dismiss the importance of a strong civic knowledge base. Indeed, informed action is needed to adequately prepare students for civic life (NCSS, 2013; Levinson & Levine, 2013). However, knowledge accumulation alone is insufficient to prepare or encourage students to engage in civic life (Noddings, 2013; Hahn & Alviar-Martin, 2008). Knowledge alone does not challenge students to expand their previously held beliefs (Nyhan & Reifler,

2010). Nor will focusing solely on extensive knowledge mean that students understand how to apply learning towards informed, participatory citizenship, particularly if education is divorced from socially minded civic dispositions and meaningful experiences (Barton & Levstik, 2008; Nussbaum, 2002). If civic education is primarily associated with concrete content demands, teachers may continue to see it as competing for classroom space, rather than a logical extension of learning.

Textbooks may further exacerbate the issue. Ms. Lee said, "you need to find ways to go beyond the standards and textbook to connect things to modern day." Despite Ms. Lee recognizing the limits of textbooks, textbooks still have a great impact on teachers' curricular decisions, particularly in social studies (Apple, 1992; Levstik, 2008). Civics as a theme of world history is notably absent in world history textbooks (Marino, 2011). Further exacerbating the problem is the absence of citizenship and civic themes within curriculum guides, such as the AP World History course description and state standards (College Board, 2017; Rapoport, 2009). A lack of resources, coupled with content demand burdens, places civic education in a precarious position—teachers may support integrating it into world history, but feel they have few resources to do so.

In sum, this study's participants, on the whole, conceptualized world history civic learning as contributing to students' development of pluralist understandings that foster global democratic living. Though an encouraging result, findings also show participants are not consistently foregrounding civic learning in their curriculum planning. Participants saw constraints limiting their opportunities for civics. Thus, this research shows participants' perceptions of world history civics conflicts with their beliefs about how to create opportunities for civic learning. Perceived limitations to their curricular

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decision-making are barriers to robust world history civic learning, suggesting world history civic education—fostering pluralist understandings for global democratic living—may be dormant.

Dormancy Undermines Pluralist Global Civic Worldviews

Dormancy poses more problems to teachers' versions of world history civics flourishing within classrooms. Though teachers can conceptualize world history civics one way, research suggests teachers' practices may contradict their espoused civic beliefs (Banks, 2004; Myers, 2006). Discussion of this problem is divided into two main ideas: (1) if civic goals aligned with teachers' definitions are not an intentional part of decision-making, educators are likely to, instead, teach through more narrow nationalist and/or neoliberal lenses; and (2) de-politicization leads to an absence of civic learning, more generally, which reinforces dominant global citizenship forms (i.e., NeoGC and NatGC). Thus, in light of existing scholarship, this study's results suggest world history teachers may be, inadvertently, teaching in contrast to their beliefs for world history civics.

Defaulting to nationalist and neoliberal civics. When civic learning occurs in world history classrooms, scholarship on teachers' civic identity suggests practices may not align with teachers' views (Banks, 2004; Myers, 2006). On the whole, study participants provided limited examples of explicit civic learning in world history classrooms. Though some teachers' examples included meaningful civic experiences, scholarship suggests those examples may be the exception rather than the rule (Evans, 2006). The most frequent type of civic engagement opportunities in schools are those that reflect personally responsible citizenship (Obenchain, et al., 2016; Westheimer & Kahne, 2004). These civic experiences are not bad by any means; however, personally

responsible behavior alone does not do enough to address global issues, nor does it challenge the status quo (Bryan, 2014). When teachers do not teach clearly and intentionally for civic outcomes that align with their particular worldview—beyond personal responsibility—they may instead be reinforcing the status quo in global citizenship. The current dominant trends (i.e., the status quo) are decidedly not focused on developing students' pluralist understandings to promote global democratic living. Notably, these views are represented by the NeoGC and NatGC visions, both wedded to existing hegemonic systems (Gaudelli, 2009).

This assertion is supported in studies on teachers' perceptions of citizenship. Educators may hold broad, inclusive definitions of citizenship, but their understandings do not always manifest in practice (Banks, 2004). Even when teachers value broad, holistic understandings, they tend to teach narrower, nationalist, or nation-centric, global civic perspectives (Alviar-Martin, 2010; Myers, 2006). Participants in the present study stressed the importance of expanding students' identity beyond the nation, considering their multiple civic affiliations. Holding these views of citizenship is an important factor in establishing robust civic learning in world history classrooms (Knowles, 2017; Myers, McBride, & Anderson, 2015). Since civic learning was deemed implicit and infrequently at the forefront of teachers' decision-making, it is possible that nation-centric conceptions have a stronger presence in classrooms than the pluralistic version teachers' supported.

De-politicization. The absence of intentional civic learning opportunities does not mean students leave the world history classroom without ideas about their civic lives. Classrooms are inherently politically contested spaces, where students develop their civic identity (Obenchain, et al., 2016). When teachers or schools try to de-politicize

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classrooms, they instead reinforce the status quo and silence any ideas challenging its supposed 'neutrality' (Kincheloe, 2008). If teachers do not intentionally integrate civic learning, whether explicitly to de-politicize their classrooms or not, the civic vacuum is filled with dominant narratives, which can go unquestioned (Bisonnette, 2016). Just as teachers are likely to use nationalist civic constructions—despite their personal values— an absence of civic learning may reinforce neoliberal and nationalist global citizenship visions (Banks, 2004; Kincheloe, 2008). Study participants showed the least support for NeoGC, despite it being the most prevalent in education (Bryan, 2014; Gaudelli, 2013; Nussbaum, 2010). If civic learning is dormant in world history, and dormancy reinforces the status quo, then it follows that world history classrooms may be reinforcing narrow global civic worldviews, such as NeoGC, rather than the robust holistic forms for which teachers advocated (Myers, McBride, & Anderson, 2015).

De-politicization coupled with a focus on civic content knowledge—rather than skills, dispositions, and experiences to enact change—also reinforces NeoGC. Though knowledge of others is important in fostering a global consciousness, it does not necessarily facilitate change. Without opportunities to apply learning with an impetus on change, connecting content to global responsibilities is limited (Dill, 2013; Levinson & Levine, 2013: Oxley & Morris, 2013). As participants expressed fear of being too politically charged, this fear potentially limits the extent to which critical civic learning occurs in practice (Knight Abowitz & Harnish, 2006). Likewise, if world history only discusses inequity, without opportunities to apply learning and question such hegemonic systems, neoliberal ideas go unchallenged (Andreotti, 2010).

Therein lies an avenue for neoliberal and national global citizenship to take root in world history classrooms. On the surface, this study's findings suggest NeoGC and NatGC are deprioritized. Concepts such as freedom and individual rights were not prominent among any of the data sets except when discussed in the context of students' responsibilities to the world (Knight Abowitz & Harnish, 2006). Individualism and free market principles, concepts closely associated with NeoGC, were deprioritized in the survey and nearly absent in the interviews. This absence suggests teachers value civic learning that prepares students for commitments to pluralist democracy (Kymlicka, 2004; Nussbaum, 2010). However, the absence of world history civics is, in effect, a de-politicization of social studies classrooms—reinforcing the status quo and further hindering pluralistic forms of world history civics from appearing in classrooms (Takaki, 1993).

As NeoGC and NatGC visions are the most prominent in education (Gaudelli, 2009), and teachers in this study are largely not integrating civic learning that challenges these worldviews, these visions of global citizenship may be the dominant form in world history classrooms. Or, at the very least, world history classrooms are not intentionally challenging these dominant discursive trends.

Implications

This study suggests the need to expand academic dialogue towards intentionally and explicitly aligning world history curriculum and instruction with different dimensions of civic education. Findings indicate that world history teachers' conceptualizations of world history civics aligns with scholarly interpretations of best practices for effective world history civic learning—world history and civic education's shared purpose being to

foster students' global civic competencies, grounded in pluralist democratic understandings. While the study's participants reported civics within world history is an important purpose, they explained how several constraints limited the extent to which civic learning manifested within world history curriculum and instruction. This study's findings highlight how world history teachers conceptualize world history civic education, but also suggest a tension between world history teachers' purpose and practices.

Three primary implications drawn from this research are: First, educators need to purposefully align civic learning and civic objectives within curricular and instructional planning for world history. Second, instructional resources, such as the *C3 Framework* and Inquiry Design Model, should be supported to facilitate civic learning that explicitly connects world history to civic spaces through authentic practices. Third, structural supports within schools and districts that address the real and perceived hindrances of civic learning in world history need development.

Purposeful alignment between civic objectives and curriculum planning

Though it may be dispiriting to think of civic education in a dormant state, dormancy does not mean dead. If civic learning is dormant, that means it is well positioned to be impactful in world history. This study showed participants' descriptions position world history to foster global civic understandings, just as scholars believe it should. However, the lack of a clear, explicit civic thread hinders world history civic education's ability to connect learning to desired outcomes. As noted, teachers indicated that civic education was implicitly woven throughout their curriculum and instruction.

Thus, the next step is to awaken the dormant world history civics, making the civic thread more robust through explicit, intentional, and overt connections to civic learning.

As education for civics does not consistently drive world history curriculum and instructional planning, desired civic outcomes may be limited in current practices (Levinson, 2012a). Because teaching goals impact curricular decision-making (Martens & Gainous, 2013), teaching for world history civics must be a clearly identified purpose for curriculum and instruction. Otherwise, civic education may continue to be lauded as an educational outcome, but one disconnected from practice. Professional developments focused on connecting curricular content explicitly to civic learning would help orient teachers' decision-making to the larger civic purpose of their courses (Hawley, 2012).

To this end, though the teachers' views of world history civics position world history to contribute to global civic competencies, the ways in which teachers saw civics manifesting were conceived as adding to already high content demands. If world history teachers and education scholars want to use world history as a space to develop global civic competencies, "civic education" needs to move beyond civics and government classes. If education's primary goal is preparing young people for civic life, all learning should clearly connect what happens in the classroom to civic application. Part and parcel to finding a civic purpose to course content is for teachers to think of civic education as both concrete and conceptual in nature (Barton & Levstik, 2009; Parker, 2018). If teachers use civic learning as an analytical lens, rather than discrete content, civics can become a multidisciplinary field, providing K-12 students' opportunities to make meaningful connections between learned content and the civic sphere.

Using an example from ancient history illustrates this idea. Shi Huangdi was the first emperor of a unified China and founder of the Qin Dynasty, making him likely to appear in world history learning that covers ancient topics. In the process of unifying "China," Qin Shi Huangdi established economic and social reforms resulting in standardization of measurements, road system, language, money, etc. At the same time, he had opposing thought or criticism destroyed. Throughout the empire, Shi Huangdi had books burned and scholars killed if they did not adhere to legalism, the empire's official ideology. Happening over 2000 years ago on the other side of the globe, Shi Huangdi and his actions may feel disconnected to many students' civic lives. However, if we consider civics more conceptually, there are many ways in which students can apply learning about Shi Huangdi to their lives. His reign illustrates: tension between unity and opposing thought; how limiting freedom of expression impacts cultural traditions; destruction of knowledge's impact on communities; the importance of diverse ideas for maintaining a multicultural society; the impact (and dangers) of forced conformity; to name a few. All of these ideas can be applied to questions around freedom of speech/expression, as well as access to knowledge (including the proliferation of "fake news" rhetoric).

Civic learning opportunities that extend out of this content can include: assessing local and national legislation in terms of individual freedoms; analyzing different news outlets' reporting on a topic in consideration of how messaging may be promoting or stifling access to information; or an assessment of assigned readings in students' school in consideration of the different perspectives therein. As this example illustrates, a re-conceptualization of world history and civic education through a conceptual lens, rather than solely concrete facts or content, could reveal meaningful opportunities to explicitly

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weave civics throughout world history curriculum and instruction in a way that adds less time burdens. Re-conceptualizing civic education could, thus, lessen the challenge teachers see for world history civic education.

Walter Parker (2018) describes one potential approach as powerful curriculum. Parker outlines three conditions for powerful curriculum. When applied to civic education, the conditions reveal a framework for re-conceptualizing world history civic education. First, associated knowledge should be abstract, so it can be applied to various contexts. Second, seeing civics as abstract knowledge should be accepted across educational communities. Third, civic education should manifest in an established curricula framework, such as history. In other words, achieving world history's civic purpose is contingent on educators conceptualizing it in more abstract ways, but nonetheless incorporating it into schooling through an established knowledge structure. In this way, capitalizing on civics' role in world history means conceptualizing it as a thread woven throughout the course, rather than something to be added to limited classroom time. Teachers reveal the ways in which civic education is already woven throughout world history, thereby making civics a clear and robust connective thread.

Inquiry Resources

Supporting civic learning in world history classrooms also means developing resources to support such goals. Participants in this study believe a lack of resources and supports hinder opportunities for civic education into world history. One promising pathway for civic learning is through authentic pedagogies, notably inquiry. Though inquiry is not new, increased attention to inquiry learning pedagogies and classroom implementation has developed as a response to the *C3 Framework* and complementary

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Inquiry Design Model Blueprint (IDM) (NCSS, 2013; Grant, Swan, Lee, 2017). As such,

research is emerging concerning teachers' use of inquiry, teachers' development of

inquiry learning experiences, and the needed teacher supports (e.g., Thacker & Friedman,

2017).

Instructional scaffolds, such as the IDM, can help teachers use inquiry to

construct civic learning opportunities (Thacker, Lee, Fitchett, & Journell, 2018),

including by connecting world history classrooms to civic spaces (Maguth, Tomer, &

Apanius, 2019; Moore, 2015). The IDM Blueprint includes a "Taking Informed Action"

component, which connects the inquiry's content to an out-of-classroom context (Grant,

Swan, Lee, 2017). Inquiries, such as those on *C3 Teachers,* provide examples as to how

teachers can connect world history to civic spaces. At present, the site has thirty-seven

world history inquiries.[7] Though this is quite a few, respectively, it is only scratching the

surface of world history topics that are ripe for civic learning. Though some teachers

noted that the *C3 Framework* intentionally weaves civic education throughout its

guidance (NCSS, 2013), overall, teachers perceived there to be a dearth of meaningful

civic learning materials for world history. Certainly, teachers can build their own

classroom inquiries. Other resources on the *C3 Teachers* site provide examples of civic

action for teachers to apply to different curricular contexts (e.g., Muetterties & Swan,

2019). However, connecting history, particularly world and/or ancient history, is a

difficult task when the civic connection may be abstract (Swan, Grant, & Lee, 2019).

Present challenges notwithstanding, inquiry-based learning and associated instructional

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[7] As of November 12, 2019.

scaffolds are resources that support civic learning and, accordingly, should be actively developed to support world history civics.

Address the perceived battle against the clock

If teachers value world history civic learning, as this study shows, then barriers to these practices should be addressed. Developing inquiry resources, as discussed above, addresses one particular barrier. However, additional resources are not enough to center civic learning in world history. Despite growing interest around the *C3 Framework*, the shift to consistent inquiry practices is far from complete (Saye & the Social Studies Inquiry Research Collaborative [SSIRC], 2013). Likewise, teachers who report using inquiry often neglect the civic action component (Thacker, Lee, & Friedman, 2016).

A frequent reason for civics getting the short shrift is the persistent ticking of the clock. When attempting to teach a comprehensive history of the world, time constraints feel all the more acute. To address this problem, the College Board recently revised the AP World History course. The changes have been widely criticized as privileging western societies (Flaherty, 2018). One problem addressed by exacerbating another. The AP requirements notwithstanding, the external pressures to teaching are very real and well-studied (e.g., Segal, 2000; Stearns, 2007; Van Hover & Yeager, 2007). However, they may pose more of a mental barrier in world history than one reflective of current circumstances. Students do as well or better on assessments when taught using authentic practices, such as inquiry, which embeds civic application (Saye & SSRC, 2013). Likewise, teachers can find ways to teach with rigorous social studies practices, as well as prepare students for high stakes testing (e.g., Grant and Gradwell, 2010; Fraker, Muetterties, Swan, & Swan, 2019).

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In consideration of how to shift teacher practices towards civics-aligned inquiry learning, I turn to Guskey's (1986) model for teacher change. Guskey says for teacher beliefs or attitudes to change, teachers must first change their practices. If teachers perceive changes in student outcomes, they will become believers. In the context of this study, changing teacher practices towards integrating more opportunities for civic learning must be met with changes in student outcomes. Then, according to Guskey (1986) teachers will be convinced that civic learning contributes to learning world history, rather than take away classroom time. In sum, if teachers have access to resources that foreground a civic purpose and students have improved outcomes, teachers will see the results in their classrooms and develop beliefs that produce more long-term instructional changes.

Suggestions for Future Research

Teachers' conceptualizations and integration of civic education in world history are areas needing more studies to understand how teachers, teacher educators, and education scholars can use these ideas to foster robust civic opportunities through relevant application of world history learning. This study shows several areas for needed research:

- School/classroom-based studies on students' understanding and application of world history civic education.
- World history's influence on teachers and students' views of civic education.
- How the different visions of global citizenship may impact world history education in the classroom.

- Different instructional or pedagogical strategies to reveal authentic civic learning opportunities, such as inquiry-learning.

In addition to the above areas for future research, this study focused on a particular subset of teachers, who are a part of the larger C3 Teacher network. Additional studies on teachers' descriptions of world history civic education would provide a greater understanding of the phenomena at hand, beyond this particular network.

Conclusion

This study examined how world history teachers describe the role of civic education in world history courses. Scholars have long identified democratic citizenship as a primary outcome of schooling, as well as the importance of world history in developing students' global civic understandings. However, the ways in which world history learning contributes to civic learning, in practice, is less understood. Using an explanatory sequential mixed methods design, I used quantitative and qualitative methods to investigate how teachers describe world history civic education. Analyzing survey data, survey explanations, and interviews, I found world history teachers described civics as manifesting strongly in world history. Survey data indicated the majority of teachers agree and support civic education in world history. Teachers' conceptualizations of world history civics largely aligned with a civic purpose to prepare students with pluralist democratic understandings for global civic life, aligning their views with best practices. Though teachers indicated on the survey that world history civic education was an important part of their curriculum planning, interviews revealed a robust, explicit civic thread in curriculum and instruction was largely missing. Comparison of the two research strands suggest a disconnect between purpose and practice. Though teachers' beliefs

about world history and civic learning align with scholarship, their beliefs about *how* to create opportunities for civic learning in their classrooms are much more limited. This study shows world history teachers are well-poised to reveal civic learning throughout world history education—aligning the lofty goal of preparing students for engaged civic life on a global stage. However, to do so, teachers will need to explicitly and intentionally find opportunities for civic learning throughout their curricular and instructional decision-making.

Appendix A: Conceptual Frameworks

Table 1: Civic Education's Components in History and World History

	Knowledge	Skills	Attitudes/Dispositions	Experiences
Civic Education	• Necessary content knowledge base for civic life • Content that contributes to understanding of values, political, economic, social systems, etc. Campbell, 2012; Niemi, 2012	• Needed skills and/or abilities to participate in civic life • Evidence-based argumentation • Assessing competing claims • Source analysis • Compare and contrast • Deliberation, Discussion Campbell, 2012; Parker, 2003; Saavedra, 2012	• Commitments to civic principles needed to live in a democratic society • Commitment to individual rights and social responsibilities • Commitment to democratic principles and to the common good Barton & Levstik, 2009; Campbell, 2012; Pearson & Waterson, 2013	• Opportunities to practice participating in civic life • Meaningful application of knowledge, skills, attitudes/dispositions • Personally responsible citizen, participatory citizen, and justice-oriented citizen Campbell, 2012; Westheimer & Kahne, 2004
History's Contribution to Civic Education	• History content provides the foundational knowledge of institution, collective past • Should help students identify with the ideas revolving around civic republicanism Barton & Levstik, 2008, 2009; McNeill, 1985	History skills include: • Making reasoned judgments • Assessing competing claims • Using and assessing multiple sources as evidence • Perspective taking/recognition Barton & Levstik, 2008, 2009	History develops civic republicanism by: • Providing models of civic virtue • Analyzing and making moral judgments • Values analysis • Respond morally to the past Barton & Levstik, 2008, 2009	• Exhibition of historical knowledge by applying skills in a way that includes others (i.e., is not just for individual fulfillment or assessment for educational accountability) Barton & Levstik, 2008, 2009
World History's Contribution to Civic Education	• Provides the broad, global content knowledge and conceptual frames needed to interact with the world's people • Understand multiple perspectives	• Historical skills above plus applying those to broadened temporal, spatial, and abstract phenomena Bentley, 2007; Merryfield & Kasai, 2010	• Multiculturalism • Pluralist democracy • Address global problems through international dialogue and cooperation Bentley, 2007 Girard & Harris, 2013; Watt, 2012	• Platform to address globally situated issues/problems Girard & Harris, 2013

	Dunn, 2010; Merryfield & Kasai, 2010			

Table 2: Citizenship's Components by Global Citizenship Vision

	Shared Identity & Membership	Individual Rights	Social Responsibilities	Presence in Education
Neoliberal	• Individuals, economic agents • Members of the global economy • Still largely national orientation	• Rights reflect principles of free market, laissez-faire, capitalism • Democratic principles are secondary • Freedom from authority	• Responsibilities to help one another access and participate in the global economy • Not necessarily about equitable access • Shared decision-making • Personally responsible citizenship (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004)	• Most common approach to global education (Buckner & Russell, 2013) • Volunteering
National	• Legal and political national identity • National membership in international spheres	• Rights reflect the particulars of individual nation-states • National sovereignty may have priority over international obligations • Extending rights to those outside the nation-state is inconsistent, not guaranteed	• Responsibilities to help those outside the nation-state as a means to maintain global stability, which supports the nation's ideals and/or interests	• Nation-state sovereignty often not challenged (Goren & Yemini, 2017) • Civitas International, Center for Civic Education
Marxist/ Critical	• Members of a global community • "Membership" is unequal, but want egalitarianism, collective identity	• Rights reflective of democratic ideals, equity	• Responsibilities to adopt a social-justice stance to challenge structures that perpetuate inequity on a global scale • Necessitates social transformation	• Nearly absent from empirical work and education policy (Goren & Yemini, 2017) • Problem-oriented global education in Great Britain and Canada (Pike, 2000)
World Justice & Governance	• Members of a global polity • Inclusive humanity-based citizenship/ membership	• Based on international legislative bodies' codifications of human rights • e.g., Universal Declaration of	• Upholding the legal frameworks of international governing bodies • International deliberations, cooperation	• International Baccalaureate Program • Human Rights curriculum • Model UN

	• "Singularity of personhood" (Gaudelli, 2009, p. 75)	Human Rights (1948)		• Future Problem-Solving Program International (FPSPI)
Cosmopolitan	• Members of a global community • "Transcendent view of citizenship" (Gaudelli, 2009, p. 76) • Respect for the local	• Rights reflective of democratic ideals, equity, understanding • Responsive to local particulars and universal ethical ideas	• Moral responsibilities to all of humanity • Responsibility to understand others • Not necessarily based on pre-constructed legal responsibilities	• Prevalent in academic scholarship, rare within curriculum (Gaudelli, 2009) • Lived realities of teachers/students reflects overlapping citizenship stances (Alviar-Martin, 2010)

Table 3: Civic Education's Components by Global Citizenship Vision

	Knowledge	Skills	Attitudes/Dispositions	Experiences
Neoliberal	• Principles of free market, laissez-faire capitalism • Knowledge is utility for global societies towards achieving competitive advantage • More emphasis of Western ideals	• Using competitive logic • Not about deliberation, "neoliberals contend that democracies are fundamentally in agreement about the rules of civic and social life" (Gaudelli, 2009, p. 71)	• Less emphasis on civic republicanism or commitment to address inequity • More focus on individual rights than social responsibilities • Responsibilities to help one another through personally responsible actions • Economy can be used towards social change (Friedman, 2005)	• Participation in economy is a civic act • Personally responsible citizenship (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004) • Individualism • Civic spectatorship (Ross, 2000)
National	• Legal and political system of the US • Legal and political system of non-US in order to situate US • Knowledge of others to better understand themselves (as individuals and as nation)	• Making reasoned judgments • Evidence-based argumentation • Compare and contrast	• Responsibilities to help those outside the nation-state as a means to support the nation's ideals and/or interests o Global stability maintains national sovereignty • Less emphasis on civic republicanism extending to those outside the nation or on addressing global structural inequity • Strand One: civics is exclusively national; global is a separate sphere • Strand Two: consider the extent to which rights do extend to the world community	• Reflective of personally responsible citizen and participatory citizen (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004) • Civic spectatorship (Ross, 2000)
Marxist/ Critical	• Understandings of economic and political structural inequity: class, gender, race, etc.	• Critical analysis • Evidence-based argumentation • Compare and contrast	• Responsibilities to adopt a social-justice stance to challenge structures that perpetuate inequity on a global scale • Commitment to equality, equity • Create an international community	• Challenging exploitive capitalist system towards socialism • Challenge various hegemonic structures • Justice-oriented citizen (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004)

World Justice & Governance	• Knowledge of international legal frameworks and human rights (e.g., UN Declaration of Human Rights, 1948); universal values • Understand sociocultural differences	• Assessing competing claims • Evidence-based argumentation • Compare and contrast • Making reasoned judgments • Deliberation, Discussion	• Responsibilities to uphold the legal frameworks of international governing bodies • International deliberations, cooperation • Create an international community	• Personally responsible citizen, participatory citizen, and justice-oriented citizen (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004)
Cosmopolitan	• Understanding of others through dialogue; respect of difference • Inclusive understanding of humanity through study of sociocultural particulars • Multiple perspectives	• Assessing competing claims • Evidence-based argumentation • Compare and contrast • Making reasoned judgments • Deliberation, Discussion • Listening across difference	• Engage in discourse about moral responsibilities to all of humanity • Rights reflective of democratic ideals, equity, understanding • Responsibility to understand and respect others • Responsive to local particulars and universal ethical ideas	• "Cooperative modes of activity" (Gaudelli, 2009, p. 76) • Civics as a social act, rather than individual • Justice-oriented citizen (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004)

Appendix B: Study Procedures & Timeline

TIMELINE	PHASE	PROCEDURE	PRODUCT
September – October 2018	Quantitative Data Collection	• Cross-sectional web-based survey (n=123) • Qualtrics survey software	• Numeric and text data

October – November 2018	Quantitative Data Analysis	• Data screening
		• Internal Consistency Test
		• Univariate Statistics
		  o Frequency analysis
		  o Descriptive statistics
		• SPSS quantitative software, v. 25
		• Respondent explanation field analysis
			• Missing data, outliers, extreme values
			• Cronbach's alpha
			• Frequency distribution table and graphs
			• Descriptive statistics table
			• Description with emergent themes

	Case Selection: Interview	• Purposefully select 8 participants based on variance of responses (n=8)	• Cases (n=8) • Interview protocol
November 2018	Qualitative Data Collection	• Individual telephone interviews with 8 participants • Zoom Video Communications	• Audio recording • Text data (interview transcripts, interview notes)
December 2018 – August 2019	Qualitative Data Analysis	• Abductive coding • Coding and thematic analysis	• Visual model of thematic analysis • Codes and themes • Categorization of similar codes and themes • Axial codes
	Integration of the Quantitative and Qualitative Results	• Interpretation and explanation of the quantitative and qualitative data analysis	• Discussion • Conclusions • Implications for field
January 2020	Defend		

Appendix C: Email Solicitation

WHAT IS CIVIC EDUCATION'S ROLE IN WORLD HISTORY?

Soliciting participation in a research study on world history:

Share your perspective by answering this **brief survey**

Current and former *world history teachers* are invited to participate in a study regarding *civics* and *world history teaching*. This is a part of a larger research study seeking to better understand teachers' perceptions of civics instruction in high school social studies classes, specifically World History.

Participation involves a *short survey* with a possible follow-up interview. All participation is voluntary. Participation in the survey does not require you be interviewed.
Please contact me for more information.
https://uky.az1.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_bQ8hGhqbpKv2tTf

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Take the Survey!

Appendix D: Research Instruments

Survey Instrument

Survey Online Consent Letter:

The purpose of this study is to better understand the civic purpose of world history classes, as perceived by world history teachers. Although you will not get personal benefit from taking part in this research study, your responses may help us understand more about the extent to which teachers believe this purpose to exist in their teaching, as well as how it manifests.

We hope to receive completed surveys from about 200 people, so your answers are important to us. Of course, you have a choice about whether or not to complete the survey, but if you do participate, you are free to skip any questions or discontinue at any time.

The survey will take about 5-15 minutes to complete.

There are no known risks to participating in this study. Your response to the survey will be kept confidential to the extent allowed by the law. When we write about this study, you will not be identified. Please be aware, while we make every effort to safeguard your data once received from the online survey/data gathering company, given the nature of online surveys, as with anything involving the Internet, we can never guarantee the confidentiality of the data while still on the survey/data gathering company's servers, or while en route to either them or us. It is also possible the raw data collected for research purposes may be used for marketing or reporting purposes by the survey/data gathering company after the research is concluded, depending on the company's Terms of Service and Privacy policies.

If you have questions about the study, please feel free to ask; my contact information is given below. If you have complaints, suggestions, or questions about your rights as a research volunteer, contact the staff in the University of Kentucky Office of Research Integrity at 859-257-9428 or toll-free at 1-866-400-9428.

Thank you in advance for your assistance with this important project.

Carly Muetterties

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E-MAIL: carly.muetterties@uky.edu

Please feel free to print a copy of this consent page to keep for your records.

Choosing the "Agree" option below indicates:

- You have read the above information
- Your consent to participate
- You are at least 18 years of age

If you do not wish to participate, please decline participation by clicking the "disagree" option or closing the form.

- Agree/Disagree

[NEXT PAGE]

Civic education prepares students for democratic citizenship, as it connects educational experiences to relevant civic contexts outside the classroom. It prepares young people to be active participants in civic life (e.g., informal/formal political, social, economic spheres).

Each is followed with a short-response field: Explain (optional)

SECTION 1: Importance of Civics

1. Civics is an important component of any class.
    - (5) Strongly Agree; (4) Agree; (3) Neutral; (2) Disagree; (1) Strongly Disagree
2. Civics is an important component of any social studies class.
    - (5) Strongly Agree; (4) Agree; (3) Neutral; (2) Disagree; (1) Strongly Disagree
3. Civics is an important component of any history class.
    - (5) Strongly Agree; (4) Agree; (3) Neutral; (2) Disagree; (1) Strongly Disagree
4. Civics is an important component of US History classes.
    - (5) Strongly Agree; (4) Agree; (3) Neutral; (2) Disagree; (1) Strongly Disagree
5. Civics is an important component of world history classes.
    - (5) Strongly Agree; (4) Agree; (3) Neutral; (2) Disagree; (1) Strongly Disagree

SECTION 2 : Civic Knowledge -- civic knowledge is the knowledge base needed for citizenship.

6. How important is each of the following forms of civic knowledge in world history?
    a. Knowledge of the development of the global economy.
        - (5) Extremely Important; (4) Very Important; (3) Moderately Important; (2) Slightly Important; (1) Not at all Important
    b. Knowledge of the nation's place and influence in global systems.
        - (5) Extremely Important; (4) Very Important; (3) Moderately Important; (2) Slightly Important; (1) Not at all Important
    c. Knowledge of the cause and effects of inequity/unfairness within global political and economic structures.
        - (5) Extremely Important; (4) Very Important; (3) Moderately Important; (2) Slightly Important; (1) Not at all Important
    d. Knowledge of others in order to understand the need and establishment of international rights and responsibilities.
        - (5) Extremely Important; (4) Very Important; (3) Moderately Important; (2) Slightly Important; (1) Not at all Important
    e. Knowledge of sociocultural differences in order to foster an inclusive understanding of humanity.
        - (5) Extremely Important; (4) Very Important; (3) Moderately Important; (2) Slightly Important; (1) Not at all Important
7. Which of the following best reflects the most important civic knowledge in world history?
    (a) Knowledge of the development of the global economy
    (b) Knowledge of the nation's place and influence in global systems
    (c) Knowledge of the cause and effects of inequity/unfairness within global political and economic structures
    (d) Knowledge of others in order to understand the need and establishment of international rights and responsibilities
    (e) Knowledge of sociocultural differences in order to foster an inclusive understanding of humanity
8. When I plan any curriculum, I consider the ways in which the content reflects necessary civic knowledge.
    - (5) Strongly Agree; (4) Agree; (3) Neutral; (2) Disagree; (1) Strongly Disagree
9. When I plan world history curriculum, I consider the ways in which the content reflects necessary civic knowledge.
    - (5) Strongly Agree; (4) Agree; (3) Neutral; (2) Disagree; (1) Strongly Disagree

SECTION 3 : Civic Skills -- civic skills are the skills needed to participate in civic life.

10. How important is each of the following civic skills in world history?
    a. Skills to be career-ready and compete in a global marketplace (e.g., reasoned judgments, evidence assessment)
        - (5) Extremely Important; (4) Very Important; (3) Moderately Important; (2) Slightly Important; (1) Not at all Important

b. Skills to maintain and/or promote the nation's interests in global affairs (e.g., comparing and contrasting, evidence assessment)
- (5) Extremely Important; (4) Very Important; (3) Moderately Important; (2) Slightly Important; (1) Not at all Important

c. Skills to address inequity/unfairness in global systems (e.g., critical analysis, evidence-based argumentation)
- (5) Extremely Important; (4) Very Important; (3) Moderately Important; (2) Slightly Important; (1) Not at all Important

d. Skills to foster democratic deliberation and address global problems through international cooperation (e.g., evidence-based argumentation, deliberation, discussion)
- (5) Extremely Important; (4) Very Important; (3) Moderately Important; (2) Slightly Important; (1) Not at all Important

e. Skills to establish and foster global universal values (e.g., deliberation, discussion, listening)
- (5) Extremely Important; (4) Very Important; (3) Moderately Important; (2) Slightly Important; (1) Not at all Important

11. Which of the following best reflects the most important civic skills in world history?
   (a) Skills to be career-ready and compete in a global marketplace (e.g., reasoned judgments, evidence assessment)
   (b) Skills to maintain and/or promote the nation's interests in global affairs (e.g., comparing and contrasting, evidence assessment)
   (c) Skills to address inequity/unfairness in global systems (e.g., critical analysis, evidence-based argumentation)
   (d) Skills to foster democratic deliberation and address global problems through international cooperation (e.g., evidence-based argumentation, deliberation, discussion)
   (e) Skills to establish and foster global universal values (e.g., deliberation, discussion, listening)

12. When I plan any curriculum, I consider the ways in which the content reflects necessary civic skills.
- (5) Strongly Agree; (4) Agree; (3) Neutral; (2) Disagree; (1) Strongly Disagree

13. When I plan world history curriculum, I consider the ways in which the content reflects necessary civic skills.
- (5) Strongly Agree; (4) Agree; (3) Neutral; (2) Disagree; (1) Strongly Disagree

SECTION 4 : Civic Dispositions/Attitudes – civic dispositions/attitudes are commitments to civic principles (e.g., democracy, the common good)

14. How important is each of the following civic dispositions or attitudes in world history?
    a. Commitment to free market principles
        - (5) Extremely Important;   (4) Very Important;   (3) Moderately Important;   (2) Slightly Important;   (1) Not at all Important
    b. Commitment to foster the nation's ideals and interests through global relationships.
        - (5) Extremely Important;   (4) Very Important;   (3) Moderately Important;   (2) Slightly Important;   (1) Not at all Important
    c. Commitment to social responsibilities by challenging structures that perpetuate global inequality or inequity.
        - (5) Extremely Important;   (4) Very Important;   (3) Moderately Important;   (2) Slightly Important;   (1) Not at all Important
    d. Commitment to cooperate with the international community to uphold universal human rights.
        - (5) Extremely Important;   (4) Very Important;   (3) Moderately Important;   (2) Slightly Important;   (1) Not at all Important
    e. Commitment to extend a universal ethic of rights and responsibilities to all people across difference.
        - (5) Extremely Important;   (4) Very Important;   (3) Moderately Important;   (2) Slightly Important;   (1) Not at all Important
15. Which of the following best reflects the most important civic dispositions or attitudes in world history?
    (a) Commitment to free market principles
    (b) Commitment to foster the nation's ideals and interests through global relationships
    (c) Commitment to social responsibilities by challenging structures that perpetuate global inequality or inequity
    (d) Commitment to cooperate with the international community to uphold universal human rights
    (e) Commitment to extend a universal ethic of rights and responsibilities to all people across difference
16. When I plan any curriculum, I consider the ways in which the content reflects necessary civic dispositions/attitudes.
    - (5) Strongly Agree;   (4) Agree;   (3) Neutral;   (2) Disagree;   (1) Strongly Disagree
17. When I plan world history curriculum, I consider the ways in which the content reflects necessary civic dispositions/attitudes.
    - (5) Strongly Agree;   (4) Agree;   (3) Neutral;   (2) Disagree;   (1) Strongly Disagree

SECTION 5 : Civic Experiences – Civic experiences are opportunities to practice civic participation.

18. How important is each of the following civic experiences in world history?
    a. Experiences participating in the global economy (e.g., buying products reflective of one's values)

- (5) Extremely Important; (4) Very Important; (3) Moderately Important; (2) Slightly Important; (1) Not at all Important
  b. Experiences participating in national political/civic systems (e.g., mock congressional hearings)
- (5) Extremely Important; (4) Very Important; (3) Moderately Important; (2) Slightly Important; (1) Not at all Important
  c. Experiences challenging exploitive systems through advocating for social justice policy; (e.g., contacting stakeholders concerning international problems)
- (5) Extremely Important; (4) Very Important; (3) Moderately Important; (2) Slightly Important; (1) Not at all Important
  d. Experiences participating in deliberative practices on global rights and responsibilities (e.g., Model UN, contacting stakeholders concerning international problems)
- (5) Extremely Important; (4) Very Important; (3) Moderately Important; (2) Slightly Important; (1) Not at all Important
  e. Experiences engaging with diverse people for cooperative social and/or political activities (e.g., engagement with different communities and perspectives)
- (5) Extremely Important; (4) Very Important; (3) Moderately Important; (2) Slightly Important; (1) Not at all Important

19. Which of the following best reflects the most important civic experiences in world history?
    (a) Experiences participating in the global economy (e.g., buying products reflective of one's values)
    (b) Experiences participating in national political/civic systems (e.g., mock congressional hearings)
    (c) Experiences challenging exploitive systems through advocating for social justice policy; (e.g., contacting stakeholders concerning international problems)
    (d) Experiences participating in deliberative practices on global rights and responsibilities (e.g., Model UN, contacting stakeholders concerning international problems)
    (e) Experiences engaging with diverse people for cooperative social and/or political activities (e.g., engagement with different communities and perspectives)

20. When I plan any curriculum, I consider the ways in which the content reflects necessary civic experiences.
- (5) Strongly Agree; (4) Agree; (3) Neutral; (2) Disagree; (1) Strongly Disagree

21. When I plan world history curriculum, I consider the ways in which the content reflects necessary civic experiences.
- (5) Strongly Agree; (4) Agree; (3) Neutral; (2) Disagree; (1) Strongly Disagree

22. Additional Comments: (Optional short response field)

[NEXT PAGE]

Survey Fields / Questions:

23. Name
24. Email
25. Phone Number
26. Race/Ethnicity
27. Gender
28. School Location (i.e., Lexington, KY)
29. Type of school: Public, Private, Charter, Other
30. Grades Taught (Currently or Previously): K-12, post-secondary
31. Teaching Experience (in Years):
32. Courses Teaching (Current): US History, World History, Civics, Geography, Economics, Other
33. Courses Taught (Previously): US History, World History, Civics, Geography, Economics, Other
34. Would you be willing to have a brief interview (15-45 minutes) about your survey responses? Yes/No/Maybe

Interview Protocol (Semi-structured)

1. How would you define civic education in world history?
2. Describe the role you believe civics plays in world history.
   a. How so? Examples?
3. Why do you think it is/isn't important to include civic education?
4. What impact do you think it has on students' civic behavior? Example?
5. How do you believe civics impacts students' understanding of world history?
   a. How so? Examples?
6. Does civics inform how you plan your curriculum? (Examples for each)
   a. In terms of:
       i. knowledge/content,
      ii. skills,
     iii. dispositions/attitudes
      iv. experiences
7. Do you integrate civics education in world history differently than in other subjects? How so? Example?
8. What challenges are there to civics education in world history? Example?

Appendix E: Demographic Information

Table 1: Survey Participant Demographic Information

	Number Total	Valid Percentage
Age		
18-24	3	2.8
25-36	24	22
37-46	32	29.4
47-56	30	27.5
57-65	17	15.6
66+	3	2.8
Race / Ethnicity		
Asian/Pacific Islander	2	1.5
Black/African American	2	1.5
Hispanic/Latino/a	4	3.2
Native American	0	0
White/European	94	74.6
Other	28	22.2
Gender		
Male	46	42.2
Female	63	57.8
Prefer not to say	0	0
School Location*		
Region 1: Northeast	24	23.1
Region 2: Midwest	26	25
Region 3: South	32	30.8
Region 4: West	17	16.3
International	5	4.8
Type of School		
Public	88	80.7
Private	4	3.7

Charter	4	3.7
Other	13	11.9
Grades Taught (Currently or Previously)		
K-5 Grade	8	7.3
6th Grade	24	22
7th Grade	36	33
8th Grade	40	36.7
9th Grade	67	61.5
10th Grade	74	67.9
11th Grade	66	60.6
12th Grade	58	53.2
Post-secondary	22	20.2
Teaching Experience (in years)		
1-5	10	9.2
6-15	41	37.6
16-25	36	33
26-30	12	11
30+	10	9.2
Courses Teaching (Currently)		
US History	36	33
World History	60	55
Civics	23	21.1
Geography	16	14.7
Economics	10	9.2
Other	48	44
Courses Taught (Previously)		
US History	89	81.7
World History	92	84.4
Civics	61	56
Geography	53	48.6
Economics	42	38.5
Other	41	37.6

*Regions were determined based on the United States Census Bureau (2013)

Region 1, Northeast: CT, ME, MA, NH, RI, VT, NJ, NY, PA

Region 2, Midwest: IN, IL, MI, OH, WI, IA, KS, MN, MO, NB, ND, SD

Region 3, South: DE, DC, FL, GA, MD, NC, SC, VA, WV, AL, KY, MS, TN, AR, LA, OK, TX

Region 4, West: AZ, CO, ID, NM, MT, UT, NV, WY, AK, CA, HI, OR, WA

OTHER: QATAR, THAILAND, SOUTH KOREA, JAPAN, SWEDEN

Table 2: Interview Participant Demographic Information

NAME (pseudonym)	LOCATION	AGE, GENDER, & ETHNIC/ RACIAL BACKGROUND	TEACHING EXPERIENCE (in years)	TYPE OF SCHOOL (public, private, charter)	SUBJECTS TAUGHT (current classes italicized)
Ms. Carrell	Region: South State: Kentucky	37-46, Female, White/European	16-25	Public	*US History*, *World* History, Civics, Geography, Economics, Arts & Humanities
Ms. Lee	Region: South State: Kentucky	37-46, Female, White/European	16-25	Public	*World History*, US History, Geography
Ms. Compton	Region: South State: Louisiana	37-46, Female, White/European	16-25	Private	*Psychology*, US History, World History, Civics, Geography, Economics
Mr. Ronald	Region: West State: Arizona	47-56, Male, White/European	6-15	Public	*US History, World History, Civics, Geography*

Mr. Weiss	Region: Northeast State: Pennsylvania	47-56 Male, White/European	6-15	Public	*US History* *AP European History* World History Civics Economics
Mr. Tillery	Region: South State: North Carolina	25-36, Male, White/European	6-15	Public	*World History, Civics, Economics*, US History
Ms. Higgens	Region: Midwest State: Michigan	37-46, Female, White/European	16-25	Public	*World History, Civics, World Cultures, Women's Studies*, Economics, US History
Ms. Newson	Region: West State: Nevada	25-36, Female White/European	6-15	Charter	*Not currently teaching;* US History, World History, Geography, Cultural Humanities, Global Diplomacy

Appendix F: Sample Interview Organizational Sheet

1. How would you define civic education in world history?
 	
Up until last year, I had never taught civics. I had taken government as a part of undergrad and masters and phd were about social theory, the political climate, I very much am comfortable with civics and government, social responsibility; but last year was the first time I taught a civics formal US Government course; if I were to do it again, it would be very different
 	
Before, it was an awareness of government forms. It was providing a framework for how we got our institutions, whether connecting to Greece and Rome, then making the leap to the French revolution.
 	
It was more about background, I think now if I could go back, I would teach more civic responsibility. If I were to teach Greece, it would be about evaluating leadership, responsibilities of citizens; Rome: limitations of a republic – those kinds of bigger questions – the ones I encountered in teaching civics
 	
The electoral college is a question about Rome – representation leading to a result versus direct democracy; the benefit/pitfalls to that
 	
Last year, I didn't feel like we had time for that.
	1. Civics is an important component of any class.
	        AGREE
	
	2. Civics is an important component of any social studies class.
	        AGREE
	
	3. Civics is an important component of any history class.
	        AGREE
	
	4. Civics is an important component of US History classes.
	        AGREE
	
	5. Civics is an important component of world history classes.
	        AGREE

Appendix G

Sample Coding Matrix

Codes (Axial & Open)	Data Examples: Consists of quotes and my interpretation (in italics)
CIVICS / CITIZENSHIP	
Civics, general	"People getting active in their various communities throughout history; enact change, in society as a whole." Higgens "I think of it through global citizenry – which is obviously, students have to have a handle on political and economic systems in order to understand the global network and the inner-working of the economy and government." Newson
Understanding world history	*Generally it seems Newson's frame is thinking about contextualizing students' experiences in the broader world community*
Historical echoes	"I don't like the whole mantra that we're doomed to repeat it, but there are parallels. Here are similarities and here's how people in the past dealt with them." Tillery "If we're not informed about these histories of conflicts, then we can't make decisions as to how the U.S. should react now" Newson "How can I connect the long dead people to students?" • "connect to civic issues…and themes" Weiss "During the Protestant Reformation, they were having a hard time seeing that the church was upset about losing power and money…not about Martin Luther leaving, as a person. Now looking at questions of the Scientific Revolution, they see why they're upset. It's not about Galileo as a person, but upset about losing money and power again." Carrell
Historical ripples	"Your impact as a student doesn't just impact the U.S. It's sort of like a pebble…the ripples continue out." Ronald "'Who cares about the Treaty of Versailles?' Well, here's how it applies today" Newson "We can see how the United States has had a role in creating what exists in some countries, like those in the Middle East or Latin America. And those are hard conversations to have, but it's important for kids to understand why some of these situations and conditions exist today" Carrell
Connection to students	*Positioning the students and the country in world affairs; global citizenship* "When they begin thinking about the actions of the US on a personal level, it makes them think about how our government acts responsibly on a global scale" Newson "you play a role as a resident of the U.S. and can advocate for the role the U.S. should play" Tillery "look at the bigger picture of the situation that they're in as a citizen of the world." Weiss

Opportunities	"We had a lot of unique opportunities, so we were able to do those things; help them practice civic action and it didn't harm our curriculum, didn't have students fail a test."
Class context	Re: WH Purpose – "idea of seeing themselves as global citizens, the idea that everyone should have certain universal rights."
CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION COMPONENTS	
Knowledge	*Several say (or imply) it's content base as important for global competencies, to know what's going on in the world*
Connections to global governance	"In world history, I think of teaching kids about…the different types of government that exist in the world." Compton "Civics falls down the line to things they need to know about cultures, economics…Government isn't at the top and it probably shouldn't be." Higgins
Global responsibilities	"I think a lot about things like colonialism, imperialism, globalization—those kinds of things that I think are some of the more negative ways in which global civics has played out as it relates to the United States." Newson "drive students to make a better community within which they live" Lee "we have a robust unit in conjunction with World War II and genocide, where we focus on the Holocaust, but retroactively pull in the Armenian genocide…and contemporary examples." Higgins

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Education

Doctor of Philosophy May 2020 (expected)	University of Kentucky, Lexington, KY Major Area: Education Sciences Emphasis: Curriculum and Instruction, Social Studies Education Graduate Certificate: College, Career, & Civic Life Teaching and Learning
Master of Arts in Education 2011	Georgetown College, Georgetown, KY Major Area: Curriculum and Instruction Emphasis: Secondary Social Studies
Master of Arts in German Studies 2009	University of Kentucky, Lexington, KY Major Area: Modern Culture and Literature
Master of Arts in History 2008	University of Kentucky, Lexington, KY Major Areas: United States History, German History Thesis: *Getting Germany's Goethe: German Radicalism and Kultur in 1919 America*
Bachelor of Arts in Secondary Education in Social Studies 2006 *Summa cum laude*	University of Kentucky, Lexington, KY Major Area: History Minors: Anthropology, German

Professional Experience

2016-Present **Master's with Initial Certification (MIC) Program Coordinator,**
Social Studies, Department of Curriculum & Instruction, College of
Education, University of Kentucky

2014-Present **Managing Editor,** *C3 Teachers: College, Career, and Civic Life,*
c3teachers.org, Companion website to the National Council for Social
Studies' *College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework for State
Social Studies Standards*, 2014-present.

2018-Present **Executive Director,** Kentucky Council for the Social Studies

2011-2015 **Social Studies Teacher,** Tates Creek High School

Publications

Peer-Reviewed Journal Articles

Muetterties, C., Masterson, E., & Slocum, C. (2019). What is a Vote Worth? Using Primary Sources to Propel Elementary Inquiry Practices. *The Social Studies.*

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