CONCEPTUALIZING GLOBAL WORLD HISTORY: A STUDY OF PARTICIPANTS
AT THE ASPEN WORLD HISTORY INSTITUTE 1996

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ABSTRACT

"Conceptualizing and Implementing Global World History" is a study designed to combine scholarship in world history and education to improve world history education for the twenty-first century by reconceptualizing the Western Civilization and Area Studies approaches for a new form of global world history.

The study was conducted at the Aspen World History Institute in 1996, and included five secondary teachers, including the two directors, and four college history professors, and seven guest speakers at the Institute. A qualitative study using Lincoln and Guba's interpretivist paradigm and Strauss and Corbin's grounded theory informed the study to allow the participants to define the practical elements associated with the conceptualization and implementation of global world history in secondary and college settings.

The study attempted to identify aspects of global world history relative to content and pedagogy. Eight categories regarding world history content emerged in the data analysis: new conceptualizations of world history, new roles of regional studies, prominence of comparative history, inclusion of gender history, global citizenship education, geography and environmental studies, thematic and interdisciplinary approaches and new periodizations. It employs a non-centered approach, which narrates historical events from multiple perspectives emphasizing social and cultural history.
Regional histories provide a depth of historical content that are then compared to place them in a broader context. Cross cultural contexts provide a means to examine images of Western and non-Western experiences and their connections. Geographical knowledge further explains the interconnectedness of the continents. Eurocentric terms such as "Middle East" and time designations such as "B.C." and "A.D." and the nature and relevance of periodizations are examined.

Citizenship is seen through ethnic identity, national identity, and more universal human concerns. Furthermore, it recognizes the complexity of such issues as peace and security and environmental concerns, which transcend political boundaries and call for a collaborative effort to resolve.

The broad based scholarship of William Mc Neill, L.S. Stavrianos, Eric Wolf, Janet Abu-Lughod, and Immanuel Wallerstein, and Jerry Bentley provide examples of global approaches and connections across time and space. In addition to encouraging scholars to explore themes in history, students also play an active role in their learning, partly through the application of disciplinary skills. However, to do this with credibility, students in teacher preparation programs and secondary students will need ongoing opportunities to develop their skills and knowledge through course work in Western and non-Western history that offers a depth and breadth about political, economic, cultural, social, and geographical and environmental aspects of history.
Dedicated to my daughter Felicia who
reminds me what is important in life.
Thank you for your patience and strength.

I am also grateful to my parents, Martin and Irene Boehnlein
who instilled in me perseverance to accomplish a goal.
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Chapter 1 provides an overview of this study consisting of its purpose, rationale, setting, methodology, assumptions undergirding the study, and limitations of the study. The chapter concludes with a brief description of the content in Chapters 2 through 5.

1.1 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Researchers have proclaimed that American youths are inadequately prepared in social studies. Federal documents such as "A Nation at Risk" in 1983\footnote{National Commission on Excellence in Education, A Nation at Risk (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1983), 30.} and Goals 2000/America 2000 enacted into law in 1994 echoed these concerns and classified the problem as epidemic. America 2000, purported to be a long-term, comprehensive reform strategy in five subject areas, including history and geography, was designed to "spur far-reaching changes in weary practices." \footnote{America 2000 (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1991), 6.} Therefore, a pressing question is how can the profession prevent stagnation, "old wine in new bottles," and embrace the opportunity to rethink fundamentally how college history professors and secondary teachers teach world history? College courses affect how teachers are prepared and
courses are taught. Therefore, attention must be given to the philosophical and practical aspects of teaching world history. It provided the opportunity to examine the theoretical and practical aspects of developing and implementing world history using a global approach. The two Institute directors had invited me to speak at the Institute on assessment techniques in world history so I proposed that I document the written and oral discussions of the participants throughout the Institute, to which they agreed. Through the participants, I could learn more about how secondary teachers and college professors teach world history. Further, I could examine how the participants’ current practice could be altered to better accommodate the content of global world history. Teachers traditionally have used a Western Civilization or an Area Studies orientation to world history, so I hoped to learn how one might adapt those approaches to embrace global world history. Finally, the Institute offered an opportunity to consider pedagogical concerns that affect teaching in general, but more specifically, making world history meaningful in secondary and college classrooms.

Western Civilization and Area Studies have been traditional approaches to world history courses. In short, Western Civilization concentrates largely on European studies and interactions of Europeans with people from Africa, Asia, and Latin America, but from a Western point of view. An Area Studies approach to world history incorporates the majority of the continents, but does so in isolation with little attention to cultural connections across continents. Global world history emphasizes comparisons and
connections across continents to study the broad questions of history which illuminate unique and common features of societies across time and place.

1.2 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

The rationale for the study was based on my interest in promoting an approach to teaching world history that recognizes the contributions of peoples of the world and does not establish Western peoples as superior. Because I had taught in settings with diverse populations, I do not wish to perpetuate stereotypes about world history that reflect a Eurocentric bias.

The second reason was increased attention to "Global Connections" in the National Council for the Social Studies standards and "World Interactions" in the Ohio Model Curriculum standards. Involvement in many workshops and other educational forums confirmed that other teachers shared my belief in the value of global approaches, but a clear definition with classroom examples for college and high school history classrooms was needed.

The third reason for the study was to merge the scholarship of global studies in history and education. How can both fields contribute to the knowledge of world history instructors at all levels? As a teacher educator, I had noticed that students seemed to have difficulty determining how to reconcile what they learned in their history courses with what they learned in their education methods courses. Alan Griffin, Lee Shulman,

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and Fred Newmann⁵ have addressed the importance of connecting content and pedagogical knowledge.

1.3 SETTING FOR THE STUDY

The setting for this study was a thirteen day summer Institute -- Aspen World History Institute -- held in July of 1996. This Institute involved participants in an intense examination of global world history, generally lasting approximately 7 hours per day. Participants in the institute were secondary and post-secondary teachers. Secondary teachers refers to teachers in grades 7 through 12. Post secondary or college professors refers to levels higher than secondary including community colleges, colleges, and universities. When I intend to encompass both teachers and professors, I refer to them generally as instructors.

The Institute was designed to provide an opportunity for participants to construct global lessons for a classroom setting incorporating current trends in education and history. For some participants, this was an introduction to the subject; for others, it was a refinement of their thinking about global world history.

The directors of the Institutes sought to expand the knowledge of world history teachers at the secondary and college levels in areas often overlooked or misrepresented in world history courses. Eight participants from Arkansas, California, Colorado, and Virginia consisting of three secondary and five post secondary instructors gathered to learn from guest speakers and the directors about “black holes” in history, that is world history that is generally not required in traditional teacher preparation programs in social

studies. They had also prepared lessons according to their notions of global world history prior to the Institute that they presented to the group for feedback. A third component of the Institute was daily roundtable discussion about general topics related to global world history. Participants, with the assistance of the Institute directors, prepared short presentations and led discussions on topics such as regional studies, alternative periodizations, thematic approaches, and incorporation of technology. Discussions also centered on what is global world history and the merits and problems in the approach.

Historians specializing in Southeast Asia, Latin America, and the Middle East described how global themes were applied to those regions. Anthropologists and art historians also discussed interdisciplinary techniques used to discover what is known about the past. In addition to a focus on content, speakers also addressed how to teach about their topics. Two speakers provided lesson techniques on assisting students in comparing regions and putting regional knowledge in a broader context. Both involved active student learning in a constructivist mode consistent with Lee Shulman's Model of Pedagogical Reasoning and Action, and Fred Newmann’s Authentic Pedagogy.

1.4 THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

My investigation centered on the participants, discussions, and materials involved in the 1996 Aspen World History Institute. During the design and conduct of the study, three questions guided my research.

1. What conceptualizations of global world history were held by the educators and historians participating in the Aspen Institute?
2. What did participants take to be the key content and pedagogical elements that constitute a global approach to world history?

3. What problems did the Institute participants encounter in conceptualizing a global approach to world history?

A fourth question emerged during the study. What could be learned from the Institute about the relationship between content, pedagogy, and disciplinary skills employed in the teaching of world history?

1.5 METHODOLOGY

The methodology I chose was qualitative research because the descriptive nature of this approach was well suited to document the phenomenon of the inquiry. By conducting the study in its natural setting at the Aspen Institute, I used an interpretivist paradigm which describes the "saliest behaviors, events, beliefs, attitudes, structures, and processes occurring in this phenomenon," as defined by Norman Denzin, Egon Guba, and Yvonna Lincoln\(^6\) and Catherine Marshall and Gretchen Rossman.\(^7\) I sought to interpret the experience of the Institute in terms of the meaning people brought to global world history. I used grounded theory, as defined by Strauss and Corbin to ensure the integrity, validity, and accuracy of the findings.\(^8\) Consistent with Patricia and Peter Adler's

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“Observational Techniques,” I used naturalistic observations and interviews in the natural unfolding of events in the daily Institute sessions.9

Documentation was conducted through daily observations during group discussions and lesson presentations, audio tapes (and transcriptions) of presentations and discussion, journals prepared by participants, formal and informal interviews throughout the Institute, and a follow-up publication of the work of some of the participants and guest speakers from the Institute. Theoretical coding was ongoing from the data collection through the data analysis phases, as defined by Glaser.10 As recurrent categories emerged, they were identified and scrutinized for how they surfaced in conversation and written products. The categories were then examined for the frequency and forms in which they occurred.

I sought to establish trustworthiness through the procedures of Lincoln and Guba — credibility, transferability, dependability, confirmability, authenticity, and emancipatory methods.11 This included prolonged engagement over a 13 day period, progressive subjectivity wherein I monitored my own orientation to the subject and to my interaction with the participants, and triangulation wherein I used multiple means of data collection including observation, field notes, participants’ journals, lesson presentations, and interviews.

Qualitative methodology allowed the participants to share in the research process by contributing to the direction and length of the discussions during the interviews. The

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study did not intend to measure the degree to which the participants exhibited practices of
global world history, but rather to determine what those practices were in terms of
conceptualization, implementation of lessons in global world history, and problems
associated with its practice. Transferability was addressed through thick descriptions, as
defined by Clifford Geertz, so that the reader could assume responsibility for comparing
the contexts to determine its generalizability.\textsuperscript{12}

1.6 ASSUMPTIONS OF THE STUDY

According to M. Q. Patton, qualitative studies must describe assumptions which
undergird the study.\textsuperscript{13} Therefore, I will reiterate some of the key elements relative to
qualitative research and this study. Using constructivist ontology, reality is constructed
through human interaction. According to Corbin and Strauss's grounded theory, a
qualitative study recognizes that reality is socially constructed and that variables are
complex, interwoven, and difficult to measure. Grounded theory recognizes that some
form of social science is possible and even desirable. I took on the role of interpreting
what I observed, heard, and read – not merely documenting or giving voice to the views
of the people, group, or organization. Both the review of literature and the conceptions of
the participants demonstrate that understandings of world history were linked to
personal, cultural, and educational influences.

Furthermore, Valerie Janesick proposed that the qualitative researcher, as an
informed reader, interprets meanings of key phrases related to the phenomenon in


question.\textsuperscript{14} The emphasis is on developing substantive theory which relies upon extensive interrelated data collection and theoretical analysis.\textsuperscript{15} Verification of the hypothesis is through rich concept development and the relationships.

Since grounded theory is adapted to circumstances of the researcher and the participants, theories are “fluid.” There are multiple realities. They are shaped by the interaction of multiple actors and emphasize temporality and process. Theories are embedded in a history and conceptualization permeates the entire course of the research project. The interpretations and perspectives of the participants were documented. Knowledge is linked with time and place, and theory is tentative and open to further development. Reality is a social construction and individuals represent their reality through language.

1.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

In spite of the cooperation of the participants and directors, there were also some limitations of the study, in large part due to time constraints related to both the intensity and the duration of the Institute. While in the atmosphere of the Aspen World History Institute, the disciplinary content and skills of world history permeated the conversations. Participants in public secondary schools mentioned how state requirements limited their curricular decisions, but we did not pursue in what ways and to what extent that was true. The intensity of the 13 day Institute did not allow for all relevant topics to be addressed fully.

While the directors and the participants gave generously of their time, I opted to respect their schedules but would have preferred to pursue some of the conversations with individuals in more depth. Demanding daily sessions and obligations to family members who had traveled with the participants did inhibit longer conversations at times.

While efforts were made to encourage critical analysis of a global world history approach, the fact that the directors and the researcher supported the philosophy and practice undoubtedly privileged that perspective. While lively debates ensued over aspects of the conceptualization, implementation, and even the feasibility of the approach, I am not completely confident that all reservations held by the participants were fully articulated.

Anonymity was also problematic in this study. Because I had promised anonymity in the study and had asked them to suggest pseudonyms, I continued to use the pseudonyms. However, some participants have chosen to publish their works and therefore, their anonymity is jeopardized. Because the directors have organized other Institutes and indicated they wished to do so in the future, the location of the Institute and names of the directors were given.

The following chapters will describe in detail the procedures and results of the study. Chapter 2 reviews the major literature in world history generally and, more specifically, in reference to global world history. Because the study involves both the conceptualization and implementation of global world history in classrooms, this chapter also examines the educational literature relating to social studies and global studies.
Chapter 3 details the justification and procedures of the qualitative research used in this study for pre-study, data collection, and data analysis. An interpretivist paradigm of Denzin, Lincoln, and Guba and grounded theory of Strauss and Corbin inform the study.

Chapter 4 describes the data analysis based on the collection of data through multiple methods. This includes descriptions of the participants, their lessons, and their reflections on the experience at the Institute while examining global world history.

Chapter 5 presents the conclusions of the study and considerations for further study that surfaced during the collection, analysis, and writing of the study. This section discusses implications and provides information to guide others who might consider adopting a global world history approach.
CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Traditionally, world history has been taught in the United States in a lecture format either as Western Civilization, which emphasized Europe and the United States and its interactions with other regions of the world, or an Area Studies course where continents were studied in isolation with little attention to transregional influences. While global world history represents a departure from such traditional approaches, how radical are the changes? Does it constitute abandonment or expansion of old practices? Or is it more a reconfiguration of thinking about peoples across time and place?

Section 2.1 reviews the professional literature on world history that defines the field as well as new trends using global approaches to world history. This documentation is designed to establish what has shaped teacher thinking about world history. In section 2.2, I will summarize the context for social studies education in the twentieth century. Social studies education provides the classroom and curricular content in which world history is embedded in American schools. This is to establish what curricular issues surface for world history educators at the secondary level. In section 2.3, I will provide an overview of current trends in educational literature which support a global approach to history.
2.1 HISTORIOGRAPHY OF WORLD HISTORY

World history reflects the social, cultural, and political climate of its definer. This section will outline briefly some of the prevalent factors which have surfaced in the conceptualization of world histories in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries – namely religious, national, and ethnic orientations, conceptions of civilizations, exploration of world systems, global approaches, and globalization.

THE LEGACY OF RELIGION

Religion was instrumental in creating transregional and transethnic identities. The spread of religions is evident in Christianity throughout the Roman Empire and the Islamic World that once permeated from Spain to China. Buddhism throughout India, Southeast Asia, and China also provided cultural linkages across diverse ethnic or national identities.

Religion also was a factor which has shaped the views of historians. In "A Defense of World History," Mc Neill noted that a Christian orientation of world history was associated with creation of the world, and, therefore, led some historians to fit subsequent details into a framework of divine revelation. In the traditional accounts, Latin Christianity is juxtaposed internally with Judaism and externally with Islam.¹

In the eighteenth century, France developed a secularized version of the Christian vision where "progress substituted for Providence." However, the essential linear unity of the Providential Christian view remained intact. Geoffrey Barraclough condemned this traditional portrayal of history as the linear progression where humans were seen to

progress from primitive barbarism to having reason, virtue, and civilization. He claimed that a rigid, biblical context inhibited a universal history, just as during the Reformation, the affirmation of the authority of the Bible impeded the concept of world history.

In the mid twentieth century, *A Study of History* by Arnold J. Toynbee devoted a chapter to “Universal Churches” in which he described “Churches as Cancers,” “Churches as Chrysalises” and “Churches as a Higher Species of Society.” The centrality of religion to his view is suggested in his statement, “The only way open to these fellow seekers after spiritual light (Buddhists, Christians, Hindus, and Muslims) was the hard road along which their predecessors had arrived at the degree of religious enlightenment represented by the higher religions of the twentieth century of the Christian Era.”

Pieter Geyl said in * Debates With Historians*, that while Toynbee may speak of laws and scientific notions, “sovereignty and freedom of the spirit are his main concerns, and his Bible Texts are more than a mere decoration of his argument…God become man in Christ is to him the veritable sense of history.” Toynbee argues that humans will be saved from society only by “the founders of a philosophy who work only for the ruling minority and the founders of religion, whose empire is not of this world.”

**NATIONAL HISTORIES**

In addition to religious identity, national identities also established “us” vs. “them” in the study of history. The political emphasis on nationalist movements contributed to concentration on national affairs. McNeill pointed out that the nineteenth

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3 Toynbee, 111.
century spawned national histories as a reaction to French cultural and political primacy. During the nineteenth century, the French Revolution led to a focus on the nation-state as the center of activity. The period also included the unification of Germany and Italy in combination with misapplication of Darwinian concepts and its biological analogies. This transformed the focus to one of hegemony and rivalries.

Academic history was first institutionalized when the German government shared their records with scholars in the 1800's. Later other European countries followed suit. Two world wars challenged a nationalist historical view, but it was so deeply entrenched for a century and a half that components of a national theory such as language and racial unity which supersede national dimensions as well as economic and technological changes are still slow to erode the nationalist orientations even in the world today.6

Universal history required human knowledge greater than the human intellect could ever fathom and was, therefore, deemed unfeasible. “Few attempts were made at cooperative histories which treated mankind as a unity but instead favored an aggregate of national histories with little, if any cohesion or connection,” according to Barraclough.7 Therefore, practical and philosophical considerations discouraged the development of comprehensive world history.

Although Leopold von Ranke was a founder of modern national historiography, he also set out to write a universalist world history when he was 86 in 1881. He sought to create history that was separate from philosophy and religion. To him, events were

5 Geyl, 113.
unique and each period was "immediate to God, who had fashioned it." However, the particular event had to be understood as part of a universal history which was supra-political. His point of view regarded Latin and Germanic nations as a unity and at the core of modern history. This differed from three views prevalent at the time, universal Christendom, unity of Europe, and Latin Christianity. Because of their connection to Asia, Toynbee did not include Armenians, Turks, and members of the Russian Empire. He also considered Slavic, Lettic, and Magyar peoples as having "a peculiar and particular nature" and also did not include them in his universalist history.

In spite of the narrow focus on nations, he did stress the connections between peoples. "There is no nation on earth that has not had some contact with other nations. It is through this external relationship, which in turn depends on a nation's peculiar character, that the nation enters on the stage of world history, and universal history must therefore focus on it." Although von Ranke's universalist history is not the same as contemporary global world history, it did strive for a more comprehensive vision of world history during the late 1800's.

HISTORY OF CIVILIZATIONS

A broader and more comparative construction of world history was based on the "rise and decline" of civilizations. History was a vision of the general progress of society and culture, not a litany of battles or political events, but often reverted to philosophical generalizations or patterns which were imposed upon history without careful scrutiny of the records.

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A seminal work, *The Rise of the West: A History of the Human Community* by William McNeill,\(^9\) was conceived in 1936 and first published in 1962. Through the text, maps and charts, and photographs, he hoped to describe interactions in the human community based on the concept of cultural diffusion popular among American anthropologists in the 1930's. He traced historically significant social change as a result of contact with unfamiliar skills. He claimed that less skilled peoples adopted the skills involving wealth, power, truth, and beauty from civilized peoples. He also noted that while people struggle to imitate other cultures, they simultaneously strive to preserve their indigenous culture. He also focused on the importance of studying contemporaneous civilizations to scrutinize the high skill and low skill diffusion patterns across civilizations.

McNeill indicated that "the rise and elaboration of separate civilizations and cultures were to be viewed as ecumenical processes comparable in importance with the rise of a world system of economic complementarity and cultural symbiosis."\(^{10}\) He proposed three basic themes: interchange and independence, cultural diversity, and political pluralism and rivalry.

In *The Rise of the West after Twenty-five Years,* McNeill observed that his definition of "civilization" in *The Rise of the West* was fuzzy. He focused on the tangible

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\(^9\) von Ranke, 59-60.


\(^{11}\) McNeill, "Rise After 25 Years," xxx.
elements of civilization such as art styles and technology, territorial and temporal
distributions, and secular forms of association such as caste, family, and polity.\textsuperscript{12}
McNeill had followed V. Gordon Childe and others in equating civilization with a
society in which occupational specialization allowed the emergence of high skills --
administrative, military, artisanal, literary, artistic -- adequate to distinguish early
civilization from Neolithic village societies. However, he noted its limitations when
describing geographical and social boundaries in eras when a multiplicity of civilizations
rose or in areas which supplied raw materials to distant civilized consumers but whom he
did not consider civilized in their own right.\textsuperscript{13}

McNeill's civilizational approach largely overlooks the contributions of African,
North and Latin American peoples. Two pages are devoted to African history and three
pages are devoted to Latin America. In the chapter entitled, "Barbarian Onslaught and
Civilized Response, 200-600 A.D.,” McNeill divided Eurasia into two parts, the
development of Indian civilization and its impact on Asia and China and the development
of western Eurasia and “the transformation that came to those parts under the pressure of
barbarian attack.” He acknowledged his overemphasis on the division between India and
Iran and his lack of emphasis on the links between India and the Mediterranean and Iran
and China during that period.

Also omitted in the comparative civilization approach are large portions of the
world that are not considered civilizations. \textit{Global Rift: The Third World Comes of

Years,” (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1991), xx.}
Age\textsuperscript{14} was written to break down the dichotomous descriptions of the "First World" and "Third World." "The inhabitants of al regions now are becoming subject peoples—that is people subject to the imperatives of the global market economy. He notes that poor economic conditions are also found within metropolitan centers in the First World and, therefore, have become part of Western history as well. He pointed out that the civilizations are not distinct entities.

Another aspect of traditional portrayals of civilizations is a split between Western and non-Western civilizations. Western Civilization courses have deeply embedded the Eurocentric perspective through the presentation of history as a series of progressions. Eric Wolf noted that the story of the West has largely been told as a society and civilization independent of and in opposition to other societies and civilizations. He described the geneology of the West as

Ancient Greece begat Rome, Rome begat Christian Europe, Christian Europe begat the Renaissance, the Renaissance begat the Enlightenment, the Enlightenment begat political democracy and, in turn, yielded the United States, embodying the rights to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.\textsuperscript{15}

He found two faults in this progressive view: 1) history became a moral success story about the furtherance of virtue and 2) each step became a precursor of the final glorification of the West which ignored the multitude of social and cultural processes at work in their own time and place.

Eric Wolf described this model as round billiard balls in which the entities spin off each other as externally distinctive objects. He challenged the counterposition of the


\textsuperscript{15} Eric Wolf, Europe and the People Without History, (Berkeley, University of California Press, 1982). 5.
quintessential West to the quintessential East, where life is cheap and slavish and multitudes groveled under a variety of despotisms.

Ross Dunn warned “to guard against conceptually fragmented and excessively "presented minded" programs which divide humankind into cultural or civilizational components.”¹⁶ He advocated a study of processes which make sense of the larger, more extensive patterns of the world. He said that a cursory tour of civilizations must be replaced with a more integrated and dynamic portrayal of the past.

SHIFTS TO SOCIAL AND CULTURAL HISTORY

As educators and historians have attempted to construct narratives of humanity, the concentration has shifted from a political emphasis to include social and cultural history. According to Lynn Hunt, editor of The New Cultural History, "...social history has overtaken political history as the most important area of research in history (as evidenced by the quadrupling of American doctoral dissertations in social history between 1958 and 1978, surpassing those in political history)."¹⁷ This shift in emphasis has provided more knowledge about nondominant peoples and has provided alternative orientations to history.

The French Annales school was influenced by Marc Bloch from 1929 to the early 1940's, Lucien Febvre from 1929 to the mid 1950's and later Fernand Braudel from the mid 1950's to the late 1960's. They developed an approach designed to change the narrowly diplomatic history of the Sorbonnistes to a new social and economic history.

From the end of the 1950's and into the 1970's, under the influence of Marxist George Rude and others, history "turned from far more traditional histories of political leaders and political institutions toward investigations of the social composition and daily life of workers, servants, women, ethnic groups, and the like."18 In the 1950's and 1960's, Fernand Braudel proposed three levels of analysis based on units of time: "the structure or longue durée, dominated by the geographical milieu; the medium term, oriented toward social life; and the fleeting "event," which included politics and all that concerned the individual. The conjuncture was the intersection of the long-term, medium-term, and short-term cycles at a given moment through rhythmic patterns. These movements laid the groundwork for global historians by identifying and expanding various points on a continuum. Political events are situated in a larger context not from a linear perspective, but in more multi-dimensional forms..

Cultural history necessitates a closer look at constructions of culture. To situate the participants in history, and even our reaction to historical events, cultural anthropologist Paul Bohannan's definition of ethnocentrism can be illuminating. He said that ethnocentrism is a universal human condition found in three forms. First, the simplest level, erroneously assumes that culture is basically the same everywhere. The second level acknowledges that cultural differences exist, however other cultures are considered incorrect, inferior, immoral, or even evil. The most complex form concedes that all people are deeply embedded in their belief systems and view their way as good. This anthropological view of culture provided a basis for studying multiple perspectives.

18 Hunt, 2.
in history which strive to transcend personal and societal identities and to understand others as they see themselves.

Culture in history must be examined in terms of the perspectives of the historian and the teacher and student as interpreters as well as the actors in history. For example, McNeill noted that his Eurocentric orientation had influenced his analysis of the impact of European hegemony in world history. In analyzing historical events, he also pointed out how encounters with other cultures and civilizations changed local ways of life. When strangers introduced ways perceived as superior to the local ways, cultural action, and reaction occurred. Consequently, they adopted and adapted the ideas and skills that were considered most likely to expand their access to the earth's resources.¹⁹

Ross Dunn cautioned that the concept of "culture" and "traditional culture" could be misleading if shown as static and immutable and related to archaic institutions, inmemorial customs, and ritual behavior rather than active and reasonable movements. Therefore, culture must be set in a context to avoid stereotyping.

McNeill noted the ambivalence of cultural change when the drive to imitate conflicted with an equally strong inclination to maintain customs and institutions. McNeill maintained that only by becoming aware of the processes of cultural interactions in a given age can an adequate context for understanding national and local history be established. Since culture is not static, the centers of skill shift and new centers replace them, so history must reflect these transformations. Therefore, the focus of global historians is on cultural contacts among contemporaneous civilizations.

Similarly, Jerry Bentley’s study of cross-cultural contacts in pre-modern times established not a single type of cultural conversion process, but rather three patterns in the social context: conversion through voluntary association, conversion induced by political, social, or economic pressure; and conversion by assimilation. What enticed individuals to radically alter their cultures through adoption of new laws and rituals, new clothes, new relationships with family and friends, new diets, and new language? Bentley found that voluntary conversions were largely influenced by political, economic, or commercial alliances.

When examining cross cultural influences, perceptions of power relations also must be scrutinized. Edward Said studied the hidden influences of “cultural imperialism” and advocated juxtaposing narrowly and broadly focused views. He acknowledged that selectivity and conscious choices were inevitable when writing about empires, but he also called for readers to extend their lines of inquiry and argument about historical experience and imperialism. Said maintained that since Western imperialism and Third World nationalism fed off each other, both must be represented.

Furthermore, he viewed culture not as monolithic nor deterministic or exclusive of the East or the West, or of small groups of men or women. He welcomed the onset of a new intellectual and political conscience which acknowledged the complexity of reporting about people and culture. The phenomenon of empires has caused cultures to

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22 Said, xcv.
be involved in one another and, therefore, become hybrids and unmonolithic whether in
the contemporary United States or the Arab world.

Said said that in time, culture became associated with the nation or the state as a
means to separate "us" and "them," with some degree of xenophobia. Culture, therefore,
became a means of identity and had ties to movements which sought to preserve cultural
traditions. Said also characterized cultural battles in terms of theater where various
political and ideological causes engaged one another in an open arena. Furthermore, Said
objected to America's "New World Order" which was permeated with "self
congratulation, unconcealed triumphalism, and grave proclamations of responsibility."²³
He also took issue with the casual and widespread acceptance of ideas of "subject" or
"inferior" races imposed as a matter of course. He also took issue with the casual and
widespread acceptance of ideas of "subject" or "inferior" races as a matter of course.²⁴

Providing further insights into cultural identity, Wolf documented how human
populations constructed their cultures through interaction with one another in Europe and
the Peoples Without History.²⁵ He also rejected Western and non-Western splits. Of
particular interest to him was the effects of pre-capitalistic and capitalistic ventures on
cultures after 1492 through the 1800's. He described how common people such as
"primitives," peasants, laborers, immigrants, and minorities were active in the processes
of history in addition to being victims and silent witnesses. He rejected a progressive
scheme which advanced virtue and culminated in a success story because it negated the
social and cultural processes at work in a time and place.

²³ Said, xvii.
²⁴ Said, xxii.
With an emphasis on economic and political connections, he stressed how human have interacted with their environment to modify it in their favor under conditions not always under their control. The Spanish search for silver in the Americas, the European quest for fur, “black ivory” (African slave) market, and opium for tea in the triangular trade between Europe, India, and China were examples of his descriptions of economic links with social and cultural ramifications on micropopulations.

Also addressing power relations between societies from an economic point of view, Andre Gunder Frank’s economic dependency theory revolved around the concept of an established core and periphery which describe the power relations between the areas. An example is Frank’s claim that economic policies of the United Nations and the United States, defining the core, served to undermine economic and political stability in Latin America, the peripheral zone. He dismissed internal factors which may have contributed and attributed “forcible intrusion and foreign exploitation” for the stifled development.26

In Beyond Eurocentrism, Peter Gran agreed with McNeill about the primary importance of studying not just the lives and decisions of elites but also the lives of the majority of people such as subsistence farmers and casual laborers.27 The inclusive approach diminished the prevalent Western view that there is little of consequence in "Third World History." He questioned how the majority of the world's peoples could be considered peripheral. In contrast to Andre Gunder Frank’s dependency theory, Gran's

approach incorporated post-modern views where social history represented decentralized power which mixed free will and determinism in the analyses of social movements.

In summary, Basil Davidson described the subjective nature of history, "[it] ... is not a calculating machine. It unfolds in the mind and the imagination, and it takes body in the multifarious responses of a people's culture, itself the infinitely subtle mediation of material realities, of underpinning economic fact, of gritty objectivities." Therefore, history must be examined in its complex social and cultural layers.

GLOBAL WORLD HISTORY

In 1990, Jerry Bentley, editor of the *Journal of World History*, encouraged scholarly research in global history by soliciting articles reflecting a global point of view such as comparative studies of historical developments that work their influences in more than one civilization or cultural region; analysis of encounters between peoples of different civilizations or cultural regions; studies in the historiography of world history; reflections on conceptualization and periodization in world history; articles dealing with methodology in world history; and review articles dealing with recent literature on important themes of world history. This resulted in increased scholarship to benefit historians and classroom teachers alike. Ideally, scholarship in history and education will link with classroom practice.

One example is an article, "The Case for 'Big History'" by David Christian published in 1991. He argued that a global approach permits the asking of very large questions and, therefore, encourages the search for larger meanings of the past. If world

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history allows one to view the history of specific societies in a global context, history on even larger time scales allows for consideration of the history of humanity as a whole in a context...In this way, big history encourages us to ask questions about our place in the universe.\textsuperscript{30} He added that global history promoted new approaches and new models because it encouraged the drawing of new interdisciplinary links.

In response to criticism that detail would be sacrificed, resulting in empty generalities and unmanageable information, Christian claimed that the notion of detail is relative and that sometimes a telephoto lens is required and other times a wide-angle lens is appropriate, depending on the nature of the inquiry. His priority was to shake well established conventions.

Geyer and Bright stressed that new global imaginations viewed every part of the world as related to one’s own. However, the interconnectedness is different from every vantage point and each center of power scrambles for control of its resources not as passive recipients of Western imposition.\textsuperscript{31} Through the process of globalization one can examine the reconfiguration of domination and subordination throughout the world. The new condition of globality is more pragmatic and realistic in that the history is no longer told outward from one region but "at the interstices of integrating circuits of globalizing networks of power and proliferating sites of localizing politics."\textsuperscript{32}


\textsuperscript{32} Geyer and Bright, 1058.
Lauren Benton, tracing a clear and direct connection (and causal effects in both directions) from local communities and even individual families to global markets and pressures emanating from the position of particular countries and regions in the world economy. Relative to the uniqueness and the universality of human development, Benton suggested the study of various transnational phenomena of processes that naturally connected local customs to global structure such as migration, movement of labor, and other complex cultural phenomenon determined by structural force and people.

L.S. Stavrianos said, "No Western movement or institution be treated unless non-Western movements and institutions of similar magnitude or world significance also be treated." Larger questions must be considered such as why it was Westerners who spearheaded the overseas expansion rather than the Chinese, for example, who were technologically superior during most of the Middle Ages. Stavrianos also suggested a study of why more than 50 countries have become independent during the 1950's and 1960's and why this was an era of Western decline and triumph.  

WORLD SYSTEMS

One structure for interpreting global world history is a world systems approach. Numerous historians have attempted to formulate narratives to document the systematic cross-cultural encounters and effects. Immanuel Wallerstein was among the first to declare that the sixteenth century and the rise of a capitalist system created the modern world system. However, Abu-Lughod uncovered world connections between

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geographical entities during the thirteenth century, describing a world system which existed 150 years before Wallerstein's claim.

In *Before European Hegemony*, Janet Abu-Lughod discussed the relativity of knowledge saying that even scientific knowledge was socially constructed through a collective definition and which could be altered as new information surfaced or a paradigm shifted.\(^{35}\) Abu-Lughod also noted that the distance from the lens influenced which "facts" were observed and advocated opening the scale of what was included in historical accounts.\(^{36}\) Her construction of a world system theory in *Before European Hegemony* which outlined eight intersecting circuits of Afro-Eurasian trade is an example of the "wide lens" approach. This negated the argument of entirely separate developments and demonstrated sustained cross cultural contacts as early as the mid thirteenth century.

McNeill and Hodgson described a single world system of the bio-ecological zone of the Eurasian land mass. McNeill based the modern world system on economic exchanges; institutional arrangements such as military and political; and the flow of ideas, skills, and tastes that follow in the wake of changed economic and political behavior.\(^{37}\)

According to McNeill, the rise of Islam and the resurgence of the world system were simultaneous. Islam's cultural pluralism and restraints on political authority served to balance each other.\(^{38}\)


\(^{36}\) Abu-Lughod, ix.


Marshall Hodgson described the shading of events and cultural patterns into each other on all cultural levels in "The Interrelations of Societies in History," but he concentrated on regional levels which "formed a single great complex of cultural developments." He criticized modern attempts at historiography which were "based on the assumption of a series of distinct societies, distinct cultural worlds, each its own inner unity and with only external relations to the others." He concentrated on the 'political, literary, and religious aspects of civilizations. He noted that societies were never closed wholes -- there were always territories where two or more traditions competed. Even high culture was a synthesis of disparate components -- not aberrations.40

To study the processes, Hodgson proposed disassembling the interconnected processes and then reconstituting the whole to preserve the context.41 He emphasized the idea that humans inhabited "one world" and should explore ecological connections, demographic connections, economic connections, and political connections in the past and present. Hodgson also noted that the Afro-Eurasian historical complex recognized no insurmountable boundaries between the two oceans. Commercial life, the patterns of urban and rural relations and the spread of technology and the military also disregarded the boundaries of religious or literary traditions.

McNeill described an emergent world system in the ancient Middle East which arose out of political, military, and economic events. Each civilization established a core and a periphery of trade partners, as far away as hundreds of miles. Tribute and taxes,
sometimes from great distances, provided food for the imperial and regal centers.\textsuperscript{42} The masses who toiled in the fields made it possible for cultural achievements and military prowess to occur. A privileged few consumed the bulk yield of rents and taxes. Merchants thrived by capitalizing on commodities outside the realm of the authorities. Hundreds of miles of trade links by animal caravans and sailing ships dated back at least to the third millennium B.C.E., as does special legal status for the merchants who had to cross political and cultural boundaries.\textsuperscript{43}

However, Lauren Benton took issue with the proposed world systems perspectives. She maintained that the designations of core, periphery, and semi-periphery were too distinct and that in actuality, the relationships were more fluid. She also questioned the externality of Wallerstein's world economy which denied the separate existence of "the other" and relegated history as the property of the advanced industrial countries.\textsuperscript{44}

Benton summarized that a world systems framework be sensitive to the following: 1) the vitality of local culture and politics to construct the system from below; 2) varying patterns of labor and forms of economic diversity; 3) a wide array of political and state institutions and their impact, and 4) further examination and refinement of a universal or world systems theory.\textsuperscript{45}

\begin{footnotesize}
\begin{itemize}
\item\textsuperscript{42} McNeill, \textit{Rise of the West}, xxii.
\item\textsuperscript{43} McNeill, \textit{Rise of the West}, xxiii.
\item\textsuperscript{44} Lauren Benton, 267-8.
\item\textsuperscript{45} Benton, 271.
\end{itemize}
\end{footnotesize}
GLOBAL GEOGRAPHY

Just as history is to be viewed from multiple vantage points, spatial descriptions of the world also demonstrate perspectives. Geographical world images, therefore, should also be scrutinized. Some maps employ a wide lens to determine the natural features of the earth. Some establish the political boundaries between countries that may belie migrations of people who have settled in regions less distinct.

Marshall Hodgson, in *The Interrelations of Societies in History*, emphasized the importance of geographical features which have promoted or inhibited interactions of people instead of concentrating on political boundaries which belie settlement patterns of ethnic peoples. Hodgson focused on a broader concentration on the Afro-Eurasian lands which extended from the Atlantic to the Pacific Oceans.

The Mediterranean Basin was formed as part of an historical whole during the Roman Empire and at the height of the Middle Ages. Sicily combined Greek, Arab, and Latin culture. Greeks, Arabs, Latins and Persians restricted interaction with Indic lands, partly because the Hindu-Kush and Baluchistan deserts created serious barriers. The thriving trade among the regions promoted important cultural exchanges. In fact, the most important development of religions, for example, which cut across the lines of 19 civilizations, only makes sense in the context of the whole Afro-Eurasian historical and geographical complex.

Edward Said concluded that the earth is one world and therefore, the scope must focus on the impact of cultures on the world. Similarly, Dunn said, "To learn global world history, in short, is to cultivate an integral vision of the world's geographical
personality." Names, places, major mountains, rivers, islands and straits should be integrated with knowledge of empires, nations, and cities.

Attention to land surface is another dilemma in map making. An example of bias in maps is the status of Europe as a continent, although India, Pakistan, and Bangladesh, which have the same geographical characteristics, constitute a subcontinent. The ethnocentrism of map makers was clearly reflected in their projections.

Ward L. Kaiser, author of *A New View of the World*, compared the most prominently used maps — the Mercator, the Van der Grinten, the Robinson Projection, the Dymaxion World, and the Peters Projection. Gerhard Kremer first developed the Mercator Projection in 1569 for European navigators. Using the principle of cylindrical projection, it has fidelity of axis and position, but becomes progressively more distorted the greater the distance from the equator. In spite of this, its use still is most prevalent, perhaps because of the familiarity.

One example is the Mercator projection, the most commonly used, minimized the area of Islam as compared to Europe. Greenland was depicted as large and India, Indonesia, and all of Africa were depicted as small. Europe, disproportionately large and located in the upper center, designated Greenwich, England, as the prime meridian. Lands above the fortieth parallel north are exaggerated in that Europe is on a far larger scale than the Middle East, or India, or China. In fact, the European peninsula is shown as equivalent to the rest of the land mass of Asia. Terms and images are so deeply

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46 Said, 7.
entrenched that Muslims and Hindus have commonly accepted the geographical and historical terms from the West. In spite of the inaccuracies, these world maps continue to be used in newspapers, magazines, and general books. The distortive influence is even evident on a scholarly level.\textsuperscript{49} Hodgson argued that peoples of the world should view themselves in true proportion.

The Van der Grinten was developed in 1904 and used by the National Geographic Society from 1922 to 1988. However, this representation did not have equality of area, lacked fidelity of axis and position, and placed the equator well below the middle of the map, therefore overemphasizing the northern hemisphere, according to Kaiser.

Arthur H. Robinson created the Robinson Projection in 1963, which was adopted by the National Geographic in 1988. While the Van der Grinten showed Canada and the former Soviet Union as twice their actual size, the Robinson Projection is only exaggerated at one and a half times their actual size. It also lacks fidelity of axis and position, but it does provide an esthetically pleasing visual image, according to Kaiser.

The Peters Projection, created by Arno Peters, and Buckminster Fuller's "Dymaxion" World Map Projection, attempted to emphasize the equal status of all people. Peters, a German historian, drew a world map which accurately depicted all areas of the world according to their relative size. While there is some shape distortion, it does represent a consistent scale and has fidelity of axis and position.\textsuperscript{50} The Dymaxion World depicts a close approximation of equality of area but it lacks vertical axis and fidelity of position. The land mass contours are accurate. However, public acceptance of the map

Maps are not without bias; therefore, familiarity with a variety of representations creates a more balanced view of the earth's surface.

Related to the physical environment is the natural environment. Two important sources document human contact with organisms that make up the earth's ecosystem such as agriculture and disease. Alfred Crosby's *Ecological Imperialism: The Biological Expansion of Europe, 900-1900* traced the influences of the transportation of flora, fauna, and disease across oceans. In the "Columbian Exchange," American maize, potatoes, cacao, and tobacco and Eurasian wheat, vines, cattle, and hogs were exchanged. American syphilis and Eurasian smallpox were exchanged.

In a related resource, *A Green History of the World*, Clive Ponting examines the relationships between human communities and ecosystems and their impact on historical developments. Topics include the impact of the peopling of the earth, persistent problems in feeding the world's population, urbanization, infectious diseases, and pollution. He describes ecological breakdown across time and place. The legacy of global interactions—both the intended and unintended effects—increase our understanding of the physical world today.

**POST MODERN GLOBALIZATION**

Shifting spatial, political, and cultural compositions have provided the framework for the processes of world history. In *Twentieth Century World*, Carter Findley emphasized the everchanging cultural, socioeconomic, and political influences of the contemporary world, citing Olympic competitions as a global image. Women are

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50 Kaiser, 8-10.
contemporary world, citing Olympic competitions as a global image. Women are competing in greater numbers. Some countries have ceased to exist since previous games and other countries were formed. Competitors representing nations had ethnic roots elsewhere.\textsuperscript{52}

To further illustrate his point, Findley identified four themes for global studies: Global interrelatedness which analyzes patterns and connections in world events; identity and difference which challenges the autonomy of individuals and communities; the rise of mass society which reflects the increase in human populations which affects political, economic, and technical change; and technology vs. nature which measures the impact of technology on habitat.

Findley cited examples of global interrelatedness as Wallerstein's World System Theory, Gunder Frank's Dependency Theory, and Crosby's Ecological Imperialism. Highlighting "Identity and Difference," was a recognition of the complexity of civilizations which include contributions of non-elites in race, ethnicity, gender, and social class. The age between 1000 B.C.E. and 500 C.E. when Greek philosophy, Christianity, Hinduism, Buddhism, and Confucianism all emerged and eventually spread across the globe. In the case of Islam, which began in 622 C.E., the influence spread from West Africa to Western China to India and what was later known as the Philippines.


The third theme, the Rise of Mass Society, reflects a "world of mass politics, mass communications, mass consumerism, and mass military mobilization in war."53 With an increase in population from one billion in 1800 to 5.8 billion in 1996, human interactions are increasingly intense. Diaspora communities such as the Turks in Berlin and Iranians in Los Angeles are but two of Findley’s illustrations of the "escalation of mass intermingling."

In the last category, Technology vs. Nature, Findley expressed concern over ecological issues which devastated land and water resources and induced climatic change. He also added the widespread threat of technologies of destruction and others which lead to "tightening global interconnectedness, accelerating change and interaction through new communication technologies."54 While escaping the forces of nature, they also risk degrading and destroying it.

Concentrating on the final century of this millenium, Findley ultimately ponders what lies ahead? He describes emerging patterns that merit attention such as a new world configuration which has collapsed the notions of First World, Second World, and Third World arenas. Geoeconomic rivalry has edged out geopolitical rivalry. Europe, North America, East Asia, and possibly the former Soviet states may vie for hegemony in the period following the collapse of communism and escalation of autonomous movements in developing countries.

Findley also addresses the entity of the dominant form of the nation-state which may also be altered in areas unable to remain viable entities. Will separatist movements

53 Findley and Rothney, 22.
54 Findley and Rothney, 29.
escalate as interdependence increases ethnic and religious tensions at local levels? Business and religious interests transcend political boundaries which contribute to a more complex environment. In addition to government intervention, citizen groups have also become increasingly involved in influencing policies regarding basic health care and education. Because of global inequality, what entity will regulate the current free market which adversely affects low performance economies?

As a reaction to global forces, notions of identity and difference have increasingly escalated religious and nationalist movements, according to Findley. Democratization and human rights will persist as challenges of the future. He notes that local movements and religious texts spread through the use of computer technology. Computers and fax machines have also made it possible to retain an active involvement in nationalist movements, even outside the boundaries of the nation-state.

However, Findley pointed out that even with technological advances, they may not be adequate to accommodate the increased demands for food and energy supplies for escalating world populations. On a global scale, ecological issues have replaced military issues as a priority for questions of security. Global warming also poses a threat as human alter climatic conditions. All these factors make it increasingly problematic to discuss national, regional, or hemispheric histories. This is discussed further in section 2.3.

While this section described factors which influence historians’ conceptualizations of global world history, who, in turn, influence teacher thinking. The next section will describe paradigms of social studies education which shaped world history within a social studies curriculum.
2.2 SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE TWENTIETH CENTURY

Setting the stage for social studies education in the twentieth century, The National Education Association’s 1916 Report of the Committee on the Social Studies, established that history and civics would constitute the core disciplines. History provides knowledge of the past to better understand the present; and civics utilizes active participation for the betterment of the community, the nation, and the world.

Ross Dunn, editor of the National Standards for World History agreed that history is central to a social studies curriculum,

History must be the foundation of world studies because only by examining the past will [students] locate themselves in humanity’s drama and come to be aware that the world they experience is the way it is because of social processes that were activated decades, centuries, or millennia before they were born.\(^{55}\)

Just as Section 2.1 provided an overview of factors influencing conceptualizations of world history, Section 2.2 will examine conceptualizations of social studies education, in which world history is imbedded in the secondary curriculum.

At the turn of the century, waves of European immigrants seeking to assimilate into American society created a shift from classical education to preparation for citizenship. This led to a more comprehensive definition of American values, encompassing a broad range of the socio-economic spectrum. The philosophies of John Dewey were central to this discussion in the early 1900s. His prolific writings and profound ideas on national citizenship have transformed and permeated the educational

politics of this century. Dewey encouraged immigrants to embrace an American identity first to build a stronger, more unified society.

During the Progressivist era, the National Education Association (NEA) drafted the 1916 Report of the Committee on the Social Studies which is still a major influence on policy making today. The recommendations of the committee established that history and civics based courses, with attention to citizenship and political science, would provide the focus for the study of man as a member of social groups and would cultivate "good citizens."\textsuperscript{56} By 1921, the first professional organization was formed, the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) and it produced its first professional journal in 1921. As professional organizations were forming in the 1920's, they argued for separate courses in various disciplines, but John Dewey's emphasis on curricula which focused on contemporary issues prevailed.

A second major event altered social studies education in the mid century. The Soviet Union's launching of its Sputnik spacecraft in 1957 also caused a reevaluation of America's educational system. In the late 1950's, the United States initially questioned its science and mathematics curriculum, then ultimately the whole educational system. As a reaction to Sputnik, the federal government and private foundations provided funding for innovative curriculum and launched an era of "The New Social Studies" from the mid 1960's through the 1970's. Projects included a single course in a discipline as well as units of material to be used in existing courses. "The new social studies," as it was called, promoted a more active role of students, greater use of multimedia, use of

commercial and teacher-generated materials to supplement the textbook, and increased sensitivity of other cultures, ethnic groups, and non-Western areas of the world.

Reform efforts are ongoing. During the 1980s and 1990s, concentration changed from an amorphous, or at least loosely structured approach of the "new social studies" to a search for definition, purpose, and scope and sequence for social studies, including state and national standards. In the exploration of feasible alternatives, the expansive global focus evolved, partially stimulated by societal and business needs generated by modern technology and increased worldwide communications. However, as global studies educator James Becker noted, the difficulty in adopting a world studies approach is in conceptualizing and implementing a course that is easily taught, academically sound, and politically acceptable to both teachers and community groups.

Once again, American educators are pressed to address the incorporation of technology because people worldwide are increasingly linked through it. Because of technology, global communication is increasing dramatically and will alter not only our perceptions of the world but also the way we teach about it. "Preparing our children for the 21st century" is more than political rhetoric; as noted previously, it is a directive that is set forth in documents such as "A Nation at Risk" and "Goals 2000," various national history and social studies standards, and state models. The recognition that students today must be knowledgeable about world peoples and events outside of the Western realm is evident in the new emphasis on global education, even if its definitions and illustrations are evolving.

57 Martorella, 11.
Government directives are also reflective of contemporary social, political, and economic issues. "A Nation at Risk" directed social studies educators to (a) enable students to fix their places and possibilities within the larger social and cultural structure; (b) understand the broad sweep of both ancient and contemporary ideas that have shaped our world; (c) understand the fundamentals of how our economic system works and how our political system functions; and (d) grasp the difference between free and repressive societies. A global approach can encompass these goals.

Furthermore, America 2000 was billed as a strategy which charged states and localities with carrying out the responsibility of giving it form. "...Real educational reform happens community by community, school by school, and only when people come to understand what they must do for themselves and their children and set about to do it." This proclamation had fueled reform causing social studies educators on a grand scale to debate what constitutes a sound social studies education both in terms of content and pedagogy. Expanded pre-service and in-service education is implied in the directive; therefore, an examination of models worthy of replication is feasible and desirable. Directives would not come from national policy makers; rather, practitioners would be instrumental in designing model curriculum. The Aspen World History Institute in July, 1996 provided one such model.

Professional organizations have proposed guidelines to provide definition for reform efforts. At the national level are two major works, the National Standards for

World History, originally funded by the National Endowment for the Humanities and published by the National Center for History in the Schools (NCHS) and Expectations of Excellence Curriculum Standards for Social Studies, Bulletin 89, published by the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS). In both documents, a trend toward globalism is evident. The National Standards for History proposed to represent a forceful commitment to world-scale history...The aim was to encourage students to ask large and searching questions about the past, to compare patterns of continuity and change in different parts of the world, and to examine the histories and achievements of particular peoples or civilizations with an eye to wider social, cultural, or economic contexts.  

Incorporating a social studies approach, the NCSS curriculum standards devote at least three of its ten strands to global themes -- "Culture," "Time, Continuity, and Change" and "Global Connections." The first promotes the study of how "human beings create, learn, and adapt culture" which exhibits both similarities and differences in people across time and place. The second emphasizes experiences that "provide for the study of the ways human being view themselves in and over time" and the latter emphasizes experiences that provide for the study of the important and diverse global connections among world societies and their interdependence. At the state level, the Ohio Department of Education devotes a strand to "World Interactions" which spans kindergarten to grade 12. It explores links between peoples around the world and

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63 NCSS, 22.
64 NCSS, 29.
addresses common problems and challenges of acting in an interdependent world. Therefore, widespread attention is paid to global concerns.

A post conference publication by Robert Woyach and Richard Remy, *Approaches to World Studies: A Handbook for Curriculum Planners,* summarized four approaches to world studies including one in world history and one in Western Civilization. It outlined course content and evaluated the strengths and weaknesses of each approach. Kevin Reilly's conceptualization of world history was influenced by William Mc Neill's comparative civilizations approach. Sections on a cultural approach and an international studies approach, while not focused on history, could be infused into a history course.

MERGING OF CONTENT AND PEDAGOGY

The movement to create global history has suggested changes in both content and pedagogy. In typical teacher preparation, students learn content in history courses and pedagogy separately in their methods courses. Therefore, participants at the institute were charged with the task of reflecting on course material and methods to instruct their students and how they might teach more effectively.

Since knowledge is not viewed in static terms, instructors must assist students in learning how to process and reflect on information. Therefore, the content the instructor selects is considered in tangent with how students will understand it best. Alan Griffin agreed that content and methodology must be taught simultaneously in teacher training. He argued, "Subject matter which teachers expect to use in promoting reflection should

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65 *Social Studies: Ohio's Model Competency-Based Program* (Columbus: Ohio Department of Education, 1994), 20.

have been learned through reflection." Furthermore, he claimed, "The prospective teacher's subject matter preparation should be carried on in the light of his intent subsequently to use subject-matter for the promotion of reflective thinking on the part both of the students and the prospective teacher himself.""68

Lee Shulman's "Model of Pedagogical Reasoning and Action addressed the relationship of content and pedagogy through the concept of pedagogical content knowledge that "embodies the aspects of content most germane to its teachability." He noted that teachers consider both content and pedagogy simultaneously when constructing lessons. Shulman described pedagogical content knowledge as that special amalgam of content and pedagogy that is uniquely the province of teachers, their own special form of professional understanding...the category most likely to distinguish the understanding of the content specialist from that of the pedagogue.69

In his "Model of Pedagogical Reasoning and Action," Shulman described six phases. First the teacher must comprehend the purposes, subject matter structures, and ideas within and outside the discipline. Second is the Transformation stage which consists of critical interpretation and analysis of texts, use of analogies, metaphors and examples, choice of instructional strategy, and adaptation to student characteristics. Third is Instruction in the form of active teaching, discovery, or inquiry instruction. Fourth, Evaluation involves checking for student understanding and self evaluation and making adjustments where needed. Fifth, Reflection calls for grounding explanations for

68 Griffin, 65.
the teacher's and the students' performance in evidence. Last, New Comprehensions result in terms of purpose, subject matter, students, teaching, and self. Teaching and learning and content and pedagogical are interwoven.70

Fred Newmann and Gary Wehlage "also bridged the connections between subject matter preparations and pedagogical concerns through their development of “Standards for Authentic Student Performance.”71 It consists of Construction of Knowledge, Disciplined Inquiry, and Value Beyond School. In Construction of Knowledge, students organize, synthesize, interpret, evaluate, and hypothesize information and consider different points of view. In Disciplined Inquiry, they use concepts, theories, and principles from social studies disciplines. Student also use Elaborated Written Communication to describe their understanding in detail. In Value Beyond School, student connect their learning to settings outside the classroom. This may involve a problem or issue they are like to encounter in daily life and the audience for products students create extends beyond the teacher to other students and even the community. How teachers and students learn content and processes of the discipline are imbedded in a constructivist epistemology.

This is further supported by other related studies. Giselle O. Martin-Kniep agreed with Schulman. “...Many of us have realized that teaching content, skills, or attitudes in a vacuum does not produce the kind of learning we want for our teachers and that we need

70 Shulman, 15.
71 Fred M. Newmann and Gary G. Wehlage, Successful School Restructuring, (Madison, WI: Board of Regents of the University of Wisconsin System, 1995), 10.
learning and assessment opportunities that integrate all three into a seamless whole.  

She added that attitudes and dispositions such as perspective consciousness were more problematic than discrete knowledge and skills but could be assessed through observations and authentic demonstration and performances.

Social studies education establishes the overarching framework within which global world history must fit in a secondary curriculum. Continuing to emphasize the traditional elements of history and citizenship, it is consistent with traditional social studies education but encompasses more depth and breadth. The pedagogical elements of education can enhance student learning of the history content when considered simultaneously. The following section will explore further the literature which directly addresses educator's views on global studies.

2.3 EDUCATORS SUPPORT GLOBAL APPROACHES

Global approaches are prevalent in educational literature. While little focuses directly on global world history, most encompass broader themes in social studies education. While historians were redefining world history, social studies educators were more attentive to suggesting global themes relative to social studies and their classroom application. Educators Willard Kniep, Steven Lamy, Robert Hanvey, Harlan Cleveland, James Banks, James Becker, Merry Merryfield, Richard Remy, and Chad Alger have been instrumental in examining the implications of global studies for education as students examine their place in a world context.

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The links between history and education corroborate Lee Shulman’s merging of content and pedagogical concerns. While historians concentrated more on the content and process of history, educators emphasized pedagogical concerns in their exploration of learning and teaching. *In Teaching About International Conflict and Peace*, Merry Merryfield and Richard Remy noted that knowledge was necessary for processing to occur. They also advocated active, reflective learning so a student can learn to be a "researcher, thinker, decision-maker, and meaning-maker."\(^73\) Values, inherent in social studies, had to be brought to the forefront if topics such as injustice, inequality, and inhumanity were to be discussed meaningfully. They proposed a variety of instructional strategies and a merging of content and pedagogy to maximize educational goals, particularly in regard to understanding international conflict management. Authentic application of knowledge with examples of classroom practice were detailed in their publication.

While historians emphasize historical analysis, educators emphasize active citizenship. In Chapter 4 of *Teaching About International Conflict and Peace*, Chad Alger argued that people needed to be broadly educated to participate in the democratic process. He indicated that even though some are reluctant to explore topics such as non-violence, preferring instead the more traditional approaches of diplomacy and balance of power, he maintained that peace education is more encompassing in today’s world, especially in light of the influence of non-governmental organizations. Peace education in the Twentieth Century is partially a quest for a definition of peace that can

accommodate a diversity of threats to fulfillment of human potential—bombs, gunshot wounds, as well as slow death from preventable disease and the diminishing of mental and physical capacity by malnutrition and pollution.\textsuperscript{74}

Alger identified 21 approaches to managing, resolving, and avoiding international conflict from the nineteenth century to the present based on the League Covenant, United Nations Charter, United Nations practice, and non-government organizations and people's movements. Topics included diplomacy, balance of power, collective security, peaceful settlement, disarmament/arms control, functionalism, self-determination, human rights, peacekeeping, economic development, economic equity, communications equity, ecological balance, governance for commons, arms control, non-violence, citizen defense, self-reliance, feminist, and peace education. Students could use historical examples to examine these on a global scale.

In \textit{Global Perspectives for Educators}, general goals for students in global education classes were the following:

1. The ability to deal with concepts and theories that try to explain how the world system of human interactions works.

2. The development of a global consciousness, a consciousness that gives individuals a sense that they are members of a world community.

3. The predisposition to help the world's environment and a willingness to act in order to bring about justifiable changes in the environment.\textsuperscript{75}


\textsuperscript{75} Carlos F. Diaz et al., \textit{Global Perspectives for Educators}, (Boston: Allyn and Bacon), 218.
Merry Merryfield and Connie White suggested the following areas when examining global issues in social studies: political issues, cultural-social issues, development issues, economic issues, and environmental issues. They also stressed multiple perspectives and interconnections of the world.76

Barbara Benham Tye77 and Toni Fuss Kirkwood78 advocated adopting a global approach as a means for school reform to examine general characteristics of sound teaching, and to identify unique aspects of school sites and their communities which might enhance education through a more inclusive approach.

James Becker proposed the following recommendations for revising current curriculum models:

- The introduction into the curriculum of more content focused on Asia, Africa, and Latin America, combined with efforts to reduce western bias in teaching about the non-West.
- Special projects and programs that provide materials and services on topics such as energy, peace, conflict, population, economic development, and trade.
- More attention to world geography and world history
- More offerings in economics, with some recognition of its global context

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• Recommendations by several states that schools place increased emphasis on global studies, and

• More "outreach activities" for many of the Title 6, U.S. Department of Education, National Resource Centers for Area and International Studies.

Becker also quoted the College Entrance Examination Board’s (1986) adoption of a worldwide perspective,

The topic here is the world, not each and every one of its parts...Teaching about the history of the world must proceed top down, deductively employing ways in which events and developments of the past can be grouped together as communalities, continuities, and contrasts...\textsuperscript{79}

As a practical matter, the Educational Testing Service bulletin states that political, diplomatic, intellectual, cultural, social, and economic fields are covered in the SAT II World History Subject Test. They suggest academic preparation through "a course in world or global history, concentrating on either world cultures or area studies, or a course in European history taught against a global background."\textsuperscript{80} The Educational Testing Service cites the geographical breakdown of subject matter as follows. The United States or the world as an entity are not included.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southwest Asia</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Asia</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Asia</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Americas (excluding U.S.)</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross-regional</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textsuperscript{79} Becker, 75.

The directors of the Aspen World History Institute, Heidi Roupp and Marilynn Hitchens co-authored *How to Prepare for SAT II: World History.* A global approach was evident in the structure of their chapters. In each Unit Review is a segment on "Cross-Regional Developments."

Roupp's *Teaching World History: A Resource Book* includes articles discussions of the merits and disadvantages of a global perspective and practical examples for classroom use by secondary teachers and college and university professors.

Both Becker and Ida Urso concluded that more attention was necessary to assist teachers in acquiring new insights and information. Urso claimed that a four year study of teachers from 11 elementary and secondary schools in Orange County, California through an education project at the Center for Human Interdependence (CHI) at Chapman College determined that global education had a motivational effect on participants in spite of the demands to add new knowledge and skills. They adopted global education to promote cross-cultural understanding, holistic learning, and community involvement.

Charlotte Anderson, Robert Woyach, and Richard Remy all advocated a community-based approach to global education by exploring local ties to global events.

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83 Becker, 71.
85 Urso, 102-3.
and trends. The inquiry also promoted a transnational view of world events. While this approach exceeded the realm of global world history, it did have some direct application when researching oral histories or examining historical, social, cultural, political, and economic aspects driven by world events. Once again, local and global connections could be made by adjusting the scope of the study.

Educators, like historians, have addressed the concept of patterns in world systems. The consideration of world issues by both groups has encompassed similar information, but the emphasis has differed. Although not mutually exclusive, world history centered on historical analysis and understanding, while in education, world citizenship was at the core.

Lee Anderson said in “A Rationale for Global Education.”⁸⁸ that with the erosion of Western dominance and the decline of American hegemony since the 1970’s, it was increasingly important to set American society in a world context. The formation of 100 new politically independent states, the dramatic decline in the production of U.S. cars (from 75 to 25 per cent of the world market), and the transition from the largest creditor nation to the largest debtor nation are among the factors which have contributed to a focus on global changes.

Furthermore, Anderson argued that global history linked local events to global events. He also noted that modern history is an outgrowth of European expansion, the emergence and growth of capitalism, and the diffusion of modern science. Other links

⁸⁷ Robert B. Woyach and Richrd C. Remy, “A Community-Based Approach to Global Education,” Theory into Practice, 21/3, (Summer, 1992), 177-82.
were also evident. Geography has affected global systems of transportation and communication. A global economy links local, regional, national, and international spheres. Multi-national corporations have created multiple allegiances. More than 400 political organizations are international. Demographically, people are linked to other parts of the world through race, ethnicity, language, religion, and cultural traditions.

In "Education with a Global Perspective," Anderson also proposed studying about world systems which explore the linkages between individuals and societies that surpass political and social boundaries. He suggested four types of competencies. The first is an awareness of involvement in the world system -- biologically, ecologically, socio-culturally, and historically and psychologically. Humans are linked biologically as members of a single common species. Ecologically, life forms are linked to the planet's material and energetic structure. Socio-culturally, humans have created their environment. Historically, humans have transferred an amalgam of technologies, languages, beliefs, and institutions to their descendants and to people who live in other areas. Psychologically, humans interact with the world through perceptions, attitudes, and beliefs.

The second competency involves decision-making in two forms: the adaptation of individuals and members of a group to external events and the recognition that decisions that once had local or short term effects may not have far-reaching and long-term effects. The third competency recognizes that judgments reflect beliefs and there are choices among alternative beliefs. The four competency is the ability to exercise a greater degree

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of control including the reduction of unintended outcomes and the ability to adapt to the realities over which one has no control and to minimize the negative consequences.

He also stressed decision and judgment making in the realms of managing cultural diversity, conflict and violence, inequalities of wealth and power, interactions of humans and the biosphere, population growth and the use of power.

Adapting a model by Kenneth Boulding, Goodlad devised "The World's Systems and the Scope of School-Based Curricula for Expanding Students' Views of Their World" which included studies in six elements: 1) Traits and characteristics of human beings, 2) collective managements of the lives of human beings through social, political, and economic systems (the global village); the world as a physical system; the world as a biological system, evaluative and belief systems, communicative and expressive systems. These themes parallel those historians identified as well.

Robert Hanvey proposed "An Attainable Global Perspective" with five dimensions: perspective consciousness; state of the planet awareness including emergent conditions and trends, cross-cultural awareness including some understanding of how one's own society may be viewed in alternate ways; knowledge of global dynamics with some recognition of key traits of the world system, and awareness of human choices confronting individuals, nations, and the human species which weighs risks and rights.

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Hanvey said that a "global perspective necessitated insights into particular patterns of change, those which characterized the era." Students of global systems must also be aware of the role that individuals, nations, and the human species played in making choices. He claimed that the principles of the past no longer seemed to apply and new knowledge of how social and physical systems worked and interacted on the global stage demanded fleshing out new trends and patterns, and new visions of the future based on present actions.

Hanvey's practical approach to global awareness centered on environmental and cultural matters. It originated with addressing short term consequences of global awareness for one's own group such as family, company, and country and applying methods and techniques which primarily benefited one's own group. Then, by extension, global cognition addressed long-term consequences, linkages between events, social goals and values, effects on other societies, the relationship of national interests to human interests, and methods and techniques for maximizing human welfare.

James Banks also addressed concerns about cultural awareness and cited the need for development of knowledge, attitudes, and skills to enable students to function within various ethnic cultures in their own society and because of the highly interdependent society, outside their nation-state as well. He advocated relating multiethnic and global education for "helping students develop an understanding of the interdependence among

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93 Hanvey, 105.
nations in the modern world, clarified attitudes toward other nations, and a reflective identification with the world community."

Harland Cleveland suggested encouraging children to develop a "durable feel" for world affairs, not knowledge in the traditional sense, because information was rapidly changing. The consequence of this was a fundamental questioning about the nature and purpose of schooling. Global education was embedded in a vision of the future which stressed world citizenship for the twenty-first century. Students were to develop a sense of basic human needs, global change, 'national security,' world economies, cooperation and consensus building, cultural diversity, political pluralism, and the nature of leadership. He also proposed a more active role for classrooms which would involve parents and students, teachers and administrators, board of education members, political leaders, business leaders, labor representatives, church and community organizations, the academic community, and the media to enhance learning opportunities.

Willard Kniep said that a global view of the world tended to lead toward a holistic rather than a behaviorist view of human development and toward a preference for active and interactive learning strategies rather than those in which students tended to be passive and isolated from one another. "Knowledge will tend to be tentative, elastic, and personal rather than circumscribed, static, and distant," said Kniep. Teaching was to focus on concepts involving human and diverse human values; global economic, political, ecological, and technical systems; global issues and problems such as peace and security.

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issues and human rights; global history in terms of universal and diverse human values, the development of global systems, and the causes of contemporary global issues.\textsuperscript{98}

Kniepp also proposed studying persistent problems in the environment, human rights, peace and security, national development and international development. He also outlined five global themes: interdependence, change, culture, scarcity, and conflict.

Steve Lamy agreed with the practical approach and outlined nine aspects to prepare students for understanding the contemporary international system, as compared to a more competitive and anarchic traditional system:

1) The emergence of new state actors after decolonization.

2) Multiple linkages in international transactions.

3) Increase in the power and influence of nonstate actors and transnational enterprises such as Exxon or Gulf Oil.

4) Increase in the power and influence of Non-state Actors- Nongovernmental Organizations (NGO's) such as Amnesty International and the Sierra Club.

5) The Establishment of International Organizations and International Regimes

6) Changes in the Distribution of Power and the Viability of Force

7) Technological Diffusion and the Growth of Communication Networks

8) The Persistence of War and Inequality and

9) A New International Agenda\textsuperscript{99}

\textsuperscript{97} Kniep, 35.
\textsuperscript{98} Kniep, 151.
Lamy also developed sixteen competencies for a global education program. Among them was the ability to understand decision-making processes of public and private organizations, the costs and benefits of interdependence and dependence in the international system, and awareness of how achieved and ascribed identities affect perceptions and actions, encouragement of intellectual pluralism, analysis of historical trends and patterns, awareness of links across time and cultures, awareness of the influences of geographic locations, the ability to examine evidence from competing ideological, cultural, and gender perspectives. He also proposed development of an empathy for people affected by world issues and of an appreciation for nationalism and patriotism short of chauvinism. He encouraged skills to defend or refute statements by public officials and exploration of alternatives to the status quo including options other than winner-take-all. Lamy also advocated preparation in cooperation and competition to create a more stable world.100

The education literature paralleled world history literature but history stressed historical understandings while education stressed citizenship links to the community and students' lives. More attention was given to the direct application of historical knowledge to explore notions of local, national, and global citizenship, universal and diverse cultures, environmental issues, and leadership, for example. However, the recurrent themes of culture and multiple perspectives, local and regional ties to global, thematic approaches, world system theories, new geographical analyses, and a more thought provoking engagement with the material permeated the literature in history and education.

Content and methodology merge to teach and learn global world history. Means of evaluating performance must also utilize non-standards forms of assessment which address attitudinal issues as well.

For reasons outlined in this chapter, attention is increasingly focused on global issues. As exploration of new knowledge is the goals of historians and educators alike, facts are placed in contexts to be dissected and reconstituted into various configurations depending on the question at hand. Links across time and place are fluid entities where pinpoints of time serve as intersections of broader understandings. The lines of content and pedagogy interplay to provide for a deeper and broader understanding of world historical events.
CHAPTER 3
DESIGN OF THE STUDY

During the summer of 1996, secondary teachers and professors gathered at the Aspen World History Institute to examine the theory and practice of global world history. This presented an excellent opportunity to document the discussions and lessons related to the Institute in an attempt to understand how the participants' current practice could be altered to better accommodate the content of global world history.

The general research question was to examine how secondary teachers and university professors conceptualized and implemented global world history at the Aspen World History Institute. During the design and conduct of the study, three questions guided my research.

1. What conceptualizations of global world history were held by the educators and historians participating in the Aspen Institute?

2. What did participants take to be the key content and pedagogical elements that constitute a global approach to world history?

3. What problems did the Institute participants encounter in conceptualizing a global approach to world history?
A fourth question emerged during the study. What could be learned from the Institute about the relationship between content, pedagogy, and disciplinary skills employed in the teaching of world history?

Since this study centered on conceptualizations and implementation of global world history, qualitative methodology was appropriate. The design of the study was descriptive to document the phenomenon of the inquiry. By conducting the study in its natural setting, the Institute itself, I attempted to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meaning people brought to it.

This chapter will describe the research design for the study. This chapter is divided into six sections derived from procedures of qualitative research outlined by Corrine Glesne and Alan Peshkin in *Becoming Qualitative Researchers.*

The first section addresses conceptual frameworks of the interpretivist paradigm including the theories of Norman Denzin, Egon Guba, and Yvonna Lincoln and grounded theory as defined by Anselm Strauss and Juliet Corbin. The second section addresses pre-study tasks consisting of gaining access, site selection, and data collection and management. The third section describes issues related to rapport and subjectivity. The fourth section discusses procedures used for data analysis. The fifth section describes the choice of writing style for the narrative. In conclusion, the sixth section considers assumptions undergirding the study.

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3.1 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORKS

INTERPRETIST PARADIGM

The interpretivist paradigm attempts to understand meaning through open dialogue. The researcher acts as the primary gatherer and interpreter of meaning in a natural setting. Therefore, meaning is contextualized. I attempted to describe the "salient behaviors, events, beliefs, attitudes, structures, processes occurring in this phenomena."\(^4\) Denzin and Lincoln described the qualitative process as that of "a piecing together of a close knit set of practices that provide solutions to a problem in a concrete situation."\(^5\)

Through emergent construction, new forms take shape as different tools, methods, and techniques are added. Practice is pragmatic, strategic, and self-reflexive.\(^6\)

The study did not attempt to measure the degree to which global world history was practiced, rather it recognized that the phenomenon of global world history took multiple forms. This study sought to document the thoughts and actions of the participants and the researcher as they defined global world history during the Institute.

GROUNDED THEORY

Grounded theory, as defined by Anselm Strauss and Juliet Corbin, was the strategy used to ensure the integrity, validity, and accuracy of the findings.\(^7\) It is based on the epistemology of knowledge production, that is, it explores plausible relationships

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among concepts and set of concepts which are strengthened through continued research. Grounded theory researchers are concerned with "reciprocal changes in patterns of action/interaction and in relationship with changes of conditions either internal or external to the process itself." Therefore, if similar conditions are present, similar consequences should occur. As participants of the Institute identify practical elements of global world history, potentially, this will be useful to other classrooms with comparable circumstances.

Grounded theory calls for the ongoing interplay of the researcher with data collected during the research project. The actual practice has varied with the purpose and intent of the research, the circumstances of the project, and even the temperament and talents or weaknesses of the researcher. Therefore, to establish the circumstances unique to this study, I will describe the particular context of gaining access, site selection, establishing trust, data collection, and data analysis in the following sub-sections.

3.2 PRE-STUDY TASKS

SITE SELECTION

The Aspen World History Institute provided an excellent opportunity to examine how secondary teachers and university professors conceptualize a global approach to world history for several reasons. First, the Institute was an appropriate site for the study because teachers gathered to discuss various approaches to global world history and to debate their merits. Secondary and post-secondary faculty from Western states, an

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Eastern state, and a Southern state in both private and public institutions were represented so that similarities and differences might be discerned. Ages of participants ranged from 20's to 50's and there were five females and five males. Teaching experience ranged from two years to 20+ years. Five participants taught in post secondary institutions and three taught in secondary institutions. They were self-selected by virtue of their choice of participating in the summer Institute. They confirmed their willingness to take part in the research by signing a permission form acknowledging their consent to act as a subject of the study with the understanding that they could choose not to participate in any aspect or could withdraw at any time. They were also selected because of being an instructor at the secondary or college level and currently teaching some form of world history or preparing to do so.

Second, the Institute directors, Marilynn Hitchens and Heidi Roupp qualify as “elites” as defined by Catherine Marshall and Gretchen B. Rossman because they are well-informed and influential people in the field of world history. In Marshall and Grossman’s terms, they are “considered to be the influential, the prominent, and the well-informed people in an organization or community and are selected for interviews on the basis of their expertise in areas relevant to the search.”\(^{10}\) After having served as Secretary and Vice-president of the World History Association, Roupp is currently President. She was awarded the Albert Beveridge Teaching Award by the American Historical Association in January, 1997. Together Hitchens and Roupp co-authored *How to Prepare*

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for SAT II: World History, co-edited The Aspen World History Handbook: An Organizational Framework, Lessons, and Book Reviews for Non-Centric World History, and Roupp edited Teaching World History: A Resource Book. They also qualify because “they are intelligent and quick-thinking people, at home in the realm of ideas, policies, and generalizations” in the topic of global world history. Both Hitchens and Roupp were instrumental in the formation of the Rocky Mountain World History Association and the national World History Association which spearheaded a forum for secondary and post secondary world history teachers to discuss common goals, problems, and solutions to the evolving field of global world history.

Third, the format of the Institute provided the opportunity for presenting and discussing ideas about global world history from guest speakers, directors, and participants. An outline of the daily schedule is provided in Appendix A.

The Institute facility included a media center where students had access to computers and the internet once they had been screened and had signed the appropriate permission forms. During the Institute, participants convened in a world history classroom and sat on the perimeter of long tables in rectangular formation to maximize communication. They generally sat in the same seats throughout the Institute, although that was not specified.

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11 Heidi Roupp and Mariylnn Hitchens, How to Prepare for SAT II: World History, Hauppauge, NY: Barron’s, 1996
12 Editors included George E. Brooks, Dik A.Daso, Mariynn Hitchens, and Heidi Roupp and was published privately in 1994.
The directors, Heidi Roupp and Marilynn Hitchens, previously had directed a
global world history Institute in Aspen, Colorado, in 1992 that had a similar theme but
different structure. In the 1996 Institute, a series of guest speakers from various
specialties directed a topic each day whereas the 1992 institute one featured one guest
speaker throughout. The credentials of the directors are discussed in greater detail in
Chapter 4.

GAINING ACCESS

The directors of the world history Institute, Heidi Roupp and Marilynn Hitchens,
agreed to both participate in the study and to allow access to those participants who gave
their permission. I had met one director, Heidi Roupp, at the Woodrow Wilson Summer
Institute at Princeton University in 1991 and had continued our acquaintance through the
World History Association where I also met the other director, Marilyn Hitchens. We had
presented together on a panel sponsored by the World History Association at a conference
on the “Environment and World History” in 1994. Therefore, we had some prior
knowledge about each other’s orientations to global world history and backgrounds.
When Heidi and Marilynn had invited me to speak at the Institute on assessments in
Global World history, I proposed that I use this opportunity to research how participants
conceptualized global world history, and the directors agreed. Gaining access to the
participants was facilitated by my daily interactions with them, both formally and
informally, and through the support of the directors of the Institute. For example, the
directors agreed to my request for journal writing and generously gave of their time when
I had questions or to discuss incidents as the Institute evolved. However, to maintain my

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objectivity, we limited our discussions to debriefings about occurrences in daily activities and then engaged in mutual sharing and did not attempt to privilege anyone’s ideas.

TIME FRAME

The time frame for the study was predetermined by the length of the Institute – from Sunday evening until Friday evening thirteen days later. Participants gathered informally on the Sunday evening prior to the start of the Institute to meet one another. Everyone reintroduced themselves more formally during the roundtable session the first day of the Institute. All participants signed the research project permission form, however, one participant did not wish to be interviewed or participate in any aspect outside the daily activities. However, she did agree to allow me to include her lesson plan, presentation and debriefings.

DATA COLLECTION AND MANAGEMENT

This study employed triangulation by using five methods of data collection: participant observation, in-depth interviewing, document analysis, unobtrusive measures, and survey questionnaires. This provided a variety of ways to obtain information to accommodate the various wishes of the participants, but it also served as a back-up source. For example, two of the audio taping sessions of the roundtable discussions experienced some difficulty with the microphone, but I was able to use field notes to fill in the gaps. The five methods are summarized below.

Observer Participant. I chose the role of observer-participant in the case study because of the descriptive and interpretive approach. This role is influenced by several factors: the degree to which the researcher is known to the participants, how much and
what is known about the research, degree of involvement in the activities, and a conscious
effort to be situated as an inside or an outsider.

Several participants indicated they had heard a presentation by the researcher at a
world history conference in 1994, but no other interactions had occurred prior to the
Institute. I chose to attend all class sessions for the duration of the Institute and most
social occasions as well. Participants were informed at the outset that the study was to
document their thinking as it evolved and not to measure their performance against
established criteria. In that sense, a desire to share perspectives seemed to set the tone for
subsequent dialogues.

My role as observer took precedence over my role as participant because of a
desire to allow participants to express themselves freely, even views inconsistent with
global approaches. I chose to limit my comments during discussions to those that would
spur further thought or clarification of an idea and to the scheduled presentation on
assessments on the final day of the Institute. This was to allow thoughts of the
participants to surface without my undue influence or interference. The focus on observer
also was intended to minimize the reduction of the quality of the data by acting as an
insider.\(^\text{15}\) However, I also took an emic point of view during some discussions to
establish rapport and credibility as a member of the group. To some extent, my
familiarity with global world history was influenced by my reading works similar to that
read by the directors, so this also contributed to an emic position.

\(^{15}\) Janice M. Morse, “Designing Funded Qualitative Research,” *Handbook of Qualitative Research*,
Consistent with Patricia Adler and Peter Adler’s “Observational Techniques,” naturalistic observation and interviews utilized the context of occurrence with participants in the stream of natural unfolding of events during the daily sessions. Through this method, the observer is attentive to the phenomenological complexity of the world where connections, correlation, and causes can be witnessed as they develop. Therefore, the researcher searches for trends, patterns, and styles of behavior and documents the participants’ understandings of such patterns.

*In-depth Interviewing.* To increase my understanding of individual perspectives, formal interviews provided one on one communication. Audio tapes of interviews were conducted on four occasions – at the start of the Institute, after their lesson presentation, midway through the Institute, and at the end of the Institute.

On the first Monday and Tuesday, I met individually with each participant to discuss some fundamental issues. First, since most did not fill out the survey that was sent prior to the Institute, it served as a gentle reminder of the importance of documenting their initial thoughts prior to incorporating thoughts from the Institute. Second, I asked them to suggest a pseudonym so that I could refer to them anonymously in the study. Third, I asked them seven basic questions:

1. How would you define global world history?
2. How much experience have you had teaching global world history?
3. How would you characterize your school, teaching assignment, and students?

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4. How did you construct your sample lesson of global world history. (Each participant was required to prepare a lesson prior to arriving at the Institute to present to the group.)

5. Why did you choose to become a world history instructor?

6. Describe any travel experiences you have had outside of the United States.

7. What is your teaching style?

8. What questions do you have?

These questions were intended to become acquainted with their background as a world history teacher, the sites where they taught, their understanding of global world history, and their thoughts about the Institute or questions about my role as the researcher.

The second interview with participants was after the presentation of their lessons.

Individually, I asked them to comment on four areas:

1. Discuss the feedback you received from the group on your sample lessons.

2. What changes will you make in your lesson?

3. What have you learned at the Institute so far?

4. What do you need to know to teach global world history better?

These questions were intended to gauge the response of the presenter to the discussion regarding his or her lesson. It was also to document questions that had arisen about the nature and practice of global world history, as defined by the group. It was also designed to provide insights as to what is helpful for participants to know as they continue to develop their thinking.
The third formal interview was to determine their individual teaching style. I asked each participate the following questions:

1. In what ways are you a student centered teacher?
2. In what ways are you a teacher centered teacher?
3. What influenced how you constructed your course? (i.e. choice of textbook, course of study, own creation, training)
4. Do you use themes in your teaching? Do you discuss political history, social history, environmental history, or gender history?

During the last two days of the Institute, I conducted the final oral interview with the following questions:

1. How would you define global world history now?
2. How do you plan to alter your course to be more global?
3. What difficulties do you see in implementing the approach?
4. Are there any further comments you would like to add at this time?

Since time was limited and I was able to gather further information from the post Institute surveys, I used only these four questions.

*Document Analysis.* Another means of determining participant’s understanding of global world history was through the lessons they submitted during their presentations, their journal writing, and lessons they submitted for the culminating publication. Through these written documents, it was possible to discern individual responses to the topics which surfaced in the daily discussions and the individual conceptualization and implementation of lessons in global world history.
Additional types of documents were also collected and examined. These consisted of the following: handouts that often accompanied the roundtable discussions and sometimes the lesson presentations; my field notes of all the daily activities such as guest speaker presentations, lesson presentations, and roundtable discussions; and post Institute publication, *Aspen World History Handbook II: New Research and Lesser Known Tales, Habit of Mind, Lessons, and Assessments*. This publication provided further documentation of lectures during the Institute and the revised lessons of the participants.

To encourage participants to write journals, the only guideline was for them to reflect on what was useful to them in the daily Institute sessions. They were to identify and respond to issues they found useful, not necessarily what the directors or I deemed important. Some diligently responded by taking copious notes on the daily activities and then reflecting on their meaning; others made irregular notations. Although several participants voiced objections to the journal entries, ultimately all produced some form of journal except for one member who from the outset had agreed to no involvement in the study beyond outside of the Institute activities themselves. Still others responded with minimal effort, sufficient to satisfy the requirement for professional development credit toward salary advancement. Two members chose not to participate in this component.

*Unobtrusive Measures.* Unobtrusive measures to collect data consisted of daily audio taping of lesson presentations and debriefings, roundtable discussions, and
presentations by guest speakers and the taking of one roll of still pictures to document the physical environment of the Institute.

*Questionnaires.* Questionnaires were mailed to the participants prior to the start of the Institute to determine their educational and professional background and their knowledge of global world history. [APPENDIX B] Although no one had filled the questionnaire out before their arrival, with encouragement, all but one did complete the survey within the first day and a half of the Institute. In addition, on the final afternoon of the Institute, participants were asked to reflect in writing on the successes and inadequacies of the Institute. This included procedural issues as well as more general comments about what they learned during the Institute. From this, we could learn what areas were useful in conceptualizing global work history and which needed to be improved.

Several procedures ensured proper managing of the data. First, all tapes of interviews were marked with the initials of the participant or the director, the date, and the occasion such as initial interview (init.), lesson, or final interview (fin.) Tapes of the roundtable discussion were marked with the topic, the date, and the initials of the presenter. Transcriptions of the interviews, beginning and final surveys, lessons, and any other pertinent information such as handouts were filed in folders under the initials of the participant. Handouts from the roundtable discussions were filed in the presenter’s folder. Handouts and articles of the guest speakers were filed separately. To keep the data manageable, these were included in the study only when referenced by the
participants or the directors. Copies of the lessons published in the culminating handbook were also inserted into the files of the appropriate participant.

3.3 RAPPORT AND SUBJECTIVITY

As an observer-participant, the emphasis was on mutual sharing as colleagues. This is consistent with “studying sideways” where the participants and I engage in creating mutual respect as defined by Joke Schrijvers. I attempted to establish rapport and trust with the participants in several ways throughout the Institute. First, I chose to act as an observer participant to emphasize my role in documenting the contributions of the participants’ conversations and lessons about global world history, not measuring the abilities of practitioners. I participated occasionally by joining the conversations, presenting on assessments on the final day, and by questioning my own assumptions about global world history during the discussions.

Second, participants were encouraged to speak freely about problems and concerns so that the group could share their thoughts without fear of reprisal. Noting the years of teaching experience, acquired degrees, knowledge of world history content, or level of instruction was intended to establish the background of the participants, not to establish a hierarchy or relative value of the participants. All participants were seen as valuable contributors to the dialogue since I hoped to account for experiences with a range of preparation in teaching world history.

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Third, I attended social functions of the Institute to establish rapport with participants further and to better understand the orientation of the participants. This provided opportunities to talk informally with members of the group, to follow up on conversations, and to enjoy time together. Affective elements undoubtedly affect effort and performance so I sincerely made an effort to acquaint myself with the interests and backgrounds of others in the group.

Fourth, respect for the participants' time commitment and levels of involvement also facilitated interactions. Some of the participants were more communicative than others, but over the course of the Institute, all participants appeared to openly voice their thoughts. I encouraged their sharing ideas, but also respected their time limitations because of commitments to family members who had traveled with them or the desire for solitude after long days of intense discussions. The participants chose times convenient for them to meet and they often determined the length of the interviews. However, as the researcher, I still directed the interviews and addressed specific questions in formal interviews. Other measures taken to attend to ethical issues are discussed more fully in 3.4.

These concerns for the welfare of the participants are consistent with the intent of the study which is to enhance our understanding of peoples of the world. Valerie Janesick described qualitative research as a study which “requires passion, passion for people, passion for communication, passion for understanding people...For too long we
have allowed psychometrics to rule our research and thus to decontextualize individuals.\textsuperscript{18}

Therefore, this research noted various orientations to teaching about world history both from an historical perspective as well as from the diverse perspectives of the participants. The review of literature section discussed historical and theoretical frameworks of global world history and related educational practices. A combination of these influences shaped the orientations of the participants. For the same reason, personal profiles were necessary to identify the initial beliefs of the participants and directors. These are included in Chapter 4.

3.4 DATA ANALYSIS

THEORETICAL CODING

Effective theoretical coding incorporates the disciplinary or professional knowledge of the researcher.\textsuperscript{19} In data collection and analysis, I searched for appropriate connections, recognizing that participants would each stress areas of interest and importance to them and their topic.

Data analysis was ongoing during the Institute and throughout the writing process. I identified emerging themes in conversation and written products. I examined them for the frequency and forms in which they occurred. Examples included thematic topics which surfaced or were specifically identified in conversations and lessons.


During the evenings, as time allowed, I reviewed my notes and made notations in the margin, if questions or thoughts arose. Sometimes questions surfaced; other times I would reflect on what I felt or thought regarding my interaction with the group. I attempted to be aware of trying to balance involvement with noninvolvement so as not to adversely affect the results of the study. I had to be conscious of my thoughts and feelings toward the actions of others to minimize the unconscious negative communication between the participants and me. For example, I did not want their choice about their level of participation in the study to influence how I interacted with them. I also did not want my biases toward global world history to inhibit open discussion about problems that may surface in global world history. My primary role was simply to describe the process they were involved in. Their skepticism provided a much deeper exploration of the topic. At the outset, participants were encouraged to share their thoughts and observations, so lengthy discussions of the issues ensued.

The field notes established the “initial coding schemes” which were described in the data collection section. I checked transcriptions of audio tapes to verify accuracy and check for omissions. Although not all audio tapes were fully transcribed, those that pertained to the topics in this research were transcribed.

As indicated earlier, I attempted to review my notes each evening. As time allowed, I began to transcribe audio tapes. When themes surfaced in the daily interactions of the Institute, I made notations on note cards. I would also note emerging themes on the transcription of the audio tapes. Examples included multiple perspectives,
geography as land masses rather than political entities, comparative history, non-centric history.

In both the review of literature and in the analysis of data collected during the Institute, I identified emerging themes which I marked in color codes as follows:

1. Green - multiple perspectives
2. Red - interdisciplinary approaches
3. Brown - allusions to geography
4. Aqua - Eurocentric approach
5. Orange - definitions of world history
6. Yellow - regional emphasis
7. Blue - historical links
8. Dark purple - themes in world history
9. Light green - world system theories
10. Pink - culture
11. Gray - citizenship
12. Lime green - periodization
13. Medium green - changing role of student and instructor
14. Light purple - gender studies

Once I identified categories and began to merge data, I discovered that some information fit equally well in more than one category. Therefore, I had to decide which category would prevail or how to include the crossover in the narration. After marking the notes with color, I then reviewed the notes, transcripts, and lessons for emergent categories and marked them with corresponding colors where appropriate.

ESTABLISHING TRUSTWORTHINESS

The study addressed trustworthiness by attending to the following categories established by Lincoln and Guba: Credibility, Transferability, Dependability and Confirmability, Authenticity, and Emancipatory.²⁰

Credibility. Credibility was established in this study through, prolonged, substantial engagement, persistent observation, negative case analysis, progressive subjectivity, member checks, and triangulation.

Lincoln and Guba describe prolonged engagement as necessary to “overcome the effects of misinformation, distortion, or presented “fronts,” to establish the rapport and build trust necessary to facilitate immersing oneself in and understanding the context’s culture.”21 Prolonged engagement did occur because of the concentrated nature of the Institute. In this case, during a 13 day period approximately 100 field contact hours occurred in both formal and informal settings. Approximately 72 hours were spent with the entire group and approximately 28 hours were spent with at least some members of the group.

Lincoln and Guba claim persistent observation was important to “enable the evaluator to identify those characteristics and elements in the situation that are most relevant to the problem or issue being pursued and [to focus] on them in detail.”22 This occurred because I participated in all activities of the Institute and continuously searched for data that would yield new insights. The directors and I tried to involve everyone to the extent they desired.

Progressive subjectivity, or the process of monitoring my own developing construction, was addressed as I reflected on my own orientation to the subject of the inquiry, and, at this time, allowed a joint construction with the directors and participants to evolve. Through the use of my journal notes and notation of emerging themes, I was

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able to determine what confirmed prior understanding, what increased my understanding, and what changed my understanding.

Negative case analysis calls for revising hypotheses upon reflection in an attempt to develop and refine them until they account for all known cases and eliminate rival hypotheses. Negative case analysis was possible because alternate points of view about the practicality and feasibility of global world history were encouraged. Inhibitors to the approach were also part of the study.

Member checks, which are intended to test hypotheses, data, preliminary categories, and interpretations with group members, occurred throughout the Institute informally, but time limitations made member checks problematic. The initial survey questions were revisited in a one-on-one interview and through a group discussion on the first day. Group presentations and discussion were often accompanied by individual conversations which I audio taped. The limited time frame of the study both in terms of the duration and the long hours of daily activities reduced the feedback that would have been possible had typed notes been available for the participants’ perusal. However, through the discussions with participants, discussions with the directors about events during activities, and written corroboration through their journals and the post Institute publication, opportunities for clarification and verification of factual information were sufficient. The enormous time gap between the actual event and the writing of the dissertation minimized the effectiveness of a member check at that phase.

Triangulation was accomplished through multiple means of data collection as outlined in detail above. Peer debriefing was used during the interview process to verify

22 Lincoln and Guba, 1986, 304.
statements made earlier and providing feedback on sections pertinent to them, where possible.

Transferability. Transferability or external validity takes into account both the population being described and the population receiving the context. In the constructivist paradigm, the receiver and the inquirer assume responsibility for comparing the contexts to determine generalizability. To establish the degree of transferability, “thick description” is necessary. Clifford Geertz used this term to “create conditions to allow the reader, through the writer, to converse with and observe those who have been studied.”

To Geertz, the researcher has no privileged position in interpreting the situation, the intent is instead to make sense of a local and grounded situation which is not speculative and abstract.

Geertz suggested thick description was used to determine transferability. Rather than placing the responsibility on the researcher to determine the transferability of the study, descriptions of the backgrounds of the participants, characteristics of their educational settings, and detailed accounts about Institute activities were provided to the individual reader to determine if the results of the study were pertinent to her or his setting. A reflexive journal promoted my awareness of my thoughts and feelings that surfaced throughout the research process and assisted me in acting appropriately instead of merely reacting to the circumstances at hand without consideration. It did not

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depersonalize the experience but made the personal aspects of interactions more understandable and manageable.

Strauss and Corbin stated that "well grounded substantive theory is not necessarily immediate, and ultimately the responsibility for interpretation and validity may rest on educators or actual practitioners in the field."\textsuperscript{26} Grounded theory researchers are attentive to process, not necessarily as stages or phases, but rather reciprocal changes in patterns of action/interaction due to internal or external factors. Stages or phases are analyzed as to what conditions prevail to cause a change. Therefore, under similar conditions, similar consequences should occur.

This study therefore attempted to identify factors which were conducive to conceptualization of global world history but recognized that manifestations unique to the individual will occur.

\textit{Dependability and Confirmability.} A dependability audit in qualitative research recognizes that methodological changes and shifts can and do occur in an emergent design. Such occurrences demonstrate a maturing and successful inquiry. However, the changes must be traceable through the documentation and the narrative "so that outside reviewers of such an evaluation can explore the process, judge the decisions that were made, and understand what salient factors in the context led the evaluator to the decisions and interpretations made."\textsuperscript{27} As the study progressed, adjustments were made to accommodate the needs and desires of the participants. Not all chose to participate fully.


in all aspects, so accommodations were made to alter expectations where needed.
Throughout the Institute, the issue of actively involving students in the process of
constructing knowledge and its connections to disciplinary methods of inquiry become a
central question that had not been anticipated.

Confirmability, similar to objectivity in quantitative research, is a demonstration
that data, interpretations, and outcomes of the inquiry are linked to contexts and people
aside from the evaluator. Data and related constructions are linked to their sources and
the logic of interpretations is both explicity and implicit in the narrative of the case study.
The confirmability audit attests to the quality and appropriateness of the “accounting
process,” while the dependability audit attests to the quality and appropriateness of the
inquiry process. This was accomplished in this study by noting the contributions of the
participants and non-participants whose work was referenced during the course of the
Institute. Sources of the data, event, and the date of the event such as “Jack, fnl int, June
19,” were cited on the audio tapes, transcripts, and in references in the narrative of the
study. The data was recorded, stored, analyzed, and presented as accurately as possible.

Authenticity. Authenticity is determined by fairness, ontological authenticity,
educative authenticity, and emancipatory means. Fairness relies on incorporation of
different constructions which are presented, clarified, checked, and considered in an
evenhanded way. The evaluator is to seek out and communicate all such constructions
and the ways they are in conflict. This can be done in two ways: “stakeholder
identification and solicitation of within-group constructions” and “the open negotiation of
recommendations and of the agendas for subsequent actions. This was demonstrated by the individual lessons, and group discussions about how global world history. The final survey and a debriefing session on the last day provided feedback on the Institute, including their level of satisfaction with their participation. The length of time devoted to topics was altered to accommodate the intent of the participants even eliminating planned aspects to accommodate their expressed desires. For example, the discussions on biographies was shorted and the presentation of resources edited by Roupp and Hitchens was eliminated because of prolonged discussions on other topics. One of the research questions was designed to identify problems in constructing and implementing a global approach. The comments of the directors and the participants are documented in the data analysis and conclusions.

Authenticity was established through ontological authenticity and educative authenticity. Ontological authenticity refers to the extent to which the individual’s own emic constructions are improved, matured, expanded and elaborated. Evidence of the participants’ views are found in the culminating survey and in their journals and, in my case, in the conclusions. I neglected to formally assess the views of the directors.

Educative authenticity represents how the study enhanced individuals’ appreciation or understanding of alternative constructions. Discussions throughout the presentation of lessons, presentations by guest speakers, journal entries, final survey, and review of literature all testified to the recognition of multiple constructions and the incorporation of new understandings. Having numerous institutions represented at both

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28 Guba and Lincoln, "Fourth Generation Evaluation" 247
the secondary and post-secondary institutions, private and public, also contributed to a broader understanding of the similarities and differences of being educators in world history. Also, global world history itself recognizes multiple configurations within a broadly defined structure.

*Emancipatory.* In Lincoln’s 1995 address to the American Educational Research Association, she added emancipatory criteria for trustworthiness as well. Examples were positionality or standpoint, critical reflexivity, reciprocity. Profiles of the participants, directors, and researcher attempted to attend to the positionality issue. Critical reflexivity was a function of my journal. Exploring multiple perspectives in history, the participants, director, and I agreed that truth is not universal but rather is embedded in a context. This is consistent with an emancipatory viewpoint in research.

Related to self reflection on the nature of interactions are ethical issues related with the act of research. Marshall and Rossman stated that some ethical considerations are generic – such as informed consent and protecting participants’ anonymity, while other are situation-specific. The research project required devoting time and effort on my part and on the part of the participants.

Reciprocity and ethics were considered in the design of the study in numerous ways. Access was negotiated and the participants were informed about their involvement and their option to choose not to participate in any aspect of the study they desired. All participants and directors signed the Ohio State University Human Subjects Review Committee Form granting approval for inclusion in the study.

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Reciprocity was evident in other forms as well. I abbreviated the interviews from my original plan because the participants had expressed themselves so freely during the daily sessions. I used opportunities before and after the daily sessions and lunch times to conduct most of the interviews. The small group also facilitated individual participation. Generally, they also determined when I would meet with them and how long they wished to devote to the interviews. Therefore, they were very cooperative when approached.

Both the directors and the participants showed appreciation for the participants' time commitment and cooperation and welcomed them to the Institute upon their arrival on Sunday evening, with a wine and cheese event that served as a mixer and an informal introduction. The following morning, everyone was introduced again briefly but in a more formal way. The afternoon roundtable consisted of longer introductions about personal interests, professional experiences to create a congenial atmosphere.

Every morning Heidi Roupp brought freshly baked breads for participants to enjoy. On another occasion, I contributed deli sandwiches and fruit during an informal evening gathering during the second week for participants and their families who could attend. On still another occasion, a reception for one of the speakers provided another opportunity for an informal event including family members.

Respect for their confidentiality was also demonstrated when, during the roundtable discussion on the first day on “Conceptualizing World History,” Marilyn Hitchens asked participants to jot down components of global world history. I asked them to share their handwritten notes, but they declined, indicating their thoughts were still a “work in progress” and were not written neatly. As valuable as I thought the
comments were, I did not wish to violate the trust we were establishing. The tape recorded discussions had to suffice.

Although I did take pictures, someone raised the issue of anonymity and I sensed it was a bit intrusive. Therefore, I minimized photographs to respect my perceived wishes of the group. Recording equipment was kept to a minimum (audiotaping) to reduce the discomfort and objections of the participants.

3.5 WRITING STYLE

The writing style for the case study was descriptive and analytical, yet interspersed the participants' voices. Robert E. Stake outlined five stylistic options for consideration in case studies: how much to make the report a story, how much to compare it with other cases, how much to formalize generalizations, how much to include description of the researcher as participant, and whether or not to anonymize.\textsuperscript{36}

In regard to making the report a story, I sought to extend beyond simply reporting the narratives of the participant's experience. While it is important to document the orientations and interests of the participants to assist in determining generalizability, the intent of the research was primarily to identify components of a global approach that others may incorporate into their own teaching and to identify difficulties to overcome in its implementation. This required a combination of description and analysis.

Comparison with other cases was not feasible, since I was unaware of other studies of this nature, that is, a documentation of a global world history approach, no attempt was made to compare this experience. Brief mentions of a similar institute in 1992 were

made, but the structure was different and the researcher was not present at that institute to make a comparison feasible. Perhaps a comparison of the publications which were produced from each institute or interviews with the co-directors and a participant in both might be appropriate for future study.

Formalizing generalizations is left to the reader. I sought to identify themes that surfaced through the Institute that were conducive to the conceptualization and implementation of global world history. The topics could provide a means to integrate global approaches into existing courses or new courses. While mention is made to populations served by the participants, no attempt is made to suggest which environments are more conducive to a global world history approach. Readers will determine its applicability to their setting based on student, instructor, and institutional factors.

The description of the researcher as participant was discussed previously in detail. The directors and I established my role jointly as that of recorder of events, questioner, and analyst of events, and the participants also helped to establish the parameters of my role.

My decision to retain the anonymity of participants was based on practical concerns. I identified the directors of the Institute because it is a matter of published record and because this serves as a documentation of their direction at their second Institute, with intentions to hold more. However, the researcher sought to protect the anonymity of the participants. Participants had the option of choosing their own pseudonyms. Most did not feel strongly about protecting their identity, but for consistency, I chose to use pseudonyms.
3.6 ASSUMPTIONS UNDERGIRDING THE STUDY

M. Q. Patton suggests noting assumptions which undergird a qualitative study.\textsuperscript{31} Therefore, in conclusion, I will reiterate the key assumptions of my research. Using constructivist ontology, reality is constructed through human interaction. Therefore, the interaction of the participants, director, and me served to formulate conceptualizations of global world history. Following Corbin and Strauss's grounded theory, this study recognizes that reality was socially constructed, and that variables were complex, interwoven, and difficult to measure. Therefore, in spite of differences in educational background and teaching experiences, everyone functioned as teachers and learners in the experience through sharing of their interpretations of complex concepts. I, as the researcher took on interpretive roles for what is observed, heard, or read – not merely to document or give voice to the views of the people, group, or organization. Both the review of literature and the conceptions of the participants demonstrate that world history as a narrative was linked to personal, cultural and paradigmatic influences. Personal preferences and background, classroom dynamics, curricular mandates all contributed to multiple realities; however, the overarching conceptualizations of global world history can accommodate multiple realities in practice. Because of the diversity of lived experience, the intent is to identify the effects of those influences in constructing realities, both in the research project as well as in understanding world historical events.

Furthermore, Valerie Janesick proposed that the qualitative researcher, as an informed reader, interprets meanings of key phrases related to the phenomenon in

question. The emphasis is on developing substantive theory which relies upon extensive interrelated data collection and theoretical analysis. Verification of the hypothesis is through rich concept development and the identification of relationships.

Since grounded theory is adapted to circumstances of the researcher and the participants, theories are “fluid.” There are multiple realities. They are shaped by the interaction of multiple actors and they emphasize temporality and process. They are embedded in a history. The interpretations and perspectives of the participants were necessary to the documentation. Knowledge is linked with time and place and theory is tentative and open to further development. Reality is a social construction and through language, individuals represent their reality. In this case, oral and written language provided the discourse for data collection and analysis.

Grounded theory also notes that the analyst affects both the data collecting and data analysis. Therefore, it is a systematic statement of plausible relationships that allow for elaboration and even qualification. Theories are always in need of updating or establishing limitations as conditions change and, therefore, are embedded inherently “in history.” Strauss and Corbin further maintained that “historical epochs, eras, and moments are to be taken into account in the creation, judgment, revision, and reformulation of theories.” Therefore, the findings are not definitive conclusions but rather contributions to ongoing attempts to understand the phenomenon of global world history.

32 Janesick, 215.
34 Strauss and Corbin, 279.
Guba and Lincoln have pointed out potential flaws in qualitative methodology. They maintained that the authenticity criteria, even if faithfully represented, is insufficient to guarantee that the intent of the inquiry effort was achieved. For example, prolonged engagement alone does not ensure integrity. Also, the confirmability audit is grounded in constructions from its own basic assumptions, and therefore, lacks explicit evidence. However, because of the rigor of this inquiry into the conceptualization and implementation of global world history at the Aspen World History Institute, this study serves as a heuristic tool into the processes of qualitative research, educational practices, and global world history.
CHAPTER 4
DATA ANALYSIS

This chapter presents my analysis of the data on the Aspen World History Institute gathered through the procedures described in Chapter 3. Section 4.1 discusses my personal profile as the researcher, and that of the directors and participants to establish the background of those defining the study of global world history. Section 4.2 discusses the 12 thematic categories that emerged in the study as relevant to the content and processes of world history. Eight of these categories deal with content and processes of global world history; four of the categories deal with pedagogy relevant to global world history. Section 4.3 discusses the categories applicable to the teaching of global world history. Section 4.4 describes the benefits and problems of conceptualizing and implementing global world history.

4.1 PERSONAL PROFILES

Since naturalistic inquiry necessitates an open declaration of the orientations of the people involved in the study, the following summarizes the professional background and personal orientation of the researcher, Institute directors and participants.

ORIENTATION OF THE RESEARCHER

My orientation to the study is influenced by educational, professional, and personal experiences. My interdisciplinary education in liberal arts, world history, and global studies along with my experience teaching diverse populations in urban areas at
the secondary and university levels, and my bicultural marriage have all contributed to my interest in and understanding of global world history.

Narratives of people and events have long been of interest to me. As a journalism major at the graduate and undergraduate levels, and later as a radio reporter in Los Angeles, my fascination with describing human conditions for a mass audience served as a foundation for my later training in world literature and world history. My journalism training prepared me to search for multiple perspectives when researching a story.

For ten years, I studied narratives as a secondary World Literature teacher, English as a Second Language teacher, Journalism teacher, and World History teacher. I came to appreciate the subjective nature of words and the power of print and broadcast media in shaping public knowledge and in reinforcing dominant views. I interacted with local, national, and world-renowned celebrities as well as common people who were newsworthy because they represented human triumph and tragedy.

In professional settings, I also became aware of people who were underrepresented or misrepresented. As a journalist, I noted the benefits and limitations of the dissemination of information through a limited number of sanctioned media resources, including worldwide wire services. In school settings, I became concerned with equal opportunities for all children to learn and the lack of curriculum that reflected diversity. My first teaching assignment was at a suburban junior high in California teaching English to Vietnamese, Laotian, and Cambodian students. My second teaching assignment included teaching English to African-Americans, Hispanic Americans (primarily of Mexican descent), and Asian Americans (of Japanese, Filipino, Laotian,
Samoan, Vietnamese, and Cambodian descent) as well as European-Americans (some from other regions of the United States) in an urban environment. My third assignment, also urban, included teaching English and World History to an equally diverse population. In all the assignments, the diverse educational settings led me to extend the opportunity to my students to express what they understood or experienced to deepen our inquiry of history and culture.

These experiences prepared me to recognize the importance of global world history as a way to narrate human history from multiple perspectives. Most of my students did not reflect a Western European orientation and I learned that world history must encompass the contributions of non-Western heritage as well. Therefore, I decided to educate myself more broadly.

My introduction to global world history occurred in 1987 when I decided to obtain a Master of Arts in Liberal Arts at San Diego State University and in the process became acquainted with Professor Ross Dunn. He later served as the chair of my master's thesis committee. At that time, he had recently published a secondary textbook using a global approach to world history called *Links Across Time and Place.* Through graduate courses in “World History for Teachers” and “African History,” he introduced me to the concepts of global world history as defined by historians such as William McNeill, L.S. Stavrianos, Philip Curtin, Janet Abu Lughod, Marilynn Waldman, and Marshall Hodgson. It expanded my content knowledge and altered my conceptualization of world history to focus on patterns and connections across continents instead of

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studying the regions in isolation. My teaching of world history then included peoples of
the world I had previously omitted even though my classroom represented diverse
ethnicities.

To enhance my understanding of world history at the secondary level, I attended a
conference of the Bradley Commission on History in the Schools in the spring of 1990 in
San Diego and spoke about interdisciplinary teaching. There I witnessed debates among
specialists in Western Civilization, area studies, and global world history and became
more aware of the deep divisions within the profession about the role of non-Western
history. Another professional influence occurred during the summer of 1991, when I was
a fellow at the month-long Woodrow Wilson Institute at Princeton University in Global
World History in 1991. Fifty secondary world history teachers from around the nation
were selected to examine global world history during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries.
Dunn was the director of the Institute.

In September 1992, I began to pursue a Ph.D. degree to strengthen my
knowledge of world history, global education, and teacher education. For the first two
years, I concentrated on fields in Latin America, Islamic, and African history to study
their contributions to world history. By June, 1994, I recognized that my primary focus
was not analysis of archival materials, but rather the teaching of world history.
Therefore, I transferred from the College of Humanities to the College of Education in
order to complete a Ph.D. in social studies and global education. I believed that such a
Ph.D. would allow me to use the content knowledge in history in combination with
pedagogical skills and theoretical knowledge acquired through my teaching experience

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and graduate course work. As part of my Ph.D. program in the College of Education, I also served as a graduate assistant and field supervisor for pre-service teachers in the Social Studies and Global Education Program which further peaked my interest in how one prepares a teacher for such an orientation.

During the summer of 1993, I organized and taught a Global Institute sponsored by the Central Ohio Regional Teacher Training Center (CORTTC). At this and the Woodrow Wilson Institutes, secondary teachers were enthused about what a global approach represented, but they were uncertain about how to proceed. Similarly, my questions about how to globalize world history led me to enroll in a graduate history program at The Ohio State University. Therefore, I decided it would be worthy of a dissertation study.

My personal history also reinforced my interest in cultural and social history. My marriage to a Mexican-American provided me with insights into prolonged cross cultural encounters. I had the opportunity to understand other perspectives and to experience being “the other” when I was a minority in gatherings with family and friends and during short trips to Mexico. Since our daughter is of Mexican-American and Canadian-American descent, I recognized how she may experience internal or external conflicts because of her multiple identities. This helped to spur my interest in the study of “others” in terms of learning more about the legacies of “minorities” in school curricula and the nature of cross cultural encounters. Global world history is a forum to explore this.
Another influence was *We, the Alien*\(^2\), by cultural anthropologist Paul Bohannan which helped me to recognize the role of culture in general and, more specifically, ethnocentrism, especially in school settings. This helped me to situate myself in cross cultural encounters in my travels and in my reading of history. I recognized that at various times, I have been ignorant of other ways to act or think, I viewed my ways as superior, and I respected, valued, and sometimes adopted other ways of acting and thinking. This has helped me to reflect on my views of other peoples in my personal interactions with people while traveling and with students in classroom settings, and in understanding cultural components of historical events.

Currently, as a social studies educator at Cleveland State University, I continue to examine how pre-service and in-service teachers think about teaching world history. Since required course work for social studies majors has been primarily in American Studies and Western Civilization, the views of students in a pre-service program have been informed by those perspectives. I wonder if state and national curricular guidelines for “non-Western” topics will lead to integration of these historical perspectives into logical and appropriate places in the overall curriculum. A clearer articulation of the practical elements of global world history, such as methodologies and resources, would enhance the training of social studies teachers, in particular world history teachers and American history teachers who incorporate world cultures into their classes. This will have practical application to history and diversity education.

\(^2\) Paul Bohannan, *We the Alien: An Introduction to Cultural Anthropology*, Prospect Heights, IL: Waveland Press, 3-5.
ORIENTATION OF THE DIRECTORS

The philosophies and experiences of the directors of the Aspen World History Institute, Heidi Roupp and Marilyn Hitchens, are an important part of the context of the Institute and my research.

Heidi Roupp. Roupp's personal history included events during her youth in Texas that spurred her interest in history. She talked of her grandfather in Texas who would employ African Americans and consequently, be visited by the Ku Klux Klan. But because of suspicions that the leader of the Klan was the minister of the Methodist Church they attended, her family would sit proudly in the front row in the church on Sunday in response to his hypocrisy. She also recalled her Swiss grandfather speaking German and some French and Italian during World War II. Furthermore, she remembered tales of travelers to Europe who brought back news of conditions and family messages from those suffering the atrocities of the Holocaust. Her interest in international education was also stimulated by travels to Asia, Africa, Latin America, and Europe. Countries she visited included Britain, Italy, Switzerland, Morocco, Egypt, Spain, Mexico, West Indies, Japan, India, and Korea.

Her initial secondary teaching experience was as a drama coach. One day, as students were designing sets for a production, she quizzed them about world events and realized how uninformed students were about such matters. Upon searching for materials to educate them, she discovered the lack of world history materials. Roupp traveled to Washington D.C. to visit the Department of Education in the hope that it could provide
some assistance. However, she discovered that it only had grant applications to
distribute, not educational materials.

Upon returning to Aspen, Roupp decided to promote a more diverse curriculum in
her district. She became the union representative for a year to bolster support for a
comprehensive world history program. She extended this further by enlisting a slate of
school board candidates who would be supportive of a global world history approach.
Her efforts were successful and in 1969, she devised the first global world history course
sequence which integrated United States History into world history and in which
chronology determined the scope and sequence over three years. That program expanded
until it was abandoned under a revised curriculum the new principal mandated in the fall
of 1996.

_Marilynn Hitchens._ Marilynn Hitchens served as the President, Vice president,
and Secretary of the World History Association from 1990 to 1992 and retired as a world
history and Russian history teacher from the Denver School System in 1995. She is
currently employed at a law firm specializing in international practice. "There I see
history in the making," she said. She received a master's degree in European History and
English and a Ph.D. in Russian, East European, and Modern European History. Her
initial teaching experience was teaching French and English in a middle school but later
taught primarily at the high school level in Russian language and history and world
history until her retirement. She taught at local colleges and Denver University in Loretta
Heights.
Her love of travel was enhanced by her two year experience as a flight attendant for Pan Am Airlines. She also worked in Washington, D.C. for the U.S. Congress. She said her choice of history education was a “fluke” because she became attracted to the subject through the methods of a history professor in college. She had originally planned to major in political science “because it seemed more analytical.” But Hitchens attributed her love of writing to her career choice because she appreciated “good narrative” which was evident in her approach to teaching history through constructing and telling stories. Her focus on writing also effected her choice of textbook, *A History of Western Society* by John P. McKay.\(^3\) She claimed that textbooks are “notorious for bad writing” and “don’t tell a good story” and that “the language usually is coded in social, political, and cultural verbage,” but McKay’s narrative appealed more to students. For example, instead of saying that nomads lived off the land, McKay would be more inclined to say “Hunter-gathers lived a perilous experience.” She believed this engaged students.

Hitchens viewed world history as a history of people, humanity through time. Therefore, the task was to find the story of human beings on the planet, not just the cultural/civilization stories but rather any human being on the globe. She advocated constructing a story starting with hallmarks and following with significant changes that happened anywhere such as the effects of agriculture, culture, political, ideology, and technology. After selecting a theme, one was to examine its long lasting impact. Therefore, the story was imbedded in a context. “The world is a story of continuous change and the quest is to understand humans as they are, as a species, and to understand

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the world timeline. This might lead humans to appreciate each other more and lead to more peace, but that is not necessarily a goal,” Hitchens added.

She described her teaching style as provocative – to make students think and feel – through lecture, discussion, movies, reading, analyzing documents, group work, and sometimes the Socratic method which challenges students to defend their positions. She encouraged students to tap into a “let’s pretend” mode. She wanted students to become acquainted with great challenges that humanity has faced, gain appreciation for the struggles, and see the great and beautiful.

She claimed she was “not a disciple of William McNeill, L.S. Stavrianos, or George Brooks, but instead found my own way.” However, she said was influenced by concepts of Eurasia from McNeill and Brooks’ view of the world through “third world eyes.” She also credited the influence of Colonel Carl Reddel, chair of the World History Department at the Air Force Academy in Fort Collins, Colorado, with his organizational point of view and his leadership both as an instructor and in his work with the Rotary Club which created links between people from various countries.

**ORIENTATION OF PARTICIPANTS**

The Institute participants represented several geographical regions of the United States, and both secondary and post-secondary teaching experience. Their diverse backgrounds provided an opportunity to examine how diverse interests, education, and professional training might affect their thinking about global world history.

*Jack Hollister.* Jack is an Asian Indian-American secondary U.S. History teacher with a B.A. in History. He had taught four years in a suburban public high school from
which he graduated, in a Western state of about 2,000 students. The school offered an International Baccalaureate (IB) program and the diverse student body “encompasses the whole array of academic abilities, from mainstreamed learning disabilities to former I.B. students. He had not taught World History yet but anticipated that he will because of new mandates for all juniors to take the course. He wanted to prepare for that potential new assignment. He also was interested in knowing more about his ethnic heritage.

His experience as a former middle school teacher contributed to his adoption of a teaching style that he described as “eclectic – a combination of traditional styles with energetic experimentation.” He attended the Institute to acquire practical suggestions for teaching and to acquire more content knowledge about world history.

Ann Miller. Ann was a college instructor with a bachelor’s degree in history and education, master’s degree in history, and a Ph.D. in African History. She specialized in interdisciplinary studies, primarily focusing on South Africa, political science, behavioral sciences, economics, and geography. She had characterized her teaching style as informal lecture and discussion. She taught world history for four of the six years she had taught at the college level. Class size ranged from 18 to 23 students. She described her students as typically between 19 and 22 years old and generally graduate at the top of their classes. However, she said most have limited knowledge of history. In her courses, she made connections between events around the globe, concentrating on the influence of the major religions, age of discovery, transfer of technology, migrations, and environmental constraints.

Pam Holland. Pam had been in education for ten years, primarily as a district librarian for grades kindergarten through high school. She has a B.A. in history, focusing mainly on West Asian history. She also has an M.A. in Library Media from an urban university in a Western state. On occasion, she has team taught a World History I course for sophomores (which she helped to design) and a current events course. The students ranged in age from 14 to 17 because of some “returning students.” Honors and regular students were integrated into the same class with “mixed results.” She had attended numerous conferences in world history, technology, and media to review and research social studies materials. In the initial survey, she wrote,

Through my collaboration as a high school librarian with classroom teachers and students, I try to entice students with the collections, i.e., acquisitions which may spur some interest, if not response. We offer the libraries as centers for study, research, and recreational reading and discourse. As with my classes, dialogue is the soul of the activity. Exchange of information and insight can yield remarkable gains with high school students.

She approached a global world history course “somewhat chronologically -- the emergence of man globally, medieval minds (globally) and Renaisances (globally). She was unsure how she would approach twentieth century efforts and struggles in modernization. Themes were crucial and were woven throughout her course. Clarity was essential and although she appreciated the “great events” paradigm, she was not sure high school students can separate content and absorb events without a loss of continuity.

She indicated that her students’ and her need for structure contributed to her style of teaching. “I need to have a clear picture of what I hope to achieve with each class,
with plenty of flexibility and preparation for diverse learning styles, behaviors and entry level capabilities desperately seeking curious minds and engaging conversation.”

She participated in the Institute to immerse herself in history with active historians and to gain insights into the dynamic changes and growth of the discipline. She also sought to identify “gaps and egregious holes” in her school library collection and to seek new ways of collaboration between classroom teachers and librarians.

**Bill Scanlon.** Bill had taught for 34 years at the middle school and high school level. He had taught Western Civilization at a private college preparatory residential school for boys in the Southeast who come from 20 states. He described his students as “reasonably bright, semi-motivated, and generally well-behaved.” His teaching included European history starting from the Renaissance for tenth and eleventh graders and an Advanced Placement course.

In 1978, he took a sabbatical to study for a year in France with his family. Convinced of the value of travel, he directed about 12 student tours during summers to England, France, Greece, Egypt, and Israel.

His teaching strategies included some lecture and note-taking, directed discussions, role playing, student presentations, and group work. At the outset, he said he was skeptical of the global approach and felt “that too much coverage (time and space) must dilute the depth of understanding I seek in my courses.” He did include a three week unit on the Middle East or sub-Saharan Africa between Thanksgiving and Christmas when a percentage of his residential students were absent. However, through
the Institute, he did “hope to acquire a wealth of insights into world history possibilities and a variety of useful avenues of access to non-Western connections.”

*Steve Gleason.* Steve had one year experience teaching the introductory world history course, military history, and an upper level Russian history course at the college level in a Western state. Just having completed his first year as a college instructor, he claimed to rely primarily on lecture, but sought a more creative and less labor-intensive methods of presentation. He included graphics and historical artifacts, as well as film in his teaching in an effort to enhance students’ interest.

He described his students, between the ages of 18 and 22, as generally “above average in ability, but because of the workload, only average performance. Most were conscientious and hard-working” although the knowledge level varied depending upon the quality of the secondary or preparatory school they attended.

*Greg Loughlin.* Greg taught for 29 years at a community college in the Southwest. Prior to the Institute, he had never taught a world history course, but planned to teach one the following fall term. Since then, he has taught a world history course as part of his teaching responsibilities. He had participated in the previous Aspen Institute in 1982 and sought to expand his knowledge of the approach.

*El Greco.* El Greco had been teaching in a college in a Western state for five years, and world history for one and one-half years. He also taught a course in Latin American history. He had earned a M.A in history and a BA in Spanish. He sought to gain a better understanding of world history, become more acquainted with teaching
tools and “network” with other professionals related to world history. Professional obligations necessitated his early departure on the fourth day of the Institute.

4.2 CONTENT AND PROCESSES OF WORLD HISTORY

Eight categories related to the content and processes of global world history emerged from the Institute. By the content of global world history, I mean subject matter that was suggested during the Institute for social, political, cultural, or environmental history. By the processes of world history, I mean the probing of broad questions of history such as the effects of migration, long distance trade, the spread of language, religion, disease, or political ideologies beyond regional boundaries. These processes assist in determining patterns in world history.

Content and process are intertwined in the following categories. Content, consisting of facts, is placed in a larger context to establish greater meaning. The eight categories which emerged in the data analysis are new conceptualizations of world history,

new role of regional studies, prominence of comparative history, inclusion of gender history, global citizenship education, geography and environmental studies, thematic and interdisciplinary approaches, and new periodizations.

These categories are not intended to be mutually exclusive, but rather they might best be seen as distinct but related. The following subsections discuss each category in depth.
NEW CONCEPTUALIZATIONS OF WORLD HISTORY

The first category deals with how Global World History differed from traditional Western Civilization or Area Studies approaches. Since teachers have traditionally been trained in these methods, it was important to discern what was similar and what was different about these approaches from Global World History.

Participants found Global World History to be more comprehensive than Western Civilization. While attention must be given to chronology to establish the relative place and time, the emphasis in the narrative concentrated more on themes comparing history over time and place. Suggested themes are illustrated in a later section. Comparisons are less dichotomous than East vs. West configurations prevalent in both Western Civilization and Area Studies approaches, and instead, comparisons search for historical links between cultures such as the flow of people, ideas, products, biological influences.

Western Civilization focused on the West and eliminated or devalued non-Western contributions or issues. “Third World” countries were studied in terms of interactions with the West. As suggested in the Review of Literature in Chapter 2, Western Civilization may be considered a form of Area Studies because of its regional concentration in terms of Global World History. Areas Studies approaches encompass non-Western portions of the world, but fail to adequately discuss the interactions and cross-cultural influences between them.

On the other hand, Global World History emphasizes comparative history that does not privilege the Western perspective but rather examines the social, cultural, political, economic, and environmental connections across time and place.
Investigating regional histories in depth and in a broader context can illuminate the process of global connections.

Hitchens pointed out that global world history posed different questions which shed light on the larger questions of human existence. During a roundtable discussion, Hitchens outlined five "Habits of the Mind" indicative of World History-Global Thinking:


2. Diversity in modes of thought rather than "cognitive imperialism" (i.e. dominance of scientific and rationale), make room for the intuitive, irrational, for the varied human experience. Multiple perspectives, interdisciplinary.

3. Random rather than linear thinking (avoiding traps like "progress," "backward") gleaned from large canvasses of time and space, or chronology which both cuts across time and is bounded by time (i.e. riverain societies) — dissociosynchronous events, i.e. when agricultural revolution occurred [at various times in different areas of the world].

4. Externally as well as internally generated change—emphasis on interaction and diffusion—of human agency as well as factors beyond human control e.g. environment

5. Peculiarities as well as commonalities of human experience.

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5 Marilyn Hitchens interview, July 9, 1996
6 Marilyn Hitchens lecture and roundtable discussion, July 8, 1996.
Additional aspects also were identified as the Institute progressed. Global world history utilized non-centric approaches (in which no society set the standard) through comparative history, interdisciplinary measures, broad examinations of geographical and environmental influences, connections between local, regional, and global phenomenon, and complex notions of citizenship. It also acknowledged the influence of the political and cultural identity of the subject, the author, and the discussant.

ROLE OF REGIONAL STUDIES

An entire roundtable session was devoted to discussing the role of regional studies to further connect the participants' prior knowledge and experiences with the expanded form of global world history. Speakers also developed global considerations by starting with a regional focus in Southeast Asia, Latin America, or Middle East. In global history, local and regional views provided depth of information in order to make comparisons in a larger context. In describing a shift of the lens, Historian Carter Findley paraphrased French historian Francois Furet's view which described historians as both hedgehogs or truffle hunters who delved into dark obscure corners to search for detailed historical knowledge and as parachutists who identified patterns and contexts from a broad perspective. The task, therefore, provided depth and breadth of historical events. The intent was not to cover all places in the world; rather, it was a thoughtful selection of topics that could provide the means to study interactions and interconnections of particular regions across time and place.

Regional studies, therefore, differed from traditional area studies approaches in that regions were not studied in isolation, but rather to identify cross cultural and
transcontinental influences. The diversity of regions would also be examined in its complexity – in its transformational, cross-cultural, and vibrant states.\footnote{An example of this is Jerry Bentley’s \textit{Old World Encounters: Cross Cultural Contacts and Exchanges in Pre-Modern Times}, New York: Oxford University Press, 1993.}

Regional studies could provide a deep knowledge base which could be widened through rich comparisons. Therefore, knowledge of Western Civilization or Area Studies could be adapted to a global approach through expanded analysis and synthesis. In fact, the directors of the Institute designed the Institute around regions they considered “black holes” of world history, that is, areas in which instructors were more likely to lack expertise. Traditional training in Western Civilization created gaps in knowledge about areas in Asia, Africa, and Latin America. Therefore, the directors invited experts in Southeast Asian History, Middle East History, and Mesoamerican History to provide content knowledge which could be incorporated into existing world history courses.

Regional emphasis was a natural starting point at the Institute also because Institute participants had specialties in African history, European history, Latin American History, or Middle Eastern history. Participants also noted that a refocusing and expansion of this knowledge to concentrate more on connections would make their courses more global. This was reinforced during many of the guest lectures and lesson presentations and expressed in the participants’ journal entries. This is discussed further in Section 3.4.

In the roundtable discussion on “Integrating Regional Histories,”\footnote{Roundtable discussion on July 22, 1996.} the group suggested the following topics for regional analysis instead of “continent hopping.”
• The world as an interrelated area
• The role of geography, climate, and ecosystems
• Nomadic invasions
• Economic contraction or expansion
• Linguistic change
• Cross-cultural influence
• Scientific and technological advances
• Racial fusions
• Nationalism and popular protest

Political boundaries were de-emphasized and movement of people, products, and ideas dominated. Regional studies were not designated by geographical considerations, but often were organized around interactions. Therefore, configurations such as the Pacific Rim, the Indian Ocean basin, were cross regional and cross continental.

Hitchens suggested that instead of asking, “What was the political make-up or cultural achievements of civilization?” to ask questions that relate to all of humanity such as “What were the cross cultural ties? When studying the Chinese [for example], we do not study just the dynasties but the elements contributing to the major story for the history of humanity.” Therefore, a micro study is set within a macro study.

Participants indicated in their journals and in discussions that new insights into Asia were revealing and put the development of Europe and Asia in a broader perspective. Guest lecturer Craig Lockard focused on Southeast Asia in world history as a part of the Afro-Eurasian Historical Complex. 9 Lockard explained that human migration from Africa to Southeast Asia appeared to be as early as 1.6 to 1.9 million years ago, earlier than previously thought. Controversial agriculture and metalworking

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9 Craig Lockard lecture, July 11, 1996.
evidence may date back to 3600 B.C.E. Food production may have begun in northern Vietnam at roughly the same time as Western Asia, about 8000 B.C.E. Some evidence suggested an earlier date of 9700 B.C.E. in mainland Southeast Asia. Bronze was produced in Thailand by 1500 B.C.E. and iron as early as 500 B.C.E., about the same time as China and much earlier than Europe. Austronesian languages spread across the Atlantic as far as Hawaii, Tahiti, and New Zealand. A hydraulic system was among the most advanced civil engineering in the ancient world. The ancient Khmers were able to produce three to four crops a year; therefore, government resources could provide hospitals, schools, and libraries. Such facts provide a basis to begin global comparisons of development across an era. Participants also indicated they had a new appreciation for the people of that region.

Illustrating cultural connections across continents, Lockard showed how Southeast Asia was part of the Islamic world, with links to Morocco, Spain, the West African Sudan, the Balkans, Turkestan, Mozambique, Indonesia, and China. Religion and trade connections linked the Afro-Eurasian maritime trading network. He also discussed the link between the Philippines and Mexico where trade in Indonesian spices, tin, sugar, rice, Chinese silk and porcelain caused the flow of silver from Mexico and the Spanish treasury to China and the Philippines. This further demonstrated Hitchens’ point that regional studies should examine change through both internal and external factors.

Another example of internal and external influences and the flow of ideas was Lockard’s discussion of Southeast Asian leadership. Filipino nationalist hero Jose Rizal, of Chinese ancestry, had lived in Spain and Germany and North Vietnam’s president Ho

* Craig Lockard lecture, July 11, 1996. 113
Chi Minh had traveled in London, Paris, and Moscow. The successful revolt against the Dutch in Indonesia provided encouragement for colonized Africans. Influences from abroad combined with indigenous forces to create Southeast Asian nations.

Speaker Jane Day, a curator at the Denver Museum of Natural History, also presented a regional study of "The Precolombian Ball Game: Ritual Sport of the Americas from 1500 B.C. to 1521 A.D." She linked the American Southwest, particularly the Hohokam region of Arizona, with northwest Mexico through the excavation of 206 ballcourts at 166 sites. This demonstrated that a regional look at this heritage transcended the political boundaries between Mexico and the United States. She explained that the game originated in the highland valley of Oaxaca but spread to other areas such as Mexico City and San Diego, California, where versions of the game ulama are still played today. In spite of the prohibition of the game by Spanish priests who feared its religious significance to indigenous peoples and dense jungle growth over the ancient ball courts, the tradition continues into the present.

Steve Gleason's lesson on Russia also illustrated transregional influences relative to Russia. He pointed out diverse ethnic influences on the former Soviet Union. Jews relocated in Russia following their expulsion from Spain in 1492, from Constantinople, and in the late 1700's to 1800's. Muslims inhabited the southern regions. Military invasions by the Muslim Janissaries (Turks) and Mamluks (Egypt) were also part of Russian history. He noted the tension between the Mongols of the steppes and the Slavs of the forest. A resurgence of ethnic awareness, tensions, even violence between groups,

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10 Lecture and discussion by Jane Day on July 21, 1996.
11 Lecture and discussion by Steve Gleason, July 17, 1996.
were evident after the breakup of the Soviet Union. Further examples of regional analyses are discussed in the section on Comparative History.

COMPARATIVE HISTORY

While regional connections provided opportunities to examine links, comparative history also posed broad questions to be examined in an era across regions or in regions over time. Illustrating a comparative and cross cultural perspectives, Speaker David Smith discussed studying world history using five strategies: Big Picture, Diffusion, Syncretism, Comparison and Common Phenomenon. The Big Picture focused on a broad overview, stressing chronology of major events and their significance. Diffusion described the spread of people and cultural items from one region to others. Syncretism, the result of cross cultural contacts, existed when cultures mixed to produce a new civilization. By juxtaposing societies, students could determine similarities and differences. Common phenomena identified natural or historical events that affected more than one civilization. Societies experienced common events, but responses to the events might have varied. For example, the Bronze Age in China could be compared to the Bronze Age in the eastern Mediterranean. He suggested studying syncretism in two examples of global civilizations – Islam and Western Europe. The regional influence of India and China were further examples of syncretism. This was also evident in Craig Lockard’s presentation on Southeast Asia.

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12 David Smith lecture and discussion, July 12, 1999.
Comparative history also was demonstrated during participant El Greco's lesson presentation. To create the proper atmosphere, he played a tape of 4-40, a salsa group from the Dominican Republic, ostensibly to stimulate his students to "lambada" into the lecture hall, but also to familiarize them with Latin culture. To illustrate comparative history, he interwove the events and themes of Latin American history with European history in the context of the "Age of Democratic Revolutions." He compared revolutions to a spreading virus.

El Greco also outlined how the Latin American Revolutions of 1810-24 were set in the context of previous revolutionary movements, namely, The Glorious Revolution of 1688 in Europe, the American Revolution of 1776, and the French Revolution of 1789. In turn, the Latin American revolutions influenced the Greek independence movement against the Ottoman Empire in the 1820's and the continued struggle against the French monarchy. The American Revolution was affected by Enlightenment thinkers John Locke and Thomas Jefferson and the value of self rule would have larger implications in democratic movements. He contrasted conditions in Latin America where indigenous people were forced into slave labor to conditions in North America where they were not. Slaves of African origin were not granted rights in either area; Americans even feared race wars. The violence of the Reign of Terror sent fear throughout North and South America.

El Greco also noted that Latin Americans also were aware that the French Revolution led to rule by a dictator, Napolean Bonaparte. Lack of control over taxes contributed to the discord in both the American and French Revolutions. However, in
Latin America, clashes between local rulers and the church and the Spanish crown resulted in Creole rule, displacing the Peninsulares, Spanish born rulers in Latin America. In contrast to violence in Latin American revolts, Brazilian independence in 1822 was obtained peacefully with the support of the Portuguese and British governments. Therefore, this study used regional approach along the Atlantic basin to compare the revolutions of that era.

Participant Ann Miller examined slavery as a regional and comparative study of the plantation complex involving Africa, the Americas, and Europe. She compared African slavery in various contexts in Egypt, other Arab societies, and the Sudan for similarities and differences. She also compared the Oriental trade with the rise of Islam in the seventh century, the Occidental trade which began with the Portuguese around 1650 until about 1850 and the African slave trade which had its peak after 1850. She encouraged students to consider the external and internal factors which contributed to the rise of slavery in Haiti, British West Indies, Brazil, Cuba, and North America. She further pointed out the devastating effects on African populations as well as the profits to Africans from the Slave trade. While an estimated 10 million Africans left Africa, primarily men at a ratio of 2 to 1, African elite gained power and status. New wealth allowed them to purchase guns, cloth, and liquor and increase all trading activities.

Guest speaker Bea Spade highlighted interregional and cross cultural connections of monks and nuns as agents of change in China, India, and Europe in the “Medieval” period. As an example of diffusion, she described the spread of culture, particularly languages such as Latin, Greek, and Arabic through religious conversions. The
expansion of Buddhism from India to Central and East Asia also affected the
development of language and architecture.

Spade outlined similarities of the major religions of the era. Buddhists,
Christians, and Muslims assisted the sick and the poor in their hospitals both as acts of
compassion as well as to promote conversions to the faith. Pilgrimages related to these
religions provided opportunities for cultural and economic exchanges during the travels,
when studying with new masters and when encountering new peoples at their
destinations. Festivals honoring popular local saints and deities helped to perpetuate the
religions. Dietary customs emerged from the festivals and monasteries used as inns.
Nuns and monks also served as pawnbrokers, loan sharks, and lottery organizers in their
quest to establish influence in new regions. Spade’s comparison demonstrated local
influences and effects as well as larger patterns in the expansion of major religions of that
due.

Exploring another aspect of comparative history, Greg Loughlin examined
multiple perspectives through the use of propaganda posters from World War I.15 In his
presentation, Loughlin analyzed the global nature of World War I through posters which
claimed that all people, including Indians, Africans, and Egyptians should assist soldiers
in the British empire. Furthermore, he demonstrated how Americans, French, and
Germans all used propaganda in the war effort. Using a Venn Diagram, Institute
participants analyzed how the posters portrayed the Allies as virtuous to promote
patriotism and dehumanized the enemy. His interdisciplinary approach incorporated art,

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14 Lecture and discussion by Bea Spade, July 16, 1996.
15 Lecture and discussion by Greg Loughlin, July 15, 1996.
psychology, history, and sociology. Participants also analyzed gender roles depicted in the artwork.

INCLUSION OF GENDER STUDIES

In an attempt to include the marginalized voices of history, women in history played a prominent role in three participants’ lessons and was included in two more. The roles of women and women’s contributions were featured in lessons on Medieval Europe in the nineteenth century, in Arkansas and Argentina during the Progressive Era, and in Dahomey and Senegal during the Slave Trade.

Participant Bill Scanlon explored the status of women through the story of *The Return of Martin Guerre* by Natalie Davis (and the related film) by using historical fiction to analyze women’s roles in sixteenth century rural society in the foothills of the Pyrenees. Prior to showing excerpts from the film, participants read about perceptions of women from various social classes during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries through literary excerpts.

Among the excerpts were writings by Dominican monks, Kramer and Sprenger, who asserted in a handbook in 1484, *The Hammer of Witches*, that women were more inclined to be witches because they were considered the fragile feminine sex and were more impressionable. Furthermore, having been formed from a bent rib left a woman imperfect and more likely to deceive. In 1524, Erasmus claimed that since women were charged with managing the household and raising the children, so they were discouraged from reading Latin books since it did not protect their chastity. However, two years later in 1526, in *Christiani matrimonii institutio*, he encouraged women to study “as a means
of impressing the best precept upon a girl’s mind and of leading her to virtue.” Marie Dentiere, a devout Calvinist, wrote in The War and Deliverance of the City of Geneva in 1539 that women must be allowed to write about, speak about, and declare what God had revealed to them through Holy Scriptures. In 1522, Martin Luther preached that sorcerers and witches worked in concert with the Devil to steal milk, raise storms, ride on goats or broomsticks, lame or maim people, torture babies in their cradles…” In Table Talk in 1566, Luther claimed that men have broad shoulders and narrow hips and, therefore, have intelligence; on the other hand, women have broad hips for them to keep house and bear children. Emound Auger, a French Jesuit in 1566, discouraged women and artisans from reading the Bible because they would want to give their erroneous opinion. Around 1590, Theodore Agrippa d’Aubigne, a writer and historian advised his daughters that only women obliged by high rank should pursue education since they would accept the responsibilities, knowledge, competence, administration, and authority of men. Women, of middle rank, would only have contempt for housekeeping and a less clever husband.

While watching a wedding scene from the film, The Return of Martin Guerre, Ann Miller remarked, “This is like lobola, African bride wealth.” The film portrayed marriage as a business arrangement. On one level, women were portrayed as carnal beings, inferior, witches, and manipulators. On the other hand, the female protagonist was admired a book and still maintained the home. After a group discussion, Scanlon decided that he would include more examples of the roles and views of women in both urban and rural societies from diverse cultures to “add richness and depth to the analysis.”

decided that he would include more examples of the roles and views of women in both urban and rural societies from diverse cultures to “add richness and depth to the analysis.” Participants further suggested that the focus could also be expanded to include portrayals of women as witches in African and Latin American contexts during that period as well.

In discussions on gender, participants debated how women should be integrated into a course. Because of the slighting of women in history, participants agreed more emphasis on women’s contributions was needed. However, some members voiced concern that perhaps both female and male gender roles needed to be examined simultaneously so that their effect on one another was more evident. Overemphasis of women in the narrative potentially would lead to an equally distorted account. The interaction of women and men had shaped the circumstances. Furthermore, Loughlin emphasized that power relations was a human story, not only a gender story – not just a story of heroes or “sheroes.” Participants also noted the importance of portraying the myriad of women’s views such as differences based on socioeconomic status.

Related to gender issues was social history. Scanlon cautioned that secondary students may not have always been able to discern what the role of the family meant during the sixteenth century Europe and might misapply modern connotations out of context. Concepts of family depicted in the film could be compared to modern manifestations of family.

In a comparative study, participant Dorothy Parker discussed women’s clubs and women’s rights as part of the liberal democratic movements in Arkansas and in Argentina during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. She noted that the effect of
World War I on women’s acquisition of rights during that era included not just the United States, Great Britain, France, and Germany, but also Austria, Russia, India, and Latin America. She explored the role of class primarily through the church societies, charitable groups, and voluntary organizations and the changing role of women in society during the Progressive Era.

Parker described that in North America, action was spurred by perceptions of threats to the home and intensified efforts for women to achieve more rights. Clubs provided a socially acceptable outlet for action. By 1917, the Arkansas Federation had listed 190 club memberships with nearly 9,000 members. Their causes centered on safeguarding the home, improving the community, and protecting the interests of children and women which included such domestic issues as improved nutrition, pure food, consumer education, child health, public health, intemperance and prostitution, public education and female and child labor.

In contrast to grassroots organization in Arkansas, Parker said that the Argentinian government involvement was vital. The major impetus for the women’s movement was the reform of the Argentine Civil Code on public charity, public education, women’s organizations, and socialism. The code denied most women a separate legal identity from men, prohibited access to professions without male permission and denied women property rights at marriage. Finally, in 1926, the Civil Code was revised to give women the right to their earnings, the right to inherit, and the right to form business partnerships with married women. In 1820, the Society of Beneficence was established to administer public elementary education for girls and to set up an orphanage for girls. The
organization also provided opportunities for unemployed, educated women to engage in community work.

Further evidence of cross-cultural exchange was when ideas about women and education were exchanged formally in the late 1860's and early 1870's. President of Argentina, Domingo F. Sarmiento hired teachers and borrowed lesson plans and methods from North America so that women could become better educated in order to raise children to be productive citizens and serve the interests of the state. He also founded public, coeducational teacher training schools which stressed literacy and analytical skills.

Argentine women focused on domesticity, while Arkansas women fought for rights as well. In both cases, women focused their reform efforts on lawmakers and the public and political arena. Both succeeded in altering institutions and opened opportunities for women in public life.

In a third example, the socioeconomic status of women was emphasized in Ann Miller's study of elite women from Dahomey and Senegal during the African slave trade. She noted how women were major contributors and owners of slaves, how women who were slaves in Africa had advantages in court life, and that women were important to African agriculture as well as family life. Therefore, African men were reluctant to sell young females into the Atlantic trade system because of their productive and reproductive value.

Women's contributions were mentioned in the presentations on Southeast Asia and Russia as well. In discussing Southeast Asia, Lockard indicated that women played an important role in society and politics, in business and the arts, even dominating the
palace staff, acting as gladiators and warriors. This was due, in part to the matrilineal tradition. He also mentioned that in many societies, women had long held a higher status in society and played a more active public role, including small scale commerce than in China, India, the Middle East and Europe.

Women in history were also mentioned in Gleason’s lesson in his reference to The Dawn, a story of Cossack women. He noted that women played an important role in the Russian Revolution but did not expand on the topic at that time.

GLOBAL CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION

Teaching about citizenship was another element that emerged in the Institute. Both speaker Colonel Carl Reddel and Marilynn Hitchens discussed the relationship of world history to citizenship education. Since political and cultural affiliations provided contexts for viewing the world, these influences were also to be scrutinized. To understand other people’s perspectives, events must be understood in a myriad of complexities and contexts. Even democratic citizenship took on multiple forms, not just democracy as practiced in the United States.

Exploring alternate viewpoints on citizenship education did not imply a rejection of Western values, but rather an attempt to recognize similar and different values in other places and times. Related to this discussion, I mentioned that Shirley Engle and Anna Ochoa advocated a dual complementary approach involving socialization and countersocialization. They claim that socialization teaches young citizens about the traditions of their society where socialization teaches them independent thinking and

responsible social criticism. Therefore, global citizenship stressed the need to learn
about, and even learn from, other peoples of the world, while valuing American
citizenship for its freedom of thought and expression by its diverse population.

Steve Gleason compared Russian and American immigrant experiences. He said
that in the Russian empire, minority peoples retained a sense of identity unlike in the
United States where immigrants had been encouraged to become part of a “melting pot.”
Native peoples in Russia outnumbered Native American populations and, therefore,
maintained their ethnic identity in society while Native Americans were moved to
reservations. In contrast to the Americas, no influx of foreign immigrants overwhelmed
the native cultures such a massive scale in Russia in the 1800’s.

Gleason also compared Stalin’s genocide to other such occurrences. Comparisons
of Stalin’s annihilation of 40 to 50 million people were drawn to the Sand Creek
massacre and others involving Native Americans and the Jews in Europe. During the
“Manifest Destiny,” Native Americans were sent to reservations instead of concentration
camps like in Nazi Germany or Stalinist Russia. These examples illustrated how stories
of abuses of political power and the value of humans may be examined in a global
context for regional differences and larger human narratives.

Hitchens characterized good citizenship as a process of thought. She asked, “Is
the purpose of history to promote better citizenship or human appreciation of life? ... It
is a question of ethics – how one lives in harmony with others and links the present with
the past.”
One participant affiliated with a military institution impressed upon his students that they could be sent to other parts of the world; therefore, they were to learn world history for enjoyment and survival, but also not to endanger missions when overseas. “We must avoid embarrassments such as the Okinawa Incident [where U.S. military personnel were charged with raping Japanese women] which should include understanding [of] or sensitivity to other people.”

Agreeing with the participant’s view, speaker Colonel Carl Reddel said that world citizenship could be compatible with national citizenship. To him, learning about diverse opinions and practices only strengthened our understanding of ourselves and the world. America prided itself on its diversity and therefore, to him, American citizenship and world citizenship were, in some ways, synonymous. The American character was amorphous because of the diverse make-up of its people including the basis of its political formation as a nation of immigrants. The U.S. political system also reflected world citizenship. It has assumed a dominant role in world politics which, at least in principle, had taken into account not only the security and prosperity of America, but of humanity as a whole. Governmental organizations and non-governmental organizations were increasingly involved in this. Colonel Reddel’s work with Rotary Clubs internationally supported this aim.

In a roundtable discussion on “Habits of the Mind,” Hitchens posed the question, “Do we agree with the premise that the thought process is more important than the understandings (content); [Is] history is a vehicle to make better civic judgments and thus
is utilitarian?"18 Participants considered if the primary motivation of citizenship was driven by the development of individual human potential and how much was driven by the welfare of the state? This question also surfaced in Dorothy Parker’s lesson on women’s civic activities in Arkansas and Argentina which addressed both personal development and freedom and better serving the interests of the state.

GEOGRAPHY AND ENVIRONMENTAL STUDIES

Marshall Hodgson’s description of the AfroEurasian landmass surfaced in many of the participants’ lessons. Numerous speakers and participants alluded to a reconceptualization of physical environment. Political boundaries were de-emphasized and configurations of social identities or physical boundaries dominated. Social and cultural identities which crossed political boundaries told stories of religious movements, trade and commerce, technological advancements, language development, spread of diseases, and other phenomenon. As indicated in regional studies, this became the means of analysis, not the boundary lines of particular countries or continents.

Size and location also were a means for comparison. For example, participant Jack Hollister’s lesson pointed out that Africa is three times the size of the United States, although this is not evident in the Robinson and the Mercator maps which amplified the regions north of the equator. However, the Peterson Project accurately depicted land masses; therefore, Africa was considerably larger and Greenland was dramatically smaller than on the Robinson and Mercator maps. By considering the depiction of the earth in each, students considered alternative perspectives. Another influence of

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18 Lecture and discussion by Marilynn Hitchens on July 14, 1996.
characteristics, Europe is considered a continent, while India is described as a “subcontinent.” Both are attached to the Eurasian land mass on one border and surrounded by oceans on the remaining three sides. Guest speaker Craig Lockard also mentioned this inconsistency in regard to Southeast Asia, which he also claimed was considered a subcontinent which stretched from south of China and east of India, from Burma eastward to Vietnam and the Philippines and southward through the Indonesian archipelago. He questioned that if Europe qualified as a continent with its dubious configuration, then why not Southeast Asia or China-Korea?

Related to these perceptions was scrutiny over commonly used geographic terms such as “Middle East” and “Far East.” From the Western perspective, the terms represented a region between “the West” and the “Far East.” But from a decentralized global perspective, these terms and other depiction of the physical world were problematic. Egypt is a “Middle Eastern” country, yet it is located on the content of Africa unlike other “Middle Eastern” countries which are in Asia. If one considered its ties to the Islamic world, then other parts of North Africa including as far as Morocco and, from 900 to 1400, even Spain, would be included. This suggested that in different time periods, various configurations change to reflect the affiliations of religion, language, economic ties, for example, during various periods in history.

Labeling Egyptians as Africans and Iranians as West Asians identified the people relative to their respective continents. The British had coined the term “Middle East”
while describing areas in their vast empire relative to their location. Speaker Jim Jankowski proposed SWANA to designate Southwest Asia and North Africa.\footnote{Lecture and discussion by James Jankowski, July 19, 1996.}

Jankowski also suggested juxtaposing micro and macro studies in the Middle East. He said that textbooks tended to cover the area known as the Middle East extensively in the ancient period, but less thoroughly in the twentieth century. He maintained that the area needed a regional approach because of the oil industry which created alliances between Middle Eastern countries, but did not reflect their diversity. He also spoke of the difficulties when secular states conflict with the beliefs and practices of their Muslim populations. He also noted that in the 1960's most countries were "Westernizing," but the resurgence of Islamic movements are influencing society in Turkey, Jordan, Saudi Arabia, Egypt, Iran and Israel as well. Also, political borders in the region did not coincide with national identities which contributed to internal/external tensions. Disputes involving Kurds in Turkey and Iraq, Arab-Jewish conflicts over the West Bank, Christians and Muslims in Lebanon were but a few examples.

Participant Steve Gleason said that to understand the former Soviet Union in a geographical sense, one might view Siberia as a frontier similar to that of the American frontier a century ago. Gleason cited that two examples of rugged individualism were required to survive in both environments and the use of rivers was similar. However, he also found some differences. Expansion began earlier in Russia; in 1670, 330,000 Russians were in Siberia and 300,000 people were in all of the 13 colonies. By 1637, the Russians had crossed Siberia and reached Okhotsk on the Pacific while English settlers
had not yet crossed the Allegheny Mountains. Also, the role of the state was different. In Russia, individualism was viewed as a threat to the state and resulted in government reaction than reform in order to maintain control of vast expanses. The Russian state triumphed over the spirit of the frontier. In the Americas, religious conversion was a driving factor; in Russia, it was not.

To reinforce location, Gleason cited significant geographical features which facilitated or hindered expansion. In establishing perspectives, Gleason used comparisons to the United States and Europe to assist students in visualizing relative size, distance, and location. He noted that the former Soviet Union covered one-sixth of the land surface of the globe and covered 11 time zones. The journey from Moscow to Vladivostok is similar to that from London to San Francisco. He also noted that St. Petersburg is closer to New York than Vladivostok, which is closer to Seattle. The latitude of Moscow is parallel to Anchorage, Alaska. This facilitated a global view of the earth beyond continental boundaries.

The diversity of Siberia shows a gulag in a vast frozen wasteland, but upon closer scrutiny cities like Omsk. The Soviet Union ranged from the Ural Mountains to the Pacific covering five million square miles. In contrast, the United States measured three million square miles less in area. The physical features were comparable to Canada. Lake Baikal, now polluted, contained one fifth of the world’s fresh water. Four rivers were longer than the Mississippi.

Environmental history was mentioned in three presentations. Soviet history was also important because of the “extent to which they have destroyed their environment.”
said Gleason. Speaker Colonel Reddel’s presentation on “Suicide and ‘Ecocide’ A Personal Tale of Disbelief and Revelation,” in the Soviet Union emphasized the necessity to explore environmental concerns and the social implications objectively. While acknowledging that the ecological disaster in Russia, he advised being instructive but not alarmist. Reason and information were to guide actions to preserve the world’s environment -- which transcended political boundaries. He suggested reading Ecocide in the U.S.S.R. by Murray Feshbach and Alfred Friendly, Jr. and “Environmental Change in the Southern Aral Region in Connection with the Drop in the Aral Sea Level,” by A. A. Rafikov as appropriate sources. El Greco also mentioned the serious pollution problems that threaten lakes in Latin America and how a study could center on the worldwide effects of pollution.

THEMATIC AND INTERDISCIPLINARY APPROACHES

Participants stressed chronology; however, thematic approaches provided a means for comparisons during designated eras and across time and place. Four sessions touched on thematic and interdisciplinary approaches. Specific application of themes was evident in numerous presentations by guest speakers and participants. As described previously, anthropologist Jane Day detailed how global connections through sports could link Latin and North American and modern America with the ancient ballcourts of Mesoamerica. David Smith discussed “Technology, a Theme in World History” which

\[20\] Colonel Carl Reddel, Lecture and discussion, July 18, 1996.
spanned the development and impact of technology in the ancient world to the modern era. This is discussed in detail late in the section on “Student Centered Education.”

After a lengthy discussion about the definition of themes relevant to global world history, the group came to a consensus that themes were broad-ranging, cross cultural issues which could be expressed in few words. They proposed the following themes (not intended to be exclusive) which could be highlighted in a course:

- human rights
- religion/philosophy
- environment
- conflict
- communication
- family and gender
- aesthetics
- human exchange (over time and space)
- science and technology (an extensive debated ensued over whether these should be separate)
- governance
- economic productive system and exchange
- individual and classes
- modernization

Scanlon used another thematic approach in his Western Civilization course, featuring six themes or “blocks” – political, religious, intellectual, military, economic, and social (PRIMES). He posed the question of how much content one needs to make sense of themes but no consensus was reached on that matter. The instructor played a major role in establishing what constituted adequate evidence to support a thesis. Participants did conclude, however, that ongoing attention to new facts that related to the area of inquiry and reevaluation of findings was warranted.
Scanlon also posed the question of how one constructed a comprehensive, yet coherent narrative of world history. For example, did one start with themes and find supporting evidence or did one discern thematic implications from a textbook passage or supplementary readings? The group agreed that both strategies had merit and provided a frame for examination of information. As indicated in Hitchen’s roundtable discussion, topics were based on overarching questions about the human experience across time and place. The group agreed that a question could be the focus of a unit or could be extended into other appropriate places throughout the course.

NEW PERIODIZATIONS

Just as participants questioned the Western bias of terms such as Middle East, they also scrutinized designations of time. Some historical sources have replaced the terms “Before Christ” and “Ano Domini” with “Before the Common Era” and “Common Era” to de-emphasize the Christian roots of the terms BC and AD. However, speaker Bea Spade suggested that changing the terms only masked the origin of the Western system of dating. Studying alternative forms of calendars such as the Jewish lunar calendar, the Muslim calendar or the Mayan calendar could demonstrate variations in the construction of time and their cultural implications.

Periodization was a topic of much debate. Participants had primarily depended upon textbooks to outline eras, but as knowledge is constructed more globally, different time periods emerged. However, if the period reflected major events in Europe, were the dates also reflective of events in Asia or vice versa? Also, time periods became less distinct when the focus changed from political events to social and cultural movements in
history. Political events clearly marked dates, while social movements were less discrete. Transregional analysis and thematic comparisons created broader patterns of an era.

Various periodizations were proposed. Ross Dunn outlined one model in the National Standards for World History, published by the National Center for History in the Schools in 1995. (See Appendix D.) To Craig Lockard, as a Southeast Asian specialist, the themes did not work well because Dunn’s periodization “came out of the history of the Islamic world and ties in Africa. [Dunn] is heavily influenced by Marshall Hodgson – using the Islamic world as a pivot.” Lockard preferred periodizations as defined by William McNeill in *The Rise of the West*. (Appendix E)

In Barron’s *SAT II World History*, Marilynn Hitchens and Heidi Roupp choice of periodization was influenced by the national history standards and a compilation of periodization from a variety of world history textbooks. (See Appendix F.) Periodization in texts seemed to be shaped primarily by regional specialties of the authors. Therefore, the group concluded that periodization should be scrutinized for its appropriateness when applied to other regions of the world. Students could investigate alternate labels and their implications.

Hitchens suggested that labels of periodization be political, economic, or social. But she questioned just how does one designate an era – for example, should it be Neolithic era or the era of hunter – gatherers? Do students become confused when the periodization of the instructor did not coincide with the textbook? The group concluded that periodizations are based on dominant themes that reflect an approximate time frame but that can be represented in multiple ways with justification and choice of style.
4.3 PEDAGOGY OF GLOBAL WORLD HISTORY

As participants discussed content issues, pedagogical questions often arose. All participants presented lessons on global world history and speakers were asked by the directors to include some attention to teaching about their topic. While reviewing my field notes and tapes, I noticed that categories emerged which dealt more generally with pedagogical questions: Student Centered Education, Technology and Teaching World History, and Cross Cultural Experiences.

STUDENT CENTERED EDUCATION

Global world history addresses not just what information is known, but also how information is known and taught. Multiple perspectives may reflect ethnicity, gender, and socioeconomic status of the author, instructor, and student. As Lee Shulman indicated in his Pedagogical Content Knowledge, the instructor and students play a role in constructing knowledge. While pondering historical questions, instructors also consider appropriate methods to promote active student learning. Section 4.1 indicated that students and instructors involved in the educational experience in the classroom were compelled to reflect on their perspectives and how their perspectives shaped the “facts.” Repeatedly, the discussion sessions stressed that history was to be taught from an analytical perspective. Co-director Marilyn Hitchens and Speaker Patricia O’Neill suggested student practice in synthesizing would assist them in learning how to encompass a breadth of historical information.

Marilyn Hitchens and Heidi Roupp and two of the speakers, Patricia O’Neill and David Smith proposed a shift from an emphasis on teacher-centered to student-centered
learning. The teacher still provided a focus and destination point and accountability, but the students chose alternate paths to demonstrate alternative perspectives and strategies to understand the lesson. Students developed critical thinking skills instead of memorizing isolated facts. Lectures were one form of communication, but other methods where students were more actively involved were also needed to demonstrate if and how students understood the lesson.

In Hitchen’s discussions about “Habits of the Mind,” she stressed cognitive development followed by detailed content knowledge. She advocated that student participation and voice was integral to learning and that students should assume multiple roles to understand the dimensions of an issue or event. In that discussion, Bill Scanlon said that students needed to be responsible for more than memorization of facts. He said that content is merely a vehicle; it is not the end result but facts were used to sustain a viable view. However, he felt too much concentration on process contributed to “warm, fuzzy feelings about school,” but students did not learn.

Students also must recognize the diversity in modes of thought and attempt to understand people in their own context. Like Hitchens, Speaker Patricia O’Neill noted that the dominance of rational and scientific thought is taken for granted, “What we see as myth is reality to others. We must make room for intuition and nonrational ideas.” Since human behavior is sometimes irrational, one must at times, suspend his or her own thoughts and enter their belief system, which may not always based on reason. She advocated use of multiple perspectives and interdisciplinary strategies and the exploration of the external and internal influences that caused change. As described in a previous
section on multiple perspectives, students must recognize their limits to understanding other cultures, their assumptions about superiority, and openness to exploring other perspectives.

Related to perspective consciousness, Loughlin analyzed information through MAPS – the message, audience, purpose, and sender. Students then examined content for its ethos (morality), logos (logic), and pathos (emotion). He emphasized the processes of perception to apply to other information and reflect on how one’s orientation affected one’s views and reactions.

Even in a student-centered classroom, teachers must still determine if students learned content. Speaker Patricia O’Neill outlined three techniques to engage students in historical analysis by applying static analysis, change analysis, and comparative analysis to their reading assignments. Through static analysis, students categorized events into political, economic, social, and cultural themes. In the change analysis, students considered which political, social, economic, or cultural changes were dominant and which were of secondary importance. In the comparative analysis stage, students examined two societies for their similarities and differences. As mentioned in the section on Regional History, a narrow regional focus could be set in a wider focus simultaneously.

Speaker David Smith chose an alternate method to engage participants in a “group-think-and-draw process” which also could prepare students for a test or an essay assignment. Working in teams, participants represented visually on a large piece of white paper the impact of technology in global terms.
After a lecture, they illustrated the techniques of Big Picture, Diffusion, Syncretism, Comparison, and Common phenomena related to his lecture on technological developments. Smith also proposed two approaches to world history related to time -- diachronic history (continuity and change through time) and synchronic history (events across space occurring at the same time). Students, therefore, searched for patterns to illustrate these concepts.

All three groups illustrated diachronic history -- one using the concept of numeracy, a second the impact of gunpowder, and third, the technology of flight. They demonstrated the uses of numbers as a means of counting during early pastoral periods, census taking, relative to architecture, in time keeping and calendars, and devices such as the abacus, radar, calculators, and laptop computers. A second group illustrated diffusion through the spread of gunpowder and the flow of power and how it affected various areas differently. They showed the flow of gunpowder from China to Europe through the Mongols and later to the Americas, Africa, and Southeast Asia and in the Russian Expansion from Europe. It also demonstrated the effects on the military, social changes, interchange (trade and communications), culture, and government.

A third group used the Big Picture technique to chart significant developments in the technology of flight. Early inspiration from prehistoric and mythical birds eventually led to Chinese kites, experimental designs by Leonardo da Vinci, flights by the Wright Brothers, the zeppelin, the Russian Sputnik, and modern spacecrafts. They listed their significance as changing the perceptions of the self and the environment, promoting travel, spread of man and ideas, expanded the focus of the world, expanded

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communication, migrations of people, economic integration, exploration of space, and new discoveries in science and research. Due to the restraints of the Institute setting, the brainstorming was done spontaneously as a collaborative effort without the aid of resources.

Scanlon summarized the experience as follows: "We engaged in some wonderful mutual teaching. I plan to use this in-class technique every two/three weeks. It is almost a kind of kinesthetic learning which often works well with certain students who don't absorb well through the more visual/oral processes. His participatory approach simply reinforced much of what I already try to do in the classroom."

This activity became the focus of a discussion I led later on assessments in world history. In a student centered activity, assignment criteria must be clearly established to guide the student's efforts and the instructor's evaluation. The group established criteria for David Smith's graphic representation activity and discovered how difficult, yet necessary, this element was. Together, students could develop skills to evaluate information and determine to what extent they answered the question posed. Once again, the instructor established the parameters of the study with much flexibility in how knowledge is demonstrated.

TECHNOLOGY AND TEACHING WORLD HISTORY

Since global world history encouraged the use of supplemental resources to enhance instruction by textbooks and lectures, participants considered the use of internet resources. On the second day of the Institute, some participants explored internet sources for the first time, while others used "search engines" to locate information with great
facility. One participant routinely incorporated technology into his teaching. The explosion of technology in American education provoked much discussion about its impact on the classroom. For a classroom which gained access to worldwide resources through the computer, the possibilities were unfathomable. However, the interest was also a source of grave concern. Because of instantaneous mass dissemination through websites, the reliability of the information might be questionable. Participants agreed that students must be taught to question the information and verify sources when possible.

The group also noted that vast amounts of available information complicated the task of focusing on a topic. The importance of a well structured assignment which defined parameters without being too restrictive would be the instructor’s challenge. Students could easily become intrigued with a myriad of resources and fail to integrate material into a cohesive and purposeful assignment.

Holland noted the important role of librarians to “identify gaps and egregious holes in the collection, identify new methods of collaboration for the classroom teacher and the librarian [and media technician] and the integration of library resources and [the teaching of] world history.” These could include internet sites and CD roms.

Holland suggested internet resources with links to world history. H-World, which claimed to link 700 subscribers from every continent, provided daily postings on teaching, research, and conceptualization in world history. Postings were primarily in English but did include other languages. Postings were edited by history professors Patrick Manning from Northeastern University, Kenneth Pomeranz from the University of California at Irvine, and Daniel Segal from Pitzer College. H-Net at Michigan State
University provided technical support for the H-World web page and gopher. She also provided a list of “bookmarks” related to the teaching of world history. (Appendix C)

While computers expanded resources, Scanlon cautioned that “glitz” should not substitute for content. While an instructor’s presentation may capture the students’ attention through attractive visuals, attentiveness to an organized, thought provoking, meaningful, engaging lesson was of ultimate importance. One participant noted that a visually stimulating presentation actually distracted from the content because of having to process all the images. Other drawbacks included graphic heavy program that took a significant amount of time to load, restricted or busy internet sites, and inadequate detail found on printed maps.

Greg Loughlin, who routinely used computer presentations, acknowledged the labor intensive requirements of the approach – first to learn how to utilize the hardware and software, and second, in the preparation of the visual and auditory lessons. He did, however, believe that the investment of his time did pay off in terms of student attentiveness. Loughlin summarized the impact of computer technology as “having great but unrealized potential.”

Another disadvantage became evident – equipment malfunction. Even intense preparation did not guarantee a flawless technical performance. While the participants seemed intrigued by the possibilities of expanding their resources – even including “real time” (instant) communication with people in other parts of the globe, many of the participants still felt ill prepared to use computers for their own research or classroom
use. While acknowledging that technology was a reality of classrooms of the future, the group also advocated using traditional resources such as books, magazines, and artifacts.

Computer projects did promote active student learning. In a conversation with me, Heidi Roupp described her students’ presentations on hunting and gathering peoples using HyperCard stacks. Roupp said that the assignment allowed students the freedom to follow their own interests. She remarked that when students realized they had to present to someone else on a screen, it became a different exercise. She said, “I don’t know how to explain that but in their minds, it’s a performance and they realize that all their classmates are going to see [the presentations] and use them, it became an enormous event and they worked hours and hours on each little facet of it.”

She noticed another benefit of the collaboration. “There’s something else that’s terribly interesting about [the HyperCard assignment] and that’s how they work in pairs… They do feed off each other. One person will do something and the other will say, ‘that just looks terrible’ or ‘isn’t that wonderful’” and they continue to work.”

Roupp indicated that her students were more vigorous in their research because of the team approach and the polished look of the final products. The adolescent audience who, at times, were more motivated by peer approval than teacher approval, seemed to respond positively to this approach.

CROSS CULTURAL EXPERIENCES

Participants had also noted how their travel experiences and exposure to diverse communities contributed to their interest in and knowledge of people of the world. Travel experience and diverse communities contributed to interest in studying peoples of
the world. Marilynn Hitchens and Steve Gleason had spent extensive amounts of time in
Russia, Greg Loughlin in Mexico and Hawaii, Ann Miller in Africa. Heidi Roupp had
traveled extensively in Europe, Asia, Africa, and Latin America. Bill Scanlon lived for a
year in France and led study tours to France, England, Greece, Egypt, and Israel. All had
indicated these experiences had an impact on developing an awareness and understanding
of other cultures.

Jack Hollister observed that the changing make-up of the student population and
the community seemed to affect his class’s interest in cross cultural understanding. With
an influx of Hmong from Laos and Mexicans into his community, people became
curious about who they were. Many had come for jobs (often low end jobs such as in the
paper mill and meat packing plants or as migrant workers) or because family members
had settled there already. Churches also sponsored immigrant families. An increase in
Mexican markets and large sections of Latino music in stores also contributed to the
culture of the community. Thirty-nine languages were spoken by children in a local
school. Hollister observed that such cross cultural connections provided opportunities to
explore the dynamics of global change.

An incident during the Aspen Institute also magnified global connections. Flight
800 from New York to Paris went down into the Atlantic Ocean with no survivors. The
French born wife of the speaker for that morning was scheduled to be on that flight, but at
the last moment, she had altered her plans. Communication via television and telephone

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23 Conversation between Heidi Roupp, Elizabeth Badger, and Simone Arias, July 8, 1996.
seemed paramount for hours early that morning as he did not know if his wife was safe. The group was reminded how global events do touch individuals personally.

Participants also identified two other factors which generated interest in global studies — their instructors who promoted interest in non-Western history and a desire to learn more about their ethnic heritage. Therefore, a combination of natural curiosity about cross-cultural examples in daily life and instructor’s infusion of diversity in classroom experiences could promote global awareness.

4.4 BENEFITS AND PROBLEMS WITH GLOBAL WORLD HISTORY

One of the focus questions of the study centered on identifying problems associated with adopting a global approach to world history. In addition to being interspersed at other points in this chapter, problems will be addressed in this section through the comments of the participants at the end of the Institute. I will discuss this further in Chapter 5. I include the comments of the participants on the benefits of global world history as well as the problems.

Comments reported in the initial surveys of the participants illustrate preconceived notions people may have had about the term global world history. One problem revolves around misperceptions about what global world history means and its practical and theoretical implications. This is seen in how the perceptions changed as the Institute provided further information. Concerns centered on time constraints, dilemmas over what to emphasize, and an inadequate knowledge base to be able to make global connections.
One participant characterized global world history as a study of man’s history, covering from man’s origins to the present day and every spot on the globe where man has inhabited. Another said, it is “a study of man’s origins to the present day and every spot on the globe where man has inhabited, but through selected increments of time and place to tell a cohesive story.” These beliefs created concerns that time constraints make a global approach impractical and unwieldy. As the Institute progressed, participants discussed how the intent was not to cover all areas of the world but to be cognizant that diverse areas of human history are included in an attempt to balanced depth and breadth of historical topics.

Another participants had claimed that global world history was “anything that is non-Western.” This suggests that Western contributions are not included, and perhaps not valued, in global world history. This could be a cause for rejecting further exploration of the topic. However, at the end of the Institute, participants noted that global did not mean just non-Western, but rather Europe and the Americas also were to be studied in a world context. It also meant studying political, social, cultural, and economic connections between regions of the world.

Another participant said global world history was “an attempt to learn about the most important regions of history and their relationship to each other over time.” Perceptions of what is “important” may still under represent vast economically underdeveloped areas of the world. Non-dominant people who contributed to world societies and culture are integral to the narratives in global world history even if they do not represent political or economic power.
Still another participant saw practical value in citizenship education through the approach. “My conception of global world history is centered on a belief that the study of man’s achievements and failures around the globe are important to all of us and possibly our future. We need to come to grips with how humans have dealt with adversity to develop strategies to cope with current problems.” Learning about how historical conflicts affect contemporary society could illustrate larger patterns of human behavior over time and place. Citizenship can then be viewed on a macro level as well as a micro level. On the other hand, applying knowledge about solutions to past conflicts to current conditions may be inconsistent with the belief that historical events must be understood in their context and may not be directly applicable to other situations.

Comments that participants made during their final interviews also provided some insights into their thoughts about the benefits and disadvantages of exploring global world history. Their comments further reflected their beliefs about personal benefits of the approach and the importance of gaining the support of colleagues.

Ann Miller said that she “found better ways to express what I have often thought in world history. We stressed the importance of connections and the interrelatedness, major themes that can draw big world questions together.” Her one semester world history course restricted her from delving into some of the topics in depth. However, she said she would emphasize connections and search for topics which students would find interesting and ways in which to get them involved. The area studies courses that she coordinated would also strive to make better connections with global themes. Instead of having a course just on modern Asia, we could look at things more globally.
Greg Loughlin became aware of more topics to incorporate such as a stronger component on Latin America. The biggest difficulty in offering a course in global world history at his community college was that counselors need to be more aware of the course to advise students to take it. “Most of the students will want to take their Western Civilization course because they will go on to a state university. Therefore, it is an elective, which will limit enrollment.” He and others had noted that philosophical views of administrators and students about the primacy of Western Civilization complicated the procedures to establish a global world history as a required course.

To him, the advantage of a global course was that it offered “far more opportunities to see ways that other cultures solve problems – different manifestations of the human condition.” In the final interview, Loughlin stated, “I think it is very comforting to learn that other people are confronted with similar kinds of difficulties as they go through their journey in life and this gives [students] more opportunities to see an alternative. It gives them possible answers to their own problems…. If you read only Western literature, you are missing a great deal in life.”

Prior to the Institute, Steve Gleason said he “definitely” approached world history from a Western Civilization viewpoint and thought that world history was just “more politically correct.” He characterized himself as “more to the right” initially, but “I think I have come around as far as what it means. He saw the value of global world history is to give a broad perspective such as through comparative studies. The most important thing is that the world is shrinking and that what is important now will not be important twenty or thirty years from now. He intended to alter his course not just to expand
geographic coverage but also will concentrate more on social and cultural history instead of political history. He also intended to incorporate more strategies for active student learning.

Gleason’s comments further illustrate the perception that global world history is considered a more liberal approach to world history than Area Studies and Western Civilization and could potentially be rejected by people who consider themselves to be conservative. However, he also suggested that adapting elements of the global world history. He also pointed out that history is a social construction embedded in a context and that decades from now, people will view the importance of historical events differently. This is consistent with global world history.

Bill Scanlon said that he discovered that world history was more complex that he thought it would be. He became more aware of the possibilities of extending beyond the Western Civilization core. “I think there will be far more world history [in his course] this coming year. I will change our African history mini-course and develop a way whereby African History will be more integrated in the context. China will be my other area of access, using other areas as a point of entry. The question is how will you do it? I think that the critical test for me and my colleague will be what will we drop out? I am intent about retaining the quality elements of a good history course.” This further corroborates the time constraints of the teaching environment, the dilemma over relative importance of events, the necessity to retain a credible means of instruction.

The difficulty Scanlon envisioned was developing his own knowledge. “I will read more of the World History Journal articles than I have in the past. I’d like to think
that I'll be in contact with some of the people at this Institute. My quest is to be more selective.” He also intended to expand his content knowledge and “to do justice to this global world history.” This indicates the importance of ongoing staff development opportunities and the development of further resources.

He viewed technology as a “marvelous selective supplement that did not replace the role of the teacher, but that might animate and improve the cultural exposure and maybe better identify places without having to travel to them. He had also pointed out that he must consider the views of the person with whom he team teaches the course and that they must consider requirements to prepare his students for advanced placement in tests in European history as well. Since the Institute, the Educational Testing Service has approved the development and field testing of an advanced placement test in world history for secondary students to obtain college credit.

Jack Hollister said that “one thing that has really come out is the interrelationship between different regions.” His concept of the Mongols also had changed. “My concept of the Mongols before these two weeks were horsemen riding around and chopping up people. They wrought tremendous changes whether they intended to or not. So I see [history] is more interrelated than I thought.”

A problem he anticipated with a global approach was students having a difficult time seeing relationships unless it is made simple – very concrete. “You know the Mongols did this so this happened up here. Unless you can make it very simple and concrete like that kids have a hard time seeing the relationships. We have average to

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lower thinking kids.” He found the presentations at the Institute which provided concrete information to be the most valuable.

By synthesizing the information gathered during data collection, Chapter 4 outlined the views and practices of the participants, including the directors, in regard to the conceptualization and implementation of global world history. Global world history was also set in the context of curricular need in social studies and the relationship between the content and skills of world history and education. Problems associated with global world history were interspersed in this chapter, but the following chapter will address more specifically the problems and benefits of global world history and the implications for world history classrooms and teacher education in social studies.
CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS

The Aspen World History Institute provided insights into conceptualizing and implementing global perspectives into a world history curriculum because of the willingness of the participants to reflect on the theoretical and practical considerations of global world history. Teaching experience at the secondary and post secondary levels ranged from two to more than 30 years, so some participants sought guidance about how to devise a world history course, while others intended to revise their current practice. Dialogues and presentations during the Institute provided a rich opportunity to examine conceptualizations of global world history held by the educators and historians participating in the Institute. Participants also explored the relationship between content, pedagogy, and disciplinary skills of history.

This research provides a definition which includes theoretical and practical elements in the 12 categories that emerged during the study. While other literature describes aspects of a global approach, this study demonstrates instructors’ thinking about how to teach it. The participants’ application of global world history provides models which may be adapted to other secondary and post secondary classrooms.
This study focused on three central questions:

1. What conceptualizations of global world history were held by the educators and historians participating in the Aspen Institute?

2. What did participants take to be the key content and pedagogical elements that constitute a global approach to world history?

3. What problems did the Institute participants encounter in conceptualizing and implementing a global approach to world history?

Chapter 5 will discuss the implications of the research findings, suggestions for further study, and the relationship between the review of literature and the experiences of the Aspen World History Institute. In section 5.1, I will discuss the implications of the conceptualizations of global world history held by the participants. In section 5.2, I will discuss the implications for the key content and pedagogy associated with teaching global world history. In section 5.3, I will discuss the implications of this research relative to problems in conceptualizing and implementing global world history.

5.1 PARTICIPANTS’ CONCEPTIONS OF GLOBAL WORLD HISTORY

To address the first question, many participants had some familiarity with global world history prior to coming to the Aspen World History Institute. The initial surveys indicated that three of the participants and the two directors indicated they had implemented a global approach to world history prior to the institute. One participant used a Western Civilization approach, three used an Area Studies approach, and two had not taught world history previously. Many of the participants had consulted with the
directors prior to the Institute to obtain feedback on the construction of their lessons. One participant had become acquainted with global world history at a previous institute of the directors and another had studied with the main speaker at that institute. Therefore, most of the participants had some exposure to global world history prior to the institute. The directors had proposed this approach as an alternative to Western Civilization or Area Studies configurations.

All participants adapted their prior knowledge of Western Civilization or Area Studies to reconceptualize world history in global terms. The topics selected by the participants provided insights into how to ask new questions using comparative history and through a more comprehensive examination juxtaposing depth and breadth. Suggested lessons included exploring the experience of European women in the fifteenth century as compared to women in other parts of the world at that time and in contemporary life, the African Slave Trade in a larger context of slavery as a world phenomena, comparative revolutions as a virus in European, American, and Latin American contexts, women during the Progressive era in American and Argentine contexts, Russian expansion as compared to the American frontier, propaganda during World War II from multiple perspectives. One lesson which compared the size of Africa to Europe and the United States was also designed to make students more aware of stories told by maps. These lessons demonstrated that, to varying degrees, participants did have some understanding of and interest in a global approach. Collectively, their selected topics contributed to the defining categories.
Their comments and lessons during the Institute indicate that while notions of global approaches may be present, an articulated definition and translation into practice was in various stages of development among the participants. Therefore, teacher preparation for pre-service and in-service teachers should include both a fundamental element which defines the approach and opportunities to explore the concepts on more sophisticated levels.

Misconceptions about global world history may also affect willingness to pursue the approach. Many of the participants initially perceived global world history as all people at all times in all places. While global world history is inclusive, it does not presume to exhaust the topic of human history. Just as in any course, selection of appropriate material is necessary. The difference is that a more comprehensive examination of selected topics is proposed. For example, teaching about colonialism could include information about indigenous life in India, Latin American, or Africa and the complexity of those societies from their point of view as well as that of the colonizers. But it need not necessarily include every example.

The instructors indicated that overarching questions to highlight key concepts rather than textbook driven lessons would allow students to incorporate active learning and employ the skills of the disciplines. Discussions during the institute refined and expanded their knowledge about global world history. Discussions which routinely exceeded the planned time slot demonstrated the importance of recognizing that
conceptualizing global world history was a process from which products, exemplary
lessons were produced.

Although participants had some knowledge of global world history, as discussed
in section 4.4, misconceptions about global world history were also evident. One
believed it was necessary to attempt to cover human origins to the present day on every
place on the globe. Another participant believed it only encompassed "non-Western"
history. However, another participant recognized that it stressed connections between
regions over time.

In the discussions, participants indicated that global history would not result in as
tightly woven narrative as Western Civilization. Instead, multiple narratives emphasizing
themes or eras were more likely to result because of the attention to disparate voices in
history. Coverage of all peoples in all places at all times was not the goal, but rather
examination of selected topics in their depth and breadth across time and place.

Participants also recognized that pedagogical issues must also be considered when
selecting course content. Ross Dunn claimed that students "jog breathlessly across the
chronologies of seven or eight civilizations resulting in less historical comprehension
then they may have originally had. Regardless of the orientation, identifying relevant
facts is inevitable. Dunn claimed that the decision about what to teach and how to teach
it

should be based on lively accounts, aesthetic images, and the portrayal of major
events and concepts that weave our hopes, fears, and moral values and
immemorial issues into the narrative instead of history as data...Vivid mental
pictures of the scenic travels of soldiers, sailors, merchants, monks, should be
interspersed with the transmission of religious ideology, scientific ideas, and new technologies.¹

Dunn is suggesting that tantalizing narratives can provide the rich detail about local historical events that should then be placed in a larger context which explores the impact of the flow of ideas and products. It also alludes to personal involvement while reading historical accounts. Participants at the institute became more sensitive to their perceptions about how history is taught and learned. They reflected on how their notions of Western Civilization, Area Studies, or global world history contributed to their construction of history both consciously and unconsciously. Global world history is more than a collection of stimulating narratives about the world’s peoples. Global world history provides an alternate means of constructing world history that necessitates a shifting of the lens from local, discrete facts to broad patterns of world interactions over time and place.

This research provided a definition which included theoretical and practical elements in the 12 categories covering content and pedagogy that emerged during the study. While other literature had described aspects of a global approach, this study demonstrated instructors’ thinking about how to teach their course content by applying these elements. The participants’ application of global world history helped to clarify the meaning of global world history and provided models which may be adapted to other classrooms. The next section will discuss how history and education courses can assist

instructors to prepare to teach global world history according to the categories defined in this study.

5.2 KEY CONTENT AND PEDAGOGY

The second focus question targeted a more detailed analysis of what participants did when conceptualizing and implementing global world history. Through the construction of participants’ lessons and other institute activities, I identified twelve categories concerning content and pedagogy which were conducive to the approach. The eight categories regarding content and process of world history provided a practical answer to the implementation phase. New conceptualizations of world history, new role of regional studies, prominence of comparative history, inclusion of gender history, global citizenship education, geography and environmental studies, thematic and interdisciplinary approaches, and new periodizations are elements that can be infused into any secondary or university history course to incorporate global ideology. I will address the implications of these categories relative to teacher preparation and subsequently secondary classrooms.

NEW CONFIGURATIONS OF WORLD HISTORY

Not only does global world history necessitate more extensive teacher preparation, but a different conceptualization of the “West vs. the rest.” Controversy over the standards developed by the National Center for History in the Schools\(^2\) suggest that some proponents of a Western Civilization approach argue that the West should be taught as a superior civilization to other regions or at least separate from other areas of the world.
Western Civilization courses are still prevalent in secondary and post secondary settings. In "The Challenges of National Standards in a Multicultural Society," Cherry A. McGee Banks criticized the attack on the standards, saying they provided a means for teachers to study history from the perspective of the vanquished as well as the victors. She said, "The attacks on the history standards helped to maintain the established history curriculum and to halt efforts to legitimize the histories, voices, and experiences of groups who traditionally have been excluded from school history."³ While philosophical differences do exist in the various approaches and global world history is suggested an alternative approach, the approaches are not mutually exclusive.

Upon close scrutiny, the East/West dichotomy becomes a false construction. Bea Spade’s account of nuns and monks as agents of a global change,⁴ Steve Gleason’s description of the Soviet Union which expands across Europe and Asia,⁵ and Ann Miller’s description of the intercontinental involvement during the Slave Trade are but a few examples. Although I recognize the problematic nature of using the terms Western and non-Western, I lack a way to communicate more effectively in other terms. Unfortunately, continued use of these terms reifies the misconception. Therefore, new configurations of world history which stress relationships between the world’s peoples across time and place, incorporation of multiple perspectives which include women and people from the spectrum of socioeconomic classes, and notions of citizenship, do suggest a different ontology and perhaps different language.

Another practical consideration is the elements of the teacher preparation program. Requiring concentrations in regional studies would provide a starting point to build knowledge about world history. In-service teachers can adapt their knowledge of Area Studies and Western Civilization to serve as foundations from which to expand inquiry into a global approach.

In the Institute, participants and speakers used their primary area of concentration in African, European, Latin American, Southeast Asia, and Middle Eastern history as a base from which to expand their knowledge in a broader context. Therefore, with the cooperation of multiple courses in a teacher preparation program, students will have the opportunity for continuous practice in exploring connections across regions. At the college level, students generally are required to take a number of broad survey courses such as in African, American, Asian, European, and Latin American studies. Those courses could be designed to make students aware of cultural influences across continents and the various responses to them. In Old World Encounters: Cross-Cultural Contacts and Exchanges in Pre-Modern Times Jerry Bentley suggested three responses to such exchanges: conversion through voluntary association, conversion by political, social, or economic pressure, and conversion by assimilation. This would encompass the roles of the dominant culture and the non-dominant culture in its complexities.

In addition to the Area Studies courses, a comprehensive world history course could provide practice in synthesizing detailed historical accounts of regional histories,

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4 Bea Spade, lecture and discussion at the Institute, July 10, 1996
5 Steve Gleason, lecture and discussion at the Institute, July 17, 1999.
and identifying and applying themes in history, probing large questions about humanity over time and place, reflecting on differences and commonalities in the human experience and the implications of this. History and education faculty members involved in teacher preparation programs could provide opportunities to consider the connections between the content, historical skills, and pedagogy across content and educational methods courses. This reflective practice was supported in the literature of Alan Griffin, Merry Merryfield, and Richard Remy.

Since college professors are generally trained as area specialists and may not feel adequately prepared to teach a world history course, one option may be a collaborative effort. College history professors generally are trained as area specialists; therefore, they may need encouragement to broaden their approaches in content courses to address the needs of college students who are preparing to teach in secondary classrooms.

An emphasis on social and cultural history across the globe, particularly in a comparative sense, suggests that perhaps courses in sociology and anthropology might be particularly useful. Students will then be aware of definitions of culture from which to build their understanding of cultural history throughout their course work. Cultural anthropologist Paul Bohannan’s description of three forms of ethnocentrism provides a framework from which to analyze interactions at the micro and macro levels of human encounters. Without a basic understanding of these social studies disciplines, will

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9 Paul Bohannan, *We, the Alien: An Introduction to Cultural Anthropology*, (Prospect Heights, IL: Waveland Press), 3-5.
discussions abandon the rigors of disciplinary inquiry and jeopardize the integrity of information shared during classroom instruction? Will placing cultural elements in a specific context of time and place discourage static and stereotypical descriptions of people and societies? How can narratives in history depict people as dynamic, active agents affected by social, political, economic, and cultural influences, including ethnicity and gender?

By observing the interactions of the participants, directors, and guest speakers, the value of team-taught courses could provide insights across disciplines and area specialties. Instructors from different disciplines or expertise in area studies could provide a greater range of expertise and even multiple perspectives. The interactions between faculty members and involvement of student “experts” in the class could provide models of how to approach interdisciplinary and cross-cultural topics. In secondary or college world history courses, students could become “experts” in a region or a country within a region and compare information with classmates. Lessons such as those suggested by Patricia O’Neill\(^\text{10}\) and David Smith\(^\text{11}\) could involve collaboration. This would encourage students to develop deep knowledge about topics while also providing breadth of information. Students will, therefore, be better prepared to understand the uniqueness of societies and the common elements in societies across the globe. This contributes to an understanding of our multicultural American society as well as other world cultures. When considering societies on their own terms, factors which shape society and account for similarities and differences in societies become evident.

\(^{10}\) Patricia O’Neill, lecture and discussion at the Institute, July 9, 1996.
\(^{11}\) David Smith, lecture and discussion at the Institute, July 12, 1996.
MULTIPLE PERSPECTIVES

The emphasis on social and cultural history in global world history requires a closer scrutiny of "facts." Cultural anthropologist Paul Bohannan's description of levels of ethnocentrism point that humans can be ignorant that other ways exist, view their way as superior to other ways and can recognize that diversity of thought need not mean conflict. Fred Newmann\textsuperscript{12} also encouraged students to seek out alternative points of view and alternative ways to solve problems. Classroom which promote diversity education can use these as models to explore classroom dynamics as well as the interactions of people in history.

One example during the institute demonstrates how Western Civilization and global world history can be viewed in different, but not necessarily conflicting terms. Steve Gleason's comments in the final interview reveal his reflections on "ways of knowing."\textsuperscript{13} He said initially he saw himself as espousing a more "conservative" approach and that global world history was just a more "politically correct" version of history. However, he said he "came around" to seeing that global world history is an attempt to construct a more comprehensive narrative which explores connections between people. However, his affiliation of the terms conservative and liberal with these approaches points out philosophical differences and implications for "what we know" and "how we know it." How does self identification as "conservative" or "liberal" affect

\textsuperscript{12} Fred Newmann and Gary G. Wehlage, \textit{Successful School Restructuring} , (Madison, WI: Board of Regents of the University of Wisconsin System, 1995).

\textsuperscript{13} Interview with Steve Gleason, July 19, 1996.
historical understandings? To what extent does political ideology affect the implementation of a global approach to world history?

Marilynn Hitchens' "Habits of the Mind"\textsuperscript{14} indicated that multiple perspectives involved diversity of thought which included intuitive and irrational thinking to account for a breadth of human experience. She warned against "cognitive imperialism" which privileged rational thought. This suggests the third level of Bohannan where one suspends judgment about other cultures in an attempt to understand them. While Western thought values rationalism and scientific though, can and should instructors recognize the influences of intuition in societies?

Consideration of multiple perspectives can lead to controversy, and therefore, classroom management issues, in classrooms. Instructors must be prepared to manage class discussions which can become heated over differences in perceptions. Teachers must consider how to promote discussions that are attentive to even the silent voices in classrooms to promote equal opportunity in the classroom.

In global world history, the attention to diversity causes a shift in citizenship from emphasizing or preserving American or Western interests to acknowledging the contributions of humans across the globe. Another aspect is that issues such as peace and security and environmental concerns cross political boundaries and require cooperative efforts between nation-states to resolve common problems that transcend political, social, cultural, or economic borders.

\textsuperscript{14} Marilynn Hitchens, lecture and discussion at the Institute, July 8, 1996.
For purposes of limiting the scope of this study, few references to multicultural literature were included. However, inclusion of more multi-cultural literature would shed further light on the complexities of teaching global world history both in terms of addressing diverse student populations and in understanding issues of diversity in historical events.

GLOBAL CITIZENSHIP

Steve Gleason's comments on "politically correct" history raises questions about ties to citizenship education which builds a civic identity that addresses individual, local, national, and world dimensions. Shirley Engle and Anna Ochoa's attention to socialization and countersocialization in *Education for Democratic Citizenship*\(^{15}\) suggest that dual roles are in operation. An instructor must juxtapose a civic form of acculturation along with independent thinking necessary for a democratic society to function. However, as the history standards illustrate, communities differ about how to balance those needs. Alternative forms of world history imply different forms of citizenship. Cherry McGee Banks directly addressed that concern in her "The Challenges of National Standards in a Multicultural Society." What constitutes "American" and "anti-American" attitudes has social, cultural, economic and political dimensions that need to be addressed in its complexities.

Dorothy Parker's lesson\(^{16}\) posed another important dimension of citizenship implied by historical events. She explored if citizenship education was designed to

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\(^{16}\) Dorothy Parker, lecture and discussion at the Institute, July 18, 1996.
promote the welfare of the individual or the welfare of the nation-state. Are these views mutually exclusive? Multiple perspectives in a democracy are intended to strengthen individuals and societies, but how must values be balanced when they are in conflict? The lessons of Dorothy Parker and Steve Gleason, the comments of speaker Colonel Carl Reddel, and the literature of educators such as Lee Anderson, Steve Lamy, Merry Merryfield, and Richard Remy provide much opportunity to contemplate the complexities of multiple allegiances in an ever shrinking world.

GEOGRAPHY AND ENVIRONMENTAL STUDIES

Both the review of literature and Institute experiences discussed geography in terms of physical, cultural, and environmental aspects which compared size, climate, and resources. Geography also was discussed in terms of physical features which inhibited or facilitated the flow of people, ideas, products and flora, fauna, and diseases. This is consistent with environmental studies prevalent in curriculum standards such as the theme in National Council for the Social Studies “People, Places, and Environments” and “Decision Making and Resources” and “Global Connections.” The Geography Alliance also supports global approaches by supplementing map reading skills but also the broader implications of geography through the themes location, place, relationships within place, movement, and region.

During teacher preparation, required geography courses should prepare students not only to know physical, political, and cultural geography, but should also ask student to think critically about the influence of physical barriers such as deserts, mountains,
oceans in the development of political regions and historical events. They should also become acquainted with different representations of the world on flat maps and discuss the implications of those visions. To visualize relative locations, maps should be readily accessible for students to locate resources and natural barriers which affected the movement of people, plants, animals, products, and diseases.

By considering configurations such as Afro-Eurasia, student can scrutinize dichotomous East/West, North/South constructions. They should examine perceptual differences between the terms Middle East and West Asia and debate why Egypt is often allied with West Asian countries although it is located on the African continent. Why has the relative size of continents been distorted? Why is Europe considered a continent when India is considered a subcontinent? Maps are excellent tools to examine ethnocentric views of the physical world. By examining maps from other countries, students will become acquainted with other views. At what level should students consider the connotation of the terms and visual images as part of the instruction? Will this lead to a greater understanding of multiple views of the world or confuse students?

THEMATIC AND INTERDISCIPLINARY APPROACHES

Global world history utilizes multiple disciplines such as political science to explore citizenship issues, sociology, anthropology, literature and art to explore social and cultural history, and geography to supplement “ways of knowing.” This contributes to a richer dialogue as different tools and disciplinary assumptions corroborate, negate, or question established disciplinary content in history. In global world history, history serves as a core that is enhanced by scholarship in other social studies and non-social
studies disciplines. History has traditionally incorporated art, music, artifacts, biographies, historical novels, and film to provide stimulating narratives and opportunities to compare artistic renditions to historical accounts. The emphasis on social and cultural history makes these tools even more valuable.

Thematic approaches often involve interdisciplinary teaching. The impact of language, religion, political structures, technology, and environment, for example, are factors which surface repetitively across time and place. Classes in history and education should encourage an exploration of themes to facilitate the comparative approach and to deepen the understanding of the diversity and universality of humans. The themes generated by the Institute participants consisting of human rights, religion/philosophy, environment, conflict, communication, family and gender, aesthetics, human exchange over time and place, science and technology, governance, economic productive system and exchange, individual and classes, and modernization provides a comprehensive list to generate short term and long term assignments. As Ross Dunn pointed out in “Central Themes in History,” isolated facts must be connected and constructed into meaningful learning in order for it to be better understood and remembered. Themes also provide a framework for future learning so students can continue to apply their knowledge to situations outside the classroom.

Another question would be the length of the world history course. In a roundtable discussion, participants indicated that attempting to teach world history, regardless if it was in a semester, a year, or even two year courses, was daunting. They preferred a two
year course at both the secondary and college levels, but would settle for at least a one
year course. Therefore, institutional support is necessary for approval of the
development and requirement of a substantial world history course for both secondary
and college students.

STUDENT CENTERED LEARNING

As Lee Shulman pointed out, content, pedagogy, and curriculum are intimately
linked in the construction of knowledge in classroom settings. An outcome of the study
was the stress on discipline-based education where both instructors and students engage
in reflective practice and acquisition of historical skills.

The Institute demonstrated that content knowledge can be taught simultaneously
with disciplinary skills as a form of pedagogy where student play an active role in their
learning. Bill Scanlon’s lesson on sixteenth century European women, Ann Miller’s
lesson on the African Slave Trade, El Greco’s lesson on Comparative Latin American
Revolutions, Greg Loughlin’s lesson on propaganda posters during World War II and
Dorothy Parker’s lesson comparing Women’s Movements in Argentina and Arkansas
could all be taught in the context of a world history course or an education class to
illustrate world history content knowledge as well as examining the disciplinary skills
mentioned above to discern ways of knowing and to organize, analyze, compare and
synthesize information. This is consistent with elements of Fred Newmann’s Authentic
Pedagogy and Lee Schulman’s “Model of Pedagogical Reasoning and Action.”

17 Ross E. Dunn, “Central Themes in History,” Historical Literacy, Paul Gagnon, ed. (New York:
Macmillan, 1989), 231.
One way to infuse skills is through the proposed five standards of the National Center for History in the Schools: chronological thinking, historical comprehension, historical analysis and interpretation, historical research capabilities, and historical issues analysis and decision-making. These are consistent with skill areas suggested during the Institute.

According to the standards, chronological thinking involves using historical narratives such as biographies and historical literature to examine events unfolding over time, patterns of historical duration, and patterns of historical succession which explores larger systems of interactions over time. Participants discussed the importance of examining alternate constructions of time through different calendars. This also refers to the participants' examinations of periodizations for the factors which influence their construction.

Second, historical comprehension examines the source of primary documents or narratives to determine its credibility and frame of reference, differentiate between historical facts and historical interpretations. Bill Scanlon's use of primary source documents about views of women in the sixteenth century is an example. Third, in historical analysis and interpretation, students explore multiple perspectives and compare ideas and historical narratives, analyze cause and effect in terms of multiple causation and consider the intended and unintended effects of past decisions throughout the lessons.

Fourth, historical research capabilities provides practice in formulating historical questions, obtaining historical data from multiple sources, and supporting hypotheses.

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with historical evidence. The use of themes and the posing of "big questions" supports this form of inquiry. Fifth, historical issues-analysis and decision-making focuses on proposing and evaluating alternative courses of action, and the long and short term effects. All these skills would be useful both for secondary and college students to prepare to think globally as they apply Fernand Braudel’s short-term, medium-term, and long-term patterns in history. Incorporating historical skills into a course demonstrates how content, disciplinary skills, and pedagogical concerns are intertwined.

Students must also become skillful at synthesizing a topic such as described by Patricia O’Neill. Themes which students or instructors identify may be useful in such an examination for instructors and students alike. Students will also gain practice in discerning the relative importance of facts in history as they construct narratives. Potential dangers will be oversimplification and faulty conclusions due to insufficient or erroneous information.

Acquainting students with the skills of history also supports Fred Newmann’s Authentic Pedagogy attention to disciplinary content and skills. It promotes student generated organization of information through comparisons, synthesis, or evaluation of information. Students explore alternative solutions and strategies to solve problems. Students are also encouraged to connect their learning to issues in the real world.

By applying Newmann’s pedagogy, students can even debate what constitutes a fact. Multiple "truths" are discerned by searching for alternative perspectives. During discussions about the usefulness of technology, participants noted the access to primary source documents that could yield information for students to examine multiple
viewpoints or to explore a topic in more depth beyond the textbook information. Critical thinking and verification of information become essential in the classroom and, in turn, in life outside the classroom.

CROSS CULTURAL EXPERIENCES

Participants had mentioned the value of having traveled outside the United States, having personal cross cultural identities, or having long term experiences in multi-cultural environments in the United States. This suggests that secondary and university instructors should promote opportunities for foreign travel, and preferably sustained interactions with diverse local communities to deepen understanding of historical perspectives. Merry Merryfield's *Teaching Global Perspectives* devoted a chapter to "Cross-Cultural Experiences in Teacher Education Courses: Reflections and Advice from American and African Teachers."  

Using local resources, students will also learn of authentic connections to real world examples and human reactions to events in history. In the Institute, Jack Hollister mentioned the value of incorporating the Hispanic and Hmong resources in his community to enhance his lessons. In the review of literature, Charlotte Anderson, Robert Woyach, and Richard Remy also advocated a community-based approach to global education. Local resources can include students and faculty, ethnic organizations in the community, archives, and oral histories. This also provides for a more sustained

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experience for ongoing opportunities for cross-cultural learning. A “local to global” approach can assist students in making the connections between textbook and classroom learning and applications to the real world, even in their community. This is likely to motivate student interest in the subject and promote long-term memory and deeper understanding of historical topics.

As Robert Hanvey indicated in “Attainable Global Perspective,” thinking in another cultural context involves a prolonged experience. Cross cultural experiences in natural settings such as between classmates or in the community provide valuable resources, if encouraged. However, instructors must be sensitive to the role that the students wish to play and not to impose token identities which stereotype. Culture must be discussed in terms of its context of time and place. In “classrooms without walls,” students may be motivated to extend their knowledge and curiosity from their neighborhoods and to the far reaches of the globe – through technology-based travel via television or computers or by journeys to other places in the United States and across the globe.

5.3 PROBLEMS IN IMPLEMENTING GLOBAL WORLD HISTORY

While participants indicated in their exit survey that they intended to explore global world history further, they did note difficulties in the conceptualization and implementation. In section 5.1, I addressed the need to prepare pre-service teachers more broadly in order to incorporate a more comprehensive world history in their classrooms.

To increase the instructor's understanding of global world history, he or she also can become acquainted with the broad-based scholarship of William Mc Neill, L.S. Stavrianos, Jerry Bentley, Eric Wolf, Janet Abu-Lughod, Immanuel Wallerstein and Carter Findley who provide examples and even insights into global connections across time and place. However, this also raises the question about whether this approach should be left to scholars or if instructors and students at all levels can participate in constructing their understanding of historical events? Should a course use a combination of scholarly examples and student constructed examples? How is integrity of information maintained? There were questions of concern.

This study suggests that pedagogical concerns are no longer solely the purview of educators. Implementing active student learning implies that college professors and secondary teachers will have been adequately prepared in methods to assist student work in group projects. However, this is not generally part of Ph.D. programs in history, so perhaps this could be considered. Teaching centers at universities and professional organizations also could provide assistance for professors interested in developing new teaching and assessment strategies. Pedagogical matters also include alternative forms of assessment that promoted individual accountability in group projects. However, further research on pedagogical concerns at college level teaching is needed.

Another concern for active student learning is class size. Since instructor and student roles are interactive, large lecture hall classes, some in excess of 100 students, are not feasible unless the class occasionally is broken into smaller groups to allow

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opportunities for actively processing the information. Lectures can disseminate massive amounts of information in a relatively short time, but students must have opportunities to explore aspects in more depth through research and interactive lessons such as through collaborative group projects like that proposed by David Smith.

Technology is one way to link the classroom to real world issues and problems. With the expansion of resources including internet resources, and methods to demonstrate understanding of a topic, new forms of assessment must also be developed to ensure accountability for learning, but in more authentic ways. This will require that teacher preparation programs include multiple opportunities to learn about alternative forms of assessment. This is another area for further study. This also become more difficult in secondary and post-secondary sites which do not have adequate computer facilities.

In addition to physical limitations is time limitations. While interactive teaching is preferable, the problem of time constraints becomes even more acute. A complication mentioned above was inadequate time to explore topics in deeper and more expanded ways, but this is further complicated as the process of constructing knowledge involves more time than a well synthesized lecture prepared by the instructor. Grading projects and research papers also increases work obligations over standardized or objective tests.

Another concern of the participants was textbook design and choice. While some teachers indicated that choice of textbook was less important because it served only as a springboard to historical topics, others felt, as the literature review indicated, that the textbook was the single most important factor. Ideally, teacher input should inform
publishers about their needs, and publishers should assist teachers through their textbooks and supplementary materials. Communication between groups will maximize the usefulness of the resources. Participants requested guidance from independent sources about the strengths and weaknesses of textbooks.

This research was inspired in part because of the need for reforms in history education at both secondary and college levels to meet the needs of secondary teachers and students. Although further study is needed, the inclusion of both college and secondary faculty at the Institute allowed for the pre-teaching experience and in-service phases to be addressed. Participants had indicated that the combination of college and secondary faculty at the Institute was beneficial. They said that mutual concerns about students who do not complete reading assignments and curriculum choices for a world history course were shared concerns. Even the college professors said that they could not make assumptions about their students’ prior knowledge in world history. Therefore, collaborative efforts of staff development opportunities to develop content and pedagogical knowledge involving college and secondary faculty would have merit. This mutual support could also extend to faculty collaboration during field experiences in the teacher preparation program.

The reform efforts must be ongoing – to being in pre-service preparation and extend to in-service staff development. Participants expressed the need for ongoing professional development through courses and summer Institute/workshop opportunities to increase their knowledge of content and pedagogy and to collaborate with one another about methods for effective teaching and learning. Many indicated a desire to
communicate beyond the Institute to establish a network of support. Therefore, world history educators themselves, along with policy makers, can direct the reform effort by sponsoring and attending professional development opportunities.

Professional organizations for educators and historians such as the World History Association (WHA), National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS), Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) Clearinghouse, the American Historical Association, the National Geographic Alliance, and others also can contribute to the reform effort through the support of the development and dissemination of information to assist instructors who are seeking support in their professional growth. Participants specifically requested information about available textbooks and support materials, as well as evaluation guides which describe if and how they use a global approach to world history. History and education organizations may disseminate information and facilitate such opportunities for exchange through meetings, seminars, conferences, publications and web pages on the Internet.

To support teachers' and professors' professional growth, funding must be available for a multiple purposes. Clearly, supplementary materials to facilitate the incorporation of multiple perspectives and maps that depict various world images will be needed. Funds to develop and distribute teacher developed materials are necessary. Funds to support professional development opportunities through school districts, colleges, and professional organizations will also enhance the effort. Access to technology will be required so funding will be needed for staff development as well as for hardware and software.
Since the teacher's time is already overtaxed, incentives are crucial for systemic reform. The daily demands of teaching schedules may impede rapid progress in the transformation process; however, access to resource materials would assist in the development of a more comprehensive curriculum. Commercially produced resources and websites could establish a network for resources and consultation which can further support motivated teachers.

Reform must also address the issue of professionalism. Instructors must accept their professional obligations to partake in the educational opportunities available to them as is possible. A research question related to this would be what is the most effective means to reach secondary and post secondary instructors – publications, attendance at conferences, individuals establishing networks, or Internet sources? What will motivate reluctant instructors to take on the challenge of preparing for and teaching a more rigorous curriculum?

This research provides a framework to contribute to a sound examination of human history in theory and practice which attempts to be inclusive of diverse populations. Consistent with the goals to improve the performance of students and faculty according to the goals of "A Nation at Risk" and "Goals 2000," this research, establishes greater expectations for content knowledge, more practice in disciplinary skills, and greater attention to student-centered pedagogy at all levels of education will promote reform that is more than "old wine in new bottles."
SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE


Diaz, Carlos et al.. Global Perspectives for Educators, Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1999.


2. HISTORY LITERATURE


3. RESEARCH LITERATURE


Institute Schedule

The Schedule

Week 1

Sunday, July 7
5:30-7:00 Wine and Cheese at Heidi Roupp's (see map)

Monday, July 8
8:30-10:15 Elizabeth Badger Teaching Habits of the Mind in World History
10:30-11:30 Marilyn Hitchens Roundtable Discussion "Habits of the Mind"
11:30-1:30 Lunch
1:30-4:00 Introductions, getting acquainted, group work

Tuesday, July 9
8:00-9:30 Patricia O'Neil Making the World History Course Student-Centered
10:00-11:00 Gaylen Lewis Roundtable Discussion "Using Technology in World History"
11:00-1:00 Lunch
1:00-3:30 Technology Practicum
7:30-9:30 Aspen Institute Lecture by Manning Marable, Director of the Institute for Research in African-American Studies-Columbia University

Wednesday, July 10
8:30-10:15 Bea Spade Monks & Nuns as Globalizing Agents of Change
10:30-11:30 Roundtable Conceptualizing the World History Course
11:30-1:30 Lunch
1:30-4:00 Teaching Demonstrations
5:30 Snowmass Barbecue and Rodeo

Thursday, July 11
8:30-10:15 Craig Lockard Southeast Asia in World History
10:30-11:30 Roundtable Conceptualizing the World History Course
11:30-1:30 Lunch
1:30-4:00 Teaching Demonstrations
7:30-9:30 Aspen Institute Panel Discussion led by P. Michael Timpane, Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Education

Friday, July 12
8:30-10:15 David Smith Technology, A Theme in World History
10:30-11:30 Roundtable Periodization in World History
11:30-1:30 Lunch
1:30-4:00 Teaching Demonstrations
8:00-10:30 Paepcke Auditorium Anne Frank Remembered *

* Suggested Activities
Tickets for the Aspen Music Festival should be purchased in advance (970) 925-9042.

Appendix A

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Saturday, July 13
8:30-10:15 Jim Jankowski
10:30
The Middle East in 20th Century World History
Snowmass Arts and Crafts Fair*
Rafting, Golf, Horseback Riding, Gondola*
Week II

Sunday, July 14
11:00
4:00-6:00 Concert*
7:30-9:30 Anderson Ranch*
Lecture & Slides at by noted National
Geographic Photographer, David Hiser
A summer hike with Kit Sommer
Schumann: Symphony No. 4

Monday, July 15
8:30-10:15 Jane Day
10:30-11:30 Roundtable
11:30-1:30 Lunch
1:30-4:00 Teaching Demonstrations
7:30-9:30 Aspen Institute*
Lecture by Christo and Jeanne-Claude
The PreColumbian Ballgame: Ritual Sport of
the Americas
Materials, Textbooks, and Primary Sources

Tuesday, July 16
8:30-10:15 Teddy DeWalt
10:30-11:30 Roundtable
11:30-1:30 Lunch
1:30-4:00 Roundtable
Using Biographies in World History
Reflections on a Luxurious Age the Mirror of
Art in the Spanish Colonial World
Integrating Regional Studies into World
History

Wednesday, July 17
8:30-10:15 Bob Pickering
10:30-11:30 Roundtable
11:30-1:30 Lunch
1:30-4:00 Teaching Demonstrations
7:00 Wheeler Opera House*
Verdi: La traviata
Artifacts, Fakes and Fantasies: A Reflection on
the Use of Objects to Study the Past
The Politics of World History

Thursday, July 18
8:30-10:15 Carl Reddel
10:30-11:30 Roundtable
11:30-1:30 Lunch
1:30-4:00 Teaching Demonstrations
5:30-6:30 Given Biomedical Institute*
20th Century Presidents: Their Health & Effect
on History*, a lecture by Robert Schrier
20th Century Ecology in World History
Assessments

Friday, July 19
8:30-10:15 Simone Ariss
10:30-11:30 Heidi Roupp
11:30-1:30 Lunch
1:30-4:00 Roundtable cont'd
6:30 Banquet
Assessments in a World History Course
Roundtable Discussion Our Institute, Our Book
Our Institute, Our Book
Trout at Karibounik, home of Aspen's
Iditarod team
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Participant Survey

Please fill out the attached survey and return it to Simone Arias in c/o Heidi Roupp at Box 816, Aspen, Colorado or bring it to the institute on 7/7/96. Feel free to write on the back or to attach pages as needed.

Name ____________________________
Home Address ____________________________
School Address ____________________________
Telephone Numbers (Home) ____________________________ (School) ____________________________
Sex ____________________________ Female ____________________________ Male
Ethnicity ____________________________

Indicate your current position and grade level(s) taught:

______________________________________________________________________________

How many years have you taught world history? ______
How many years have you been in education? ______

Describe the type of educational institution in which you work:

______________________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________________

Indicate your degrees and fields of study and any other training relative to social studies.

______________________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________________

Describe your teaching style.

______________________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________________

In general terms, describe your students in terms of their age, ability, and knowledge.

______________________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________________

APPENDIX B

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What textbooks do you use and how do you use these textbooks in your classroom?

What other resources do you use to teach?

How would you describe your current approach to teaching world history?

What contributed most to the style you adopted?

Describe your conception of global world history.

What do you hope to gain from your participation in the institute?
WORLD HISTORY BOOKMARKS

http://neal.ctstateu.edu/history/world_history/ - Gateway to World History
http://neal.ctstateu.edu/history/world_history/gate03.html - Internet Discussion Lists Relea
http://neal.ctstateu.edu/history/world_history/gate06.html - Reference works for History
http://neal.ctstateu.edu/history/WHA/index.html - World History Association
http://neal.ctstateu.edu/history/WHA/links.html - World History links
http://www.allback.com/cadre/milhist/w_psites.html#pre-modern - Military History
http://vvv.com/khan/Genghis Khan Site
http://www.evansville.edu/~wcweb/wc101/mepage.htm
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http://www.nsa.uiuc.edu/SDC/Experimental/vatican-exhibit/Vatican.exhibit.html - Vatica
http://rst.ox.ac.uk/imacat.html http://neal.ctstateu.edu/history/world_history/index.html
http://www.georgetown.edu/labyrinth/labyrinth-home.html - Medieval Studies
http://fox.nsn.na/~tmonk/castle/castle.html - Castles
http://www.dnai.com/~rutledge/CHCP_home.html - Irene Rutledge,
volunteer, rutledge@dnai.com
http://www-chaos.umd.edu/history/toc.html - History of China: Table of Contents
http://neal.ctstateu.edu/history/world_history/feudalism.html - Feudalism in World History
http://neal.ctstateu.edu/a01/history/world_history/archives/archive22.html
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http://khttp.cc.ukans.edu/history/WWW_history_main.html - The World-Wide Web Virtual
http://grid.let.rug.nl/abci/teaching.html - Teaching material for historians
http://www.npacsyr.edu/textbook/kidsweb/history.html - Kids Web - History
http://www.byu.edu/curriculum/hist201/- World History to 1500
http://cedar.evansville.edu/~wcweb/wc101/ - Exploring Ancient World Cultures
http://copan.bioz.unibas.ch/meso/Meso.html - Pre-Columbian Links
http://www.access.digex.net/~medved/rockart.html - Sun and planets in neolithic art
http://hulk.bu.edu/misc/India/India
http://copan.bioz.unibas.ch/meso.html-Mayan and Pre-Columbian links
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http://fly.hiway.net/~mcegee/iaido_samurai.html - Samurai history
http://fujistanford.edu/XXGUIDE/japan_history_culture_text.html - Japanese history and cul
http://darkwing.uoregon.edu/~loydw/- East Asian history and culture
http://execpc.com/~dboals/hist.html - Non-Western History
http://www.ha-fak.uib.no/i/snia/-Middle Eastern Studies

Appendix C

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http://www.sas.upenn.edu/African_Studies/AS.html-African resources
http://menic.utexas.edu/mes.html-Middle Eastern Studies
http://tigger.stcloud.msus.edu/~history/net.htm-World History resources
http://www1whs.lkwash.wednet.edu/edu/social_studies/default.html-Social Studies
http://interact.uoregon.edu/MediaLit/FA/MLCulture-Primary sources
http://ericir.sunsite.syr.edu/ERIC resources
http://www.colosys.net/garfield/referenc.htm-Reference materials
http://www.colosys.net/garfield/resource.htm-Search engines
http://tripath.colosys.net/search.htm-More search engines
http://www.usafa.af.mil/-USAF
http://www.access.gpo.gov/sg-docs/Superintendent GovDOCS
http://www.whitehouse.gov/WH/Welcome.html-White House
http://policy.net/capweb/congress.html-Congress
http://sailor.lib.md.us/-Maryland
http://www.aclin.org/-ACLIN
http://owl.english.purdue.edu/-Writing Lab
http://www.ind.net/Internet/comp.html-More writing labs
http://www2.colgate.edu/diw/NWCA.html-And more
Periodizations in the *National Standards for History*

by the National Center for History in the Schools

I. The Beginnings of Human Society

II. Early Civilizations and the Emergence of Pastoral Peoples, 4000-1000 BCE

III. Classical Traditions, Major Religions, and Giant Empires 1000 BCE-300 BCE

IV. Expanding Zones of Exchange and Encounter, 300-1000 CE

V. Intensified Hemispheric Interactions, 1000-1500 CE

VI. The Emergence of the First Global Age, 1450-1770

VII. An Age of Revolutions, 1750-1914

VIII. A Half-Century of Crisis and Achievement, 1900-1945

IX. The Twentieth Century Since 1945: Promises and Paradoxes

APPENDIX D

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Periodizations According to The Rise of the West

I. In the Beginning

II. The Breakthrough to Civilization in Mesopotamia

III. The Diffusion of Civilization

IV. The Rise of Cosmopolitan Civilization, 1700-1500 BC

V. The Formulation of Peripheral Civilizations in India, Greece, and China, 1700-500 BC

VI. The Expansion of Hellenism, 500-146 BC

VII. Closure of the Eurasian Ecumene, 500-200 AD

VIII. Barbarian Onslaught and Civilized Response, 200-600 AD

IX. The Resurgence of the Middle East, 600-1000 AD

X. Steppe Conquerors and the European Far West, 1000-1500 AD

XI. The Far West’s Challenge to the World 1500-1700 AD

XII. The Tottering World Balance, 1700-1850 AD

XIII. The Rise of the West: Cosmopolitan on a Global Scale, 1850-1950 AD

APPENDIX E

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Periodizations from Barron's SAT II World History²

I. The Beginnings of Human Society

II. Early Civilizations to 500 BCE

III. Systems of Society and Culture: The Classical Age 1000 BCE-500 BCE

IV. Expanding Classical Systems of Society and Culture 100 CE-1200 CE

V. Emergence of A Global Age 1200 CE-1600 CE

VI. Forces that Shaped the Modern World 1450-1750

VII. Patterns of Modernity in the Nineteenth Century 1750-1900

VIII. The Contemporary World

APPENDIX F