Continuity and Change: Curriculum and Instruction in the World History Classroom

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ABSTRACT

This dissertation explores curriculum and instruction in the world history classroom through two manuscripts. These manuscripts describe the effects of educational policy and environmental contexts on the work of world history teachers. The first study analyzes the world history curriculum, and the second study looks at how curriculum was enacted during the COVID-19 pandemic. Additionally, these studies make visible trends of continuity and change in the world history curriculum and teacher decision-making.

The first manuscript is a qualitative analysis of the representation of women and gender in Virginia's world history curriculum. This study examines the representation of women and gender in the curriculum by analyzing curricular choices and discourse within the Virginia Standards of Learning (SOLs) and the Curriculum Frameworks. Through content analysis and critical discourse analysis, the study identifies a lack of inclusivity in the world history curriculum and addresses how language reproduces gender stereotypes and negates the contributions of women in comparison to their male counterparts. This study is important for two reasons. First, it adds to the literature on teaching world history which is a lesser researched content area in social studies. Second, it examines how curriculum can influence inclusivity and representation in the historical narrative. This study was recently published in the *Iowa Journal for the Social Studies*.

The second manuscript is a qualitative case study that explores the educational and environmental contexts created by the COVID-19 pandemic and how these contexts affected the curricular-instructional decisions and pedagogical practices of four world history teachers.

Initially, I planned to study the effects of teacher knowledge, specifically content knowledge, on the teacher-curriculum relationship. However, the focus shifted to teacher-decision making during the pandemic. This research is vital and useful because it addresses how teachers tried to continue as normal during uncertain times. Data collection included classroom observations, participant interviews, and analysis of instructional materials. Findings reveal that teachers relied on the continuity of the curriculum while changing methods of instructional delivery, adapting classroom assessment practices, and modifying existing assignments. The most promising finding of the study reveals that teachers employed formative assessments to check for understanding and the presence of remote students. Teacher decisions show evidence of pedagogical content knowledge, knowledge of students, and knowledge of contexts. The research shows that teachers made curricular-instructional decisions in reaction to pandemic educational contexts, but these choices often aligned with the research on effective and wise practice in areas like classroom assessment.

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GENERAL AUDIENCE ABSTRACT

As a former world history teacher and current teacher educator, I am interested in making the work of classroom teachers visible. In Virginia, world history educators are expected to teach the standardized world history curriculum. I recognized that the world history curriculum was dominated by men but did little to address the issue until I had the opportunity to develop and teach a women's studies course at Christiansburg High School. My knowledge of different types of curricula and curriculum as educational policy grew during my doctoral program. The first study grew out of a class assignment for feminist research methods. I found that men vastly outnumber women, but more importantly, that the wording of the curriculum reproduces gender stereotypes by describing the achievements of women as inferior to those of men. This study shows that the Virginia world history curriculum remained relatively consistent from 2008 to 2015 and the most significant changes reduced inclusivity instead of expanding the curriculum. This study is important because it addresses how women continue to be marginalized and underrepresented in the world history curriculum.

The COVID-19 pandemic introduced students and teachers to a series of new and shifting educational and environmental contexts. I originally planned to study how world history teachers navigated the teacher-curriculum relationship, designed their planned curriculum, and then analyze the enacted curriculum or what occurred in the actual classroom. However, it was impossible to escape the educational contexts resulting from the pandemic when conducting my study. Therefore, the second study evolved to focus on the effects of pandemic educational and environmental contexts on the instructional decisions and classroom practices of world history

teachers. I discovered that despite their lack of experience with remote instruction, teachers made curricular-instructional decisions that were illustrative of effective and wise practice.

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Introduction to the Dissertation

Teaching, like history, is a story of continuity and change. Seixas and Morton (2013) identified continuity and change as one of the big six historical thinking concepts. They wrote:

> History is often defined as the story of change over time. But history is more complex; some things don't change at all; some things change quicky and then slowly; and, at any given moment, some things change while others remain the same (Seixas & Morton, 2013, p. 5).

Replacing the word *history* with *teaching* in the preceding paragraph creates a good description of the professional growth and classroom practice of educators. Teachers grow in experience, knowledge, and skill over time, sometimes these changes happen quickly, and other times growth is a slow progression. We often ascribe significance to contexts or experiences that result in change, but consistency, in both history and teaching, underlies all change. As a historian, history teacher, and history teacher educator, I was drawn to the overarching theme of continuity and change when thinking about my dissertation. My personal narrative as an educator is replete with continuity and change. As a curriculum gatekeeper and instructional designer, I regularly altered my classroom practices to incorporate new knowledge of content and pedagogy, adapt to new contexts, and integrate instructional technology.

Curriculum provides a foundation for the work of teachers. Before moving forward, it is important to briefly describe three types of curricula relevant to these manuscripts. First, the overt or formal curriculum typically represents a prescribed collection of facts, concepts and processes deemed essential knowledge for students (Ellis, 2013). Ross (2006a) explained that "the formal curriculum is the explicit or official curriculum, embodied in the published courses, state frameworks, textbooks and curriculum standards efforts" (p. 23). Standardized curricula,

like the Virginia Standards of Learning for History and Social Science, are an example of overt or formal curricula. High-stakes tests often accompany standardized curricula. However, formal curricula pass through the hands of teachers before reaching students. Second, curriculum that teachers design is called intended or planned. The aims and goals of the teacher are the intended curriculum (Remillard & Heck, 2014). Third, the enacted curriculum is the content that students interact with in the classroom (Porter et al., 2009). Teachers engage in curriculum enactment when they create instruction that provides students with opportunities to makes connections and process subject matter. Students engage in curriculum enactment through their daily work like formative assessments or activities built around core instructional practices (Ross, 2006b; Ross, et al., 2014). In addition, curriculum enactment often allows both teachers and students to move beyond the curriculum expressed in policy documents.

This dissertation arose from my personal experience with the world history curriculum and my interest in making the work of teachers visible. Simply put, I am interested in what teachers know and how this knowledge influences what they do in the classroom. These topics are deeply personal and biographic because I have spent half my life as either a world history teacher or teacher educator. Additionally, having a deeper understanding of the reasoning behind teacher decisions will make me a more effective teacher educator. As a world history teacher, I made a series of curricular-instructional decisions while planning and then enacting the curriculum. First, I decided what to teach and designed a teacher planned curriculum that incorporated the state standardized curriculum and included any additional content I deemed interesting, relevant, or important. Second, I made decisions about how to teach the curriculum given my knowledge of different areas like world history, the standardized curriculum, contexts like end-of-course testing, high school students, and instructional strategies. My instructional

choices and pedagogical practices were heavily influenced by specific contexts including the pressure to cover the standardized curriculum, end-of-course tests, and the correlation between teacher evaluations and student performance on state assessments.

Although I recognized gaps in the world history curriculum, I did not adequately address underrepresented populations, especially women, in my planned curriculum because I worried about time constraints and the ability to cover the required material. The COVID-19 pandemic created a series of new and shifting contexts for educators. Teacher decisions were shaped by new conditions like the inability to see remote students, and an increased focus on student growth over SOL pass rates.

The theme of continuity and change emerged from my research into how pandemic contexts affected the curricular-instructional decisions and pedagogical practices of world history teachers. However, this theme is also applicable to my research into the representation of women and gender in Virginia's world history curricula. Although these studies are different, both are qualitative analyses that focus on curriculum and instruction in the world history classroom. The first study offers a critical analysis of the world history curriculum, and the second study examines teacher decision-making during a time of shifting educational and environmental contexts. Similarly, both studies address the importance of curricular gatekeeping and teacher knowledge.

The first manuscript explores how discourse in the standardized curriculum reproduces gender stereotypes and marginalizes the contributions of significant women in world history. The study was framed by both critical theory and Carol Bacchi's What's the Problem Represented (WPR) approach to public policy. For this study, I employed content analysis to determine how many women were mentioned in the world history curriculum. Then, I used critical discourse

analysis to examine the language used to describe the contributions of women. Next, I compared the structure of the content, words, and phrases used to describe women with descriptions of male figures from the same period. I also analyzed the Standards and Curriculum Frameworks from 2008 and 2015 to determine change over time. From this research, I found a noticeable gender imbalance in the curriculum. Content was structured to reduce the agency and importance of female historical figures. In some instances, language in the curriculum inflated male contributions and diminished the achievements of women. This study is important because it adds to the existing body of research on the lack of inclusivity within social studies curricula.

The second manuscript is a qualitative case study of pandemic educational contexts and examines how these contexts shaped the curricular-instructional decisions and pedagogical practices of world history teachers. I conducted semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, and collected instructional materials. Through open-coding, I determined themes related to topics like instructional delivery, classroom assessment, and the teacher-student relationship. Findings show that world history teachers responded to shifting educational contexts by changing their instructional delivery, selecting new instructional strategies, modifying existing assignments, and adapting classroom assessment practices. The manuscript concludes with implications for teacher education, in-service teachers, and suggestions for future research. This research is important because it adds to the growing body of literate on classroom instruction during the COVID-19 pandemic.

The overarching theme of continuity and change is applicable to both manuscripts. From 2008 to 2015, there were few changes to the world history curriculum. The changes that did occur failed to expand the historical narrative by including more women or other represented people. For example, India Gandhi was removed from the curriculum and Catherine the Great

was added. Similarly, during the pandemic teachers appeared to find stability in the consistency of the world history curriculum while they adapted and changed practices like instructional delivery and classroom assessment.

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Women and Gender in the Virginia World History Curriculum: What's the Problem?

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the representation of women and gender in Virginia's secondary world history curriculum. Data analysis revealed that the world history curriculum focuses primarily on the achievements of men and marginalizes the contributions of women. In addition, discourse in the curriculum and the structure of the subject matter in the frameworks reveals further gender imbalance.

As a former secondary social studies teacher in Virginia and current teacher educator, I have a vested interest in the curriculum included in the Virginia Standards of Learning for History and Social Science. State standards and curriculum frameworks are the products of political and social power. This type of curriculum represents, as Apple (2004) argued, “what counts as legitimate knowledge” (p. xii). As a classroom teacher, I recognized that white, western men dominated the curriculum, but I did little to address this problem beyond the “add women and stir” approach (Noddings, 2001). Once out the classroom, my experiences as a teacher and my general interest in curriculum, led me to investigate gender imbalance in Virginia’s secondary world history curriculum and address how the resulting historical narrative represents women and gender.

Looking at gender within history curricula is important because it shows that genders are socially constructed (Winslow, 2013). Joan Scott (1986) defined gender as, “a constitutive element of social relationships based on perceived difference between sexes, and gender is a primary way of signifying relationships of power” (p. 1067). This study examines the representation of women and gender in the world history curriculum by analyzing curricular choices and the use of language within the Virginia Standards of Learning (SOLs) and the Curriculum Frameworks. Additionally, this research explores how discourse in the curriculum reproduces gender stereotypes and supports traditional power structures. I analyzed both the 2008 and 2015 Standards of Learning and Curriculum Frameworks to determine if any change to gender representation or the treatment of women within the formal world history curriculum occurred over time.

It is important to critically examine formal curricula because they inform students about which people and events are considered historically significant. As Engebretson (2014) noted,

the marginalization of women in curriculum standards can lead to the perception that "women are not valued as historical actors" (p. 31). What students and teachers learn from the formal curriculum is powerful in shaping our understanding of significance, reproducing values, and informing conceptions of others. Additionally, the representation of women through language shapes our understanding of gender. Taking inspiration from Carol Lee Bacchi (1999, 2012a) and Margaret Crocco (2006), this study seeks to answer the following research questions:

Overarching Question:

1. What is the problem of gender represented to be in Virginia's secondary world history curriculum?

Supporting Questions

1. Which women are included in the policy documents and how gender-balanced is the formal world history curriculum?
2. How are women represented and situated within the world history curriculum?
3. How are the language and discourse around representations of women framed within standards?

Importance of Study

Research exists on the absence of women from both history textbooks and standardized curricula (Chick & Corle, 2016; Clark et al., 2005; Crocco, 2001, 2011, 2018; Engebretson, 2014; Maurer et al., 2017; Schmeichel, 2015; Schmidt, 2012; Winslow, 2013). This research is important because as Engebretson (2014) contended, "students can read the absence of women as an element of the null curriculum that is not relevant or valued in the formal space of school" (p.30). Formal curricula identify what content is considered worth learning. While the exclusion of women from standardized curricula has been documented, this study is important for three

reasons: a)it adds to the existing literature on the representation of women and gender in state standards b)calls attention to issues of gender imbalance, the importance of language, and the reproduction of gender stereotypes in the formal curriculum and c)examines the fastest growing but lesser-researched area of world history (Bain & Harris, 2009; Girard & Harris, 2018; Harris & Bain, 2011).

Review of Literature

The Formal Curriculum as Products of Power

Formal curricula are not benign sets of facts, literature, or formulas (Au, 2012; Fore, 1998; Kincheloe, 2005; Ross, 2006a, 2006b; Sleeter, 2002). Kincheloe (2005) argued that curricula, like the Virginia Standards of Learning, are social and political constructs shaped by institutional and governmental forces. Since the 1980s, the standards-based reform movement resulted in the creation of a conservative curriculum, especially in social studies (Apple, 2004). Apple (2004) argued "the resurgence of conservative positions is an attempt to regain hegemonic power that was threatened by women, people of color and others" (p. xii). Similarly, Leahey (2014) maintained that standardization results in a curriculum of compliance. This type of curriculum, he wrote, compels "students to study and see the world in a limited, even hegemonic way that conceal alternative narratives, evidence and voices that may challenge a traditional rendering of history" (p. 56). Curriculum standards, as political constructs, typically represent the values of those individuals with political control.

Women in the Standardized Curriculum

In general, standardized social studies curricula have been criticized for reducing teacher autonomy and limiting subject matter (Au, 2009; Hess et al., 2002; Journell, 2007; van Hover & Pierce, 2006; Whelan, 2006). Standardization has also reduced the inclusion of marginalized

people in the history curriculum (Journell, 2007; Sleeter & Stillman, 2005; Sincero & Woyshner, 2003; Winslow, 2013). Winslow (2013) concluded that, "women and gender-related topics are underrepresented in the social studies curriculum standards" (p. 325). Standardized curricula often limit women to certain topics or periods. For example, United States history curricula typically highlight the role of women in social reform movements like abolition, temperance, or suffrage (Crocco, 1997; Schafer & Bohan, 2009; Schmidt, 2012; Schmeichel, 2015; Winslow, 2013).

A recent study from the National Women's History Museum, titled "Where are the Women?" (2017), found that women were not well integrated into the curriculum standards for United States history. This research concluded that women were excluded from much of the historical narrative because American history focuses more on political and military history rather than social history (Maurer et al., 2017). Of the fifteen commonly cited women, most were associated with political or social reform movements like abolition and suffrage and only three, Rosa Parks, Norma McCorvey, and Eleanor Roosevelt were active after 1945.

In an examination of the New York's standards, curriculum frameworks, and examinations for global history, Winslow (2013) found, "the curriculum only refers to women who occupied positions of political or military power, like Elizabeth I of England and Catherine the Great of Russia" (p. 326). She also determined that over the last twenty-five years, the Global Regents exam only featured twenty-five women, including Catherine the Great and Mother Teresa. Furthermore, zero to three questions on each exam dealt with women's history (Winslow, 2013). Additionally, Winslow (2013) explained that teachers in New York understand the necessity of teaching the tested material. She concluded that, "in this age of accountability, teachers are constantly pressured to prepare students to perform well on a proven gender

imbalanced examination, which means that the overwhelming majority of teachers must teach a gender imbalanced curriculum" (p. 326). In this case, it is possible to attribute the lack of emphasis on women's history to both curriculum standardization and high-stakes testing.

Methodology

Theoretical Frameworks

The theoretical frameworks used in this study informed the choice of methodologies. Both critical theory and WPR (What's the Problem Represented to be) both use discourse analysis to highlight issues related to gender and power. Additionally, both frameworks allow researchers to address how discourse shapes perspectives and impacts both individuals and society.

Critical Theory

Critical theory provides a framework for examining issues of power, authority, and conflict (Smyth, 2010). Frost and Elichaoff (2014) noted that the "very essence of critical theory is to respond to perceived power relations and resulting subjugations and oppressions of individuals and groups" (p. 54-55). Critical theory offers a way for researchers to identify how women and other marginalized groups are treated as different from the white, western male norm (Frost & Elichaoff, 2014). In the field of education, researchers can analyze curricular policy documents for representation of gender, gender imbalance, and reproduction of gender stereotypes. By calling attention to these problems, critical theorists work to enact change (Smyth, 2010).

What's the Problem Represented to be?

"What's the Problem Represented to be?" (WPR), from Carol Bacchi (1999), provides a tool to critically analyze public policies. Bacchi (2012b) wrote, "the WPR approach rests on a

basic premise—that what we say we want to do about something indicates what we think needs to change and hence how we constitute the “problem” (p. 4). For example, people may want to change government policies they view as the source of problems. “The task in a ‘WPR’ analysis,” Bacchi (2012a) wrote, “is to read policies with an eye to discerning how the ‘problem’ is represented within them and to subject this problem representation to critical scrutiny” (p. 21). She provides a series of six questions, including the overarching question for this study, to guide the analysis. Researchers can use WPR to determine how policy documents represent people, ideas, and issues (Bacchi, 1999). An analysis of representation requires a focus on the discourse or language used in the policy documents (Bacchi, 1999, 2012a; Crocco 2006). For example, researchers can use WPR to examine assumptions and biases within policies like state standardized curricula (Bacchi, 2012a).

The theoretical frameworks of critical theory and WPR directly influenced my choice of methodologies. I employed content analysis and critical discourse analysis to determine how women and gender are represented in the world history curriculum and situated within the resulting historical narrative. Content analysis involves counting words with the purpose of determining how words are used to ascribe meaning (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016; Marshall & Rossman, 2016; Schreier, 2014). Critical discourse analysis or discourse analysis enables the researcher to deconstruct language within a text to illuminate the underlying social inequalities, gender inequalities, and power relations (Frost & Elichaoff, 2014; Mullet, 2018; Wodak, 2001). Since all policy documents reflect the values, beliefs, and assumptions of the policy creators, discourse analysis provides the researcher with a tool for identifying how language shapes both the representation and understanding of a subject (Hoeg &

Bencze, 2017). By deconstructing both the content and language of curricula, researchers can see how discourse has the power to both legitimize and reproduce social inequalities.

Data Collection and Analysis

I began the study with a summative content analysis of the formal curriculum. Virginia's world history curriculum is in two sets of policy documents—the Standards of Learning and the Curriculum Frameworks. The Standards of Learning webpage for History and Social Science maintains that these documents comprise what "teachers are expected to teach, and students are expected to learn" (Virginia Department of Education, 2021). The standards are broad statements that detail required knowledge and skills while the frameworks outline essential understandings, essential knowledge, and essential skills for each broad standard. The frameworks also provide teachers with a detailed list of testable content.

First, I read the 2008 and 2015 SOLs and Curriculum Frameworks for both world history courses and made lists of the specific women and men mentioned in the documents. I then totaled the number of women and men from those lists. Next, I counted how often the curricular materials used the terms *woman* and *women*. Then, I excerpted all the essential knowledge from the frameworks that contained references to specific women or the term *women*.

After completing the counting stage of content analysis, I read the excerpted material from the Curriculum Frameworks and analyzed the language used to describe the historical contributions of women. I identified language that reinforced gender stereotypes while describing women. I also compared the language used to describe historical contributions of women with the language used to describe the contributions of men mentioned in the same standard. Additionally, I compared how the essential knowledge organized content for both men and women. Three main categories emerged while coding the excerpts: gender imbalance in the curriculum, unequal

representation and inequitable organization of content, and the use of language to reproduce gender stereotypes.

Findings

Virginia divides the world history curriculum from prehistory to the present into two different courses: World History and Geography to 1500 (World History I) and World History and Geography 1500 to the Present (World History II). World History I begins with prehistory and culminates with the Renaissance. World History II moves chronologically through major periods in western world history, beginning with the Renaissance and concluding with the dissolution of colonial empires. Virginia created the newest version of the world history curriculum in 2015. The purpose of each course, as described in the 2015 standards, is to emphasize content knowledge like names, places, and dates. In addition, World History II focuses on the evolution of nations, economic conditions, and social and political change. The World History II standards state an emphasis on noteworthy people and their connections to contemporary issues.

Gender Imbalance in the World History Curriculum

World History I

There were no individual women mentioned in either the 2008 or 2015 standards for World History I (see Table 1). Additionally, the standards did not use the terms *woman* or *women*. In the 2008 and 2015 Curriculum Frameworks, the number of men drastically outnumbered the women. In 2008, there were 55 men mentioned in the framework and the number increased to 56 in 2015 (see Table 1). In both versions of the Curriculum Framework for World History I there were only two specific women named—Joan of Arc and Isabella of Spain.

Table 1

Appearance of Men, Women and the Terms Women or Woman

Policy Document	Number of Men	Number of Women	Instances of the term *woman* or *women* and standard
World History I 2008 Standards	13	0	0
World History I 2015 Standards	12	0	0
World History I 2008 Curriculum Framework	55	2	2 WHI. 5c WHI.6 c
World History I 2015 Curriculum Framework	56	2	3 WHI. 5 b WHI. 5c WHI. 6c
World History II 2008 Standards	30	4	1 WHI II.9
World History II 2015 Standards	31	3	1 WH II.8b
World History II 2008 Curriculum Framework	87	5	7 WHII.9c
World History II 2015 Curriculum Framework	84	5	6 WHII. 8b WHII.8c

*Note***:** I did not include Greco-Roman deities in the tallies of women and men in the curriculum.

World History II

The SOLs and Curriculum Frameworks for World History II contain more references to individual women than World History I. The 2008 standards mentioned four women, but the number dropped to three in 2015 (see Table 1). By comparison, the number of men in the standards increased by one. In both the 2008 and 2015 Curriculum Frameworks, the total number of women remained at five. While the number of men in the World History II curriculum

decreased between 2008 and 2015, men in the essential knowledge portion of the framework still outnumbered women 84 to five in 2015 (see Table 1). Additionally, the World History II course claims to focus on noteworthy people of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. However, only two women referenced in the 2015 curriculum, Margaret Thatcher, and Golda Meir, were from the last two hundred years.

Both Courses

In both courses, only 5% of the noteworthy people in the essential knowledge are women, and only World History II included standards that name specific women. The entirety of Virginia's formal world history curriculum included seven women. By contrast, the 2015 curriculum cited 140 men. The seven named women are all connected with political and military history. Additionally, all the named women, except Joan of Arc, governed nations or empires as queen, empress, or prime minister.

The collective term *women* is sparsely used across the formal curricula for both courses and the term *woman* is not used at all (see Table 1). The word *women* was limited to three content areas in the overall world history curriculum: ancient Greece, ancient Rome, and the Industrial Revolution. Additionally, in the 2008 World History II framework, all uses of the term *women* were located on a single page.

Representation of Women in the Historical Narrative

World History I

The women mentioned in the World History I curriculum did not change from 2008 to 2015. Both frameworks only mention Joan of Arc and Isabella of Spain. The essential knowledge presents the contribution of Joan of Arc to both French history and the Hundred Years' War with one statement, "Joan of Arc was a unifying force" (Virginia Department of Education, 2008;

Virginia Department of Education, 2016). By contrast, the curriculum identified male figures from the medieval period, like William the Conqueror, King John, and Ivan the Great with specific contributions in the essential knowledge. For example, the bulleted facts on William the Conqueror specifically identify him as “leader of the Norman conquest” who “united most of England” (Virginia Department of Education, 2016). The essential knowledge also mentioned Isabella of Spain, but linked her name and achievements with her husband, Ferdinand.

The term women is only used in the Curriculum Framework for World History I to describe women’s exclusion from the political process in the classical world. For ancient Greece, the essential understanding states that “men, women and slaves all had clearly defined roles in Greek society” (Virginia Department of Education, 2016, p. 26). The essential knowledge for standard WHI.5c requires that students know that “women and foreigners had no political rights” in the Greek polis (Virginia Department of Education, 2016). Similarly, the essential understandings in WHI.6c states, “although women, most aliens (non-Romans living in the Republic), and slaves were excluded from the governing process, the Roman Republic made major strides in the development of representative democracy, which became a model for the modern world” (Virginia Department of Education, 2016, p. 32). The curriculum aligns the status of women with that of foreigners and enslaved people. The curriculum does not provide information about other roles women had in classical society.

World History II

The 2008 World History II standards include four women: Elizabeth I, Margaret Thatcher, Indira Gandhi, and Golda Meir. All women included in the World History II curriculum were political leaders. Between 2008 and 2015, the number of women in the World History II standards decreased by one because Indira Gandhi was removed from the curriculum.

However, the addition of Catherine the Great to the framework kept the total number the same. Another woman featured in both versions of the Curriculum Frameworks is Mary II. However, like Isabella from World History I, the curriculum only mentioned Mary II in connection with her husband, William. Similarly, the curriculum referenced Catherine the Great in connection with Peter in Great. Unlike the content on Elizabeth I, Margaret Thatcher, and Golda Meir, Catherine's name is not a section heading followed by bullet points noting her historical achievement. Her contributions are listed in the third bullet point below Peter the Great and expressed as an extension of his earlier achievements (see Figure 1). This pattern of organization gives preferential treatment to male historical figures and reinforces a male-dominated historical narrative.

Figure 1

Screenshot of Essential Knowledge on Catherine the Great

Peter the Great: "Westernization" of Russia
- Peter the Great "westernized" the Russian state and society, transforming political, religious, and cultural institutions.
- Examples of "westernization" included western dress/appearance, moving the capital to St. Petersburg, and modernization of the military and industry.
- Catherine the Great continued the process of "westernization."

The World History II curriculum mentioned women as a group in one content area—the Industrial Revolution. The essential knowledge for standard WHII.9c contains all the uses of the term women in the entire Curriculum Framework for 2008. In addition, the term suffrage is used once in the same topic area in both 2008 and 2015. The essential knowledge acknowledges "women's increased demands for suffrage" as a social effect of the Industrial Revolution (Virginia Department of Education, 2008, 2016). However, the curriculum does not specifically address the suffrage movements of the United States or Great Britain.

Language in the Standards

The wording of the essential knowledge changed between 2008 and 2015 for one woman, Elizabeth I. The 2008 and 2015 standards on the Reformation state that students will demonstrate knowledge of the views and actions of four figures: Martin Luther, John Calvin, Henry VIII, and Elizabeth I (Virginia Department of Education, 2008, 2016). The 2008 framework listed the terms, views, and actions with the bullet points for each of the men. These terms were noticeably absent from the content about Elizabeth I (see Figure 2).

Figure 2

Screenshot of Essential Knowledge on Elizabeth I

STANDARD WHII.3a

The student will demonstrate knowledge of the Reformation in terms of its impact on Western civilization by
a) explaining the effects of the theological, political, and economic differences that emerged, including the views and actions of Martin Luther, John Calvin, Henry VIII, and Elizabeth I.

Essential Understandings	Essential Questions	Essential Knowledge	Essential Skills
For centuries, the Roman Catholic Church had little competition in religious thought and action. The resistance of the Church to change led to the Protestant Reformation, which resulted in the birth of new political and economic institutions.	What were the problems and issues that provoked religious reforms in Western Christianity? What were the beliefs of Martin Luther, John Calvin, Henry VIII, and Elizabeth I?	**Conflicts that challenged the authority of the Church in Rome** • Merchant wealth challenged the Church's view of usury. • German and English nobility disliked Italian domination of the Church. • The Church's great political power and wealth caused conflict. • Church corruption and the sale of indulgences were widespread and caused conflict. **Martin Luther (the Lutheran tradition)** • Views: Salvation by faith alone, Bible as the ultimate authority, all humans equal before God • Actions: 95 theses, birth of the Protestant Church **John Calvin (the Calvinist tradition)** • Views: Predestination, faith revealed by living a righteous life, work ethic • Actions: Expansion of the Protestant Movement **King Henry VIII** • Views: Dismissed the authority of the Pope in Rome • Actions: Divorced; broke with Rome; headed the national church in England; appropriated lands and wealth of the Roman Catholic Church in England **Queen Elizabeth I** • Anglican Church • Tolerance for dissenters • Expansion and colonialism • Victory over the Spanish Armada (1588)	Identify, analyze, and interpret primary and secondary sources to make generalizations about events and life in world history. (WHII.1a) Use maps, globes, artifacts, and pictures to analyze the physical and cultural landscapes of the world and to interpret the past. (WHII.1b) Analyze trends in human migration and cultural interaction. (WHII.1e)

However, the 2015 version of the Curriculum Framework rectified this difference. Additionally, the World History II Curriculum Framework primarily used the words *close*, *close relationship* and *support* when describing the contributions of women within the political sphere.

Discussion

The first version of the world history standards from 1995 did not cite any historical women by name and over the last 25 years Virginia has made minimal efforts to address gender imbalance in the curriculum. It is disheartening that government authorities and curriculum committees only consider seven women, from prehistory to the present, significant enough to include in the formal curriculum. This investigation generated several conclusions about the representation of women and gender in the world history curriculum. First, the results of this study support the findings of previous research regarding the lack of inclusivity within social studies curricula. Second, the findings show how curricular choices marginalize women within the historical narrative. Third, the Virginia world history curriculum illustrates how the use of gendered language, and the organization of subject matter can reproduce gender stereotypes. The stereotypical treatment of women in the curriculum and efforts to negate the achievements of women in the political sphere partially answer the question, "What is the problem of gender represented to be in Virginia's world history curriculum?" However, the most concerning problem regarding gender in the curriculum seems to be the overall failure to acknowledge that a problem of representation exists.

Gender Imbalance and the Representation of Women in the Narrative

This study found a noticeable gender imbalance in the world history curriculum. Furthermore, all the individual women in the curriculum made contributions to the political sphere of history. These choices reflect the influence of "great man" history, often attributed to

Thomas Carlyle, on the curriculum (Crocco, 1997; Shafer & Bohan, 2009). This overall focus on the political sphere, in both standardized curricula and textbooks, impacts the choice of women included in the historical narrative and limits the perspectives presented in the world history classroom (Engebretson, 2014; Schafer & Bohan, 2009; Schmidt, 2012; Woyshner, 2006).

The world history curriculum specifically named the following women: Joan of Arc, Isabella of Spain, Elizabeth I, Mary II, Catherine the Great (2015), Indira Gandhi (2008), Margaret Thatcher and Golda Meir. For unspecified reasons, creators deemed these seven women significant enough to include in Virginia's world history curriculum. Standards tend to focus on political, economic, and military history, thus creating a barrier to the inclusion of women (Levstik & Barton, 2011; Engebretson, 2014; Winslow, 2013). By failing to prioritize the cultural and social aspects of world history, women are unlikely to achieve equal mention in the curriculum standards.

Women are also unlikely to achieve balanced representation in history curricula when they are pigeon-holed into limited subject areas. The World History II curriculum only mentioned women as a collective group in conjunction with the Industrial Revolution. Standard 9c requires that students demonstrate knowledge of the Industrial Revolution and its effects, "on families, the status of women and children, the slave trade, and the labor union movement" (Virginia Department of Education, 2008). The use of the term *families* followed directly by the words women and children only serves to reinforce traditional gender roles. In addition, the brief mention of women's suffrage in this standard leads to the interpretation that the political rights of women are not as important compared to other topics. Unlike other studies of history curricula that found an over emphasis on suffrage, Virginia's world history curriculum minimizes the importance of women's suffrage (Woyshner, 2002). The curriculum neglects the contributions of

women like British suffragist Emmeline Pankhurst and once again fails to capitalize on an opportunity to make the standards more gender-balanced.

Language and the Reproduction of Gender Stereotypes

One of the most noticeable slights to women in the curriculum involves the use of language within the essential knowledge on the Reformation. The 2008 essential knowledge included the terms “views and actions” with the bullet points for each man, but not Elizabeth I. The bulleted facts about Elizabeth I reference the “victory over the Spanish Armada” which would certainly qualify as an action (Virginia Department of Education, 2008). However, her agency was removed from the essential knowledge portion of the curriculum. By contrast, the curriculum gives male figures control over their actions and beliefs. For example, the essential knowledge states that Henry VIII, “broke with Rome,” making the action appear like an individual act of defiance (Virginia Department of Education, 2008, p. 7). However, the break from the Catholic Church was dependent on the Acts of Supremacy, passed by Parliament, to formalize the separation. In this instance, the curriculum inflates individual male achievements and denies women control over their actions. The unequal representation of views and actions serves to reproduce traditional gender roles and support a patriarchal power structure.

The 2015 framework revised the wording of Elizabeth’s contributions to match the structure of her male counterparts. While this sounds like a crucial step in reducing gender inequality, a problem remains. At the time of this study, Virginia did not require world history teachers to use the 2015 curriculum. Superintendent’s Memo #067-19 (2019) stated that world history courses will continue to use the 2008 standards. Despite revising the curriculum to make Elizabeth’s contributions align with her male peers, world history teachers may not utilize the revised framework when making instructional decisions. The 2015 curriculum restored

Elizabeth's agency by revising the wording in the essential knowledge. However, the framework created a similar problem with the content on Catherine the Great. Despite being empress of Russia, Catherine appears under the heading "Peter the Great: Westernization of Russia." Catherine the Great's only noteworthy contribution to history, as recorded in the curriculum, is subsumed under the larger achievements of a man.

Language within the curriculum also affects the representations of Indira Gandhi, Margaret Thatcher, and Golda Meir. The 2008 World History II standards expect students to demonstrate knowledge of the Cold War era by learning about the contributions of Indira Gandhi, Margaret Thatcher, Mikhail Gorbachev, and Deng Xiaoping (Virginia Department of Education, 2008). In the essential knowledge, Indira Gandhi and Margaret Thatcher are both credited with developing "close or closer relationships" with another nation. In this instance, the political achievements of Indira Gandhi and Margaret Thatcher have been feminized by specific language. The words close and closer imply intimacy, which is stereotypically a female quality. The curriculum filters the importance of these powerful women through a feminized lens and reproduces this representation for high school students. Historically speaking, Gorbachev developed closer relationships with both the United States and the United Kingdom, but the standards do not include this parallel wording.

The language of the framework also establishes a power imbalance between Thatcher and Gandhi. The essential knowledge identifies Margaret Thatcher as British prime minister. However, the curriculum does not mention Indira Gandhi's political position. This is highly suspect because Indira Gandhi was the first and only female prime minister of India. This information seems pertinent since the standard is about the contributions of world leaders. A similar discrepancy exists between Mikhail Gorbachev and Deng Xiaoping. Gorbachev and

Thatcher are both white Europeans, where Gandhi and Xiaoping are Asian. The language of the curriculum framework legitimatizes the political authority of white, Europeans, whether male or female, over that of non-European, people of color. The removal of Indira Gandhi from the 2015 curriculum further suggests a marginalization of people of color.

The final woman in the World History II curriculum is Golda Meir. Students are required to know the roles of both Gamal Nasser and Golda Meir in creating states in the Middle East. The content for Golda Meir states, "after initial setbacks" she led her nation to victory in the Yom Kippur War (Virginia Department of Education, 2008, p. 50). The essential knowledge does not specify the setbacks. Most teachers would not be experts on the Middle East or be likely to research Meir's history of leadership to clarify the point. This phrase seems unnecessary given the standard. The formal curriculum calls her political ability into question and therefore challenges her leadership ability, even in the face of a military victory.

Additionally, the framework mentions that Meir needed support from the United States to achieve her political and military goals (Virginia Department of Education, 2008, p. 50). The phrasing "sought support" infers weakness. While the content about Meir is accurate, the curriculum does not include similar facts about Gamal Nasser. The bulleted content under Gamal Nasser gives him credit for building the Aswan High Dam. However, Soviet engineers worked on the project. The bulleted content does not address this historical reality. Nasser has complete autonomy over his achievements while Meir's accomplishments are negated by comparison.

What is the Problem of Gender Represented to Be?

The larger problem of gender in the curriculum seems to be the failure to acknowledge a problem even exists. Aside from correcting the wording in the Reformation standard, educational authorities neglected to make the 2015 curriculum any more inclusive than the previous policy

documents. In fact, the opposite seems to have occurred since Indira Gandhi, a woman of color, was removed from the curriculum. Any efforts to address gender imbalance are by default left up to classroom teachers. This is problematic because teachers do not always recognize where there are omissions and may not have the content knowledge necessary to feel comfortable addressing the lack of women in the historical narrative (Winslow, 2013; Woyshner, 2002). For the problem of gender representation to be addressed in the world history curriculum, the Virginia Department of Education must make a concerted effort to include women in the historical narrative.

The findings of this study also suggest that the language and discourse of the world history curriculum negates the political achievements of individual women and focuses on women as a group without political power. Furthermore, the lack of focus on international suffrage movements and women's rights campaigns fails to tell students a balanced story. The language used to delegitimize the achievements of women like Golda Meir, Catherine the Great, and Elizabeth I highlights how discourse can subtly shape perspectives. Ruth Wodak (2001) asserted, "power does not derive from language, but language can be used to challenge power, to subvert it, to alter distributions of power in the short and long term" (p. 11). However, the language used to describe the role of women in world history curriculum reproduces common gender stereotypes. The world history curriculum represents the problem of gender as an issue that can be controlled using discourse. If the depiction of women in world history is to change, government agencies, like the Virginia Department of Education, must do a more effective job of compiling both standards and frameworks that contain fewer instances of gender inequality.

Suggestions for the Future

It is unlikely that a standardized curriculum will ever present a gender-balanced depiction of world history. However, classroom teachers can expand the historical narrative given both knowledge and opportunity. First, pre-service teachers could take women's history courses as part of program requirements. Second, Virginia could offer women's history courses like the new African American history course to secondary students. Third, schools could provide professional development on how to incorporate women and other marginalized groups into the curriculum. Finally, as Virginia moves away from standardized testing in classes like U.S. History and World History II, schools can create project-based assessments that utilize multiple perspectives and bring marginalized groups into the historical narrative.

Conclusion

All teachers need to consider how the treatment of women and other marginalized people within the historical narrative affects student perceptions about world history. Researchers must continue to call attention to the lack of inclusiveness in the standardized curricula for change to ever occur. If gender inequality in policy documents is left unchallenged, teachers will reproduce this knowledge and reinforce traditional gender stereotypes. If teachers present only the essential knowledge found in the World History Curriculum Frameworks, they deprive students of a wider historical understanding. Schafer and Bohan (2009) contended "when history is not gender balanced, both women and men will continue to perpetuate the patriarchal system that places women at a disadvantage in society, and gender equality will never exist" (p. 294). A version of the past that minimizes the contributions of women does all students a disservice.

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Continuity and Change in Uncertain Times: How World History Teachers Responded to Pandemic Educational Contexts

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ABSTRACT

This qualitative case study examines how pandemic educational contexts shaped the curricular-instructional decisions and pedagogical practices of four world history teachers. Data collection included classroom observations, participant interviews, and the analysis of instructional materials. The study found that teachers responded to the shifting contexts by maintaining the continuity of the curriculum and changing instructional approaches, classroom assessment methods, and building relationships with remote students through digital means.

Continuity and change are "interwoven," Seixas and Morton (2013) wrote, "both can exist together" (p. 10). Nowhere is this sentiment clearer than the instructional responses of world history teachers to the educational contexts created by the COVID-19 pandemic. Seixas and Morton (2013) offered the following definitions: change is "an alteration" whereas continuity means "staying the same" (p. 77). Changes can be gradual, revolutionary, or reactionary, and continuities underlie change (Seixas & Morton, 2013). Although Seixas and Morton (2013) described these concepts in terms of history and historical thinking, continuity and change can be used to frame the curricular-instructional decisions of world history teachers.

The educational contexts created by the pandemic prompted educators to make alternations in their instruction and adapt existing practices to the modalities of remote instruction. Teachers also retained routines, strategies, and content to maintain consistency during a period of global uncertainty. Additionally, the cohesiveness of the content became especially important given the disruption in context. World history teachers in this study exemplify how educators negotiated between change and staying the same amid shifting environmental and educational contexts.

Two years ago, in March 2020, the World Health Organization (WHO) announced a global pandemic leading to a near-total closure of schools across the United States (Hamilton & Ercikan, 2022; Marshall et al., 2020; van Hover et al., 2022). *Education Week* reported that school closures affected 55.1 million students in 124,000 public schools. Most states required that schools remain closed for in-person learning for the remainder of the 2019-2020 school year (*Education Week*, 2020). Across the United States, school systems pivoted to remote instruction which varied greatly depending on state and local policy (Hamilton & Ercikan, 2022). Some

form of remote instruction continued for many students and teachers as schools reopened in fall 2020.

The educational shifts that occurred in response to the global pandemic highlighted political division, social and economic inequalities, and the necessity of web-based instructional technology within America's public schools (Clark, 2022; Hamilton & Ercikan, 2022; Marshall et al., 2020). Although many felt unprepared for the instructional shifts required for remote teaching, educators worked to create effective instruction and maintain classroom community despite the contexts of pandemic schooling. Teachers adapted to the modalities of remote instruction and found ways to meet the needs of their students.

Initially, I wanted to study the teacher-curriculum relationship and examine the impact of teacher knowledge on instructional planning and curriculum enactment. However, COVID-19 required that I reframe my study within the shifting contexts of the global pandemic. Therefore, the purpose of this study became to understand how the educational contexts created by the COVID-19 pandemic affected the curricular-instructional decisions of secondary world history teachers. Additionally, this study sought to determine how knowledge of content, context, pedagogy, and students influenced curricular-instructional decisions. I asked the following research question: How did the pandemic shape the curricular-instructional decisions and pedagogical practices of world history teachers? This primary question required that I explore (1) the dynamic educational and environmental contexts that teachers had to negotiate during this time; and (2) how the shifting contexts shaped teacher decision-making and pedagogical practices in terms of daily routines, instructional delivery, strategies, and classroom assessment within the standards-based setting of their world history classroom.

This research is important because it focuses on the experiences and instructional decisions of world history teachers during a period of global uncertainty. First, this study will add to the emerging body of literature on how teachers responded both instructionally and professionally to the contexts created by COVID-19. Second, this study focuses on teaching and learning in world history an area where Girard and Harris (2018) noted a "dearth of empirical research" (p. 272). Third, this study will add to the literature on classroom assessment in social studies and history education. Black and Wiliam (1998b) argued, "learning is driven by what teachers and pupils do in the classroom" (p.139). Therefore, research into classroom assessment practices is crucial. However, a lack of research has been noted on classroom-based assessment in social studies when compared to other disciplines (Grant, 2017; Torrez & Claunch-Lebsack 2014). Torrez & Claunch-Lebsack (2014) maintained that the "use of constructive classroom assessment is not being adequately investigated by social studies scholars and educators (p. 567). Overall, this research seeks to make the curricular-instructional decisions of world history teachers visible.

I want to begin by providing more background on the larger pandemic narrative that framed this research. Following the background on COVID-19 there is a literature review which also introduces the conceptual frameworks of curricular-instructional gatekeeping, pedagogical content knowledge/knowing, and core instructional practices for social studies education. From there I explain the methodology of this study and detail significant findings. The manuscript concludes with a discussion of the findings and discusses the implications that this study has for future research and practice.

Background: COVID-19

I want to begin my providing more background on the larger pandemic narrative that framed this research. The first reports of the virus, now known as SARS-CoV2 or COVID-19, emerged from Wuhan, China at the end of 2019 (Hamilton & Ercikan, 2022; Mas, 2022). After the World Health Organization announced a global pandemic, Michigan became the first state to close public schools on March 12, 2020 (Marshall et al., 2020). Virginia's Governor Ralph Northam announced a two-week closure of schools the following day. On March 23, 2020, Virginia public schools closed to in-person instruction for the remainder of the year (VDOE, 2020a). Virginia, like many states, worked to continue learning through remote instruction. During remote instruction, learning activities occur outside of the traditional classroom (VDOE, 2022). During the shutdown, schools transitioned to emergency remote instruction which differs from planned, online instruction (Hodges & Fowler, 2020; Marshall et al., 2020). Schools shut down quickly and both teachers and students had little time to prepare and adapt to the changing contexts (Hamilton & Ercikan, 2022; Hodges & Fowler 2020; Marshall et al., 2020). Marshall et al. (2020) maintained, "the extraordinary circumstances teachers faced in light of the pandemic prevented them — and their students — from making a normal transition to remote education" (p. 47). Additionally, remote instruction varied greatly across school divisions because state and local authorities, not the federal government, made these policy decisions (Dusseault et al., 2020; Hamilton & Ercikan, 2022; Hamilton et al., 2020).

A study from the Center for Reinventing Public Education (CRPE) found wide variation in how states defined and carried out remote instruction during the spring of 2020 (Dusseault et al., 2020). For example, state education authorities in Alabama provided school districts with a checklist of possible remote learning suggestions. By contrast, Delaware required that school

districts submit detailed plans for remote instruction (Dusseault et al., 2020; Hamilton & Ercikan, 2022). The variety of remote options included synchronous online instruction, mailing materials home, and offering homework packets for pick-up at school (Hamilton & Ercikan, 2022). This spectrum of remote options impacted how teachers were able to design and carry out instruction and interact with their students.

In an attachment to Superintendent's Memo #077-20 dated March 23, 2020, Virginia school districts were advised, "options for supporting and delivering instruction may include but are not limited to: online instruction, virtual courses, instruction during summer school, TV-based instruction, packet delivery, or providing Internet hotspots to students or to the community through Internet providers" (Lane, 2020). The Virginia Department of Education instructed school divisions to make decisions that provided equitable access to learning and supported the needs of diverse student populations (Lane, 2020).

The early phase of the pandemic highlighted not only the importance of educational technology, but also a lack of training in remote teaching. Studies show that before the transition to emergency remote instruction, roughly 92 % of P-12 educators in the United States had never taught online (Marshall et al., 2020; Gudmundsdottir & Hathaway, 2020). Although teachers were not prepared to teach in online environments, Gudmundsdottir and Hathaway (2020) found that teachers were moderately prepared to use digital tools like Google Classroom, websites, web-based resources, and electronic textbooks.

Teachers acknowledged that remote instruction, in whatever form, made all aspects of teaching more challenging (Marshall et al., 2020). Marshall et al. (2020) explained that during the first phase of the pandemic teachers found it challenging to provide "quality instruction with an appropriate amount of rigor" (p. 48). Teachers also found it difficult to hold students

accountable given state and local policy decisions (Marshall et al., 2020). On a positive note, Gudmundsdottir & Hathaway (2020) found that once teachers developed foundational knowledge of online teaching, they displayed resourcefulness and creativity moving forward in their curricular-instructional decisions.

The shutdown resulted in learning loss for students and elucidated systematic inequalities within public schools. The closure of schools beginning in March 2020 reduced the typical school year by two to three months. Only 12% of teachers surveyed in spring 2020 reported being able to cover all their curriculum (Hamilton & Ercikan, 2022). This inability to cover curriculum suggested the "potential for widespread gaps in student knowledge and skill development" (Hamilton & Ercikan, 2022, p. 333). When students returned in the fall, teachers confirmed these predictions and noted not only learning loss, but also a decline in both motivation and accountability (Diliberti & Kaufman, 2020; Marshall et al., 2020; Hamilton & Ercikan, 2022). 66% of percent of teachers surveyed in fall 2020 reported that most of their students were less prepared for grade-level work (Diliberti & Kaufman, 2020).

The pandemic and shift to remote learning underscored social and economic inequalities among students and school divisions. The lack of access to both reliable internet and individual student devices quickly became apparent during the first phase of the pandemic (Hamilton & Ercikan, 2022; Marshall et al., 2020). Before the pandemic, BroadbandNOW reported that over 42 million Americans did not have access to fixed high-speed internet (Hamilton & Ercikan, 2022; McCarthy, 2020). While the numbers were highest in Texas and California, research found that 1.41 million Virginians also lacked fixed broadband internet (McCarthy, 2020). Marshall et al. (2020) found that over half of surveyed teachers indicated that "at least one-fourth of their students lacked access to broadband internet outside of school" (p. 49). Additionally,

students often had to compete with siblings or even parents for internet access (Marshall et al., 2020). Schools in less affluent areas, both rural and urban, were less likely to have one-to-one device initiatives (Hamilton & Ercikan, 2022). During the shutdown, some schools were able to continue with synchronous remote instruction, but schools with lower rates of online instruction were typically in lower socioeconomic areas (Hamilton & Ercikan, 2022). The first phase of the pandemic required that teachers and students make an unprecedented shift to emergency remote instruction. The contexts of remote instruction stabilized as schools reopened in the fall, but challenges remained.

Fall 2020: Schools Reopen

As schools reopened in the fall, teachers and students found themselves immersed in a variety of learning environments including asynchronous, synchronous remote, and hybrid. Remote learning can be synchronous or asynchronous. As defined by the VDOE, synchronous learning is "a learning modality in which the participants of the learning process (students and teachers) interact at the same time and in the same space" (VDOE, 2022). However, synchronous remote instruction occurs when some students are in-person and others are outside of the traditional classroom. Asynchronous learning occurs when students access instruction at different times and work through materials on their own. The terms hybrid or blended describe an instructional modality where students are learning in a combination of virtual and in-person environments (VDOE, 2022). In fall 2020, 47% of principals who participated in a RAND survey reported using some type of hybrid instruction, and another 33% noted that their schools were fully remote (Diliberti & Kaufman, 2020).

Problems that began during the shutdown continued to plague teachers, students, and school divisions. A survey of education personnel in fall 2020, found that teachers were unable

to contact or engage with 20% of their remote students (Diliberti & Kaufman, 2020). Teachers also noticed a drop in student engagement and accountability (Diliberti & Kaufman, 2020; Marshall et al., 2020). Teachers continued to report a lack training on digital pedagogy, and a lack of guidance on how to support students with disabilities and English-Language learners in the remote environment (Diliberti & Kaufman, 2020; Hamilton & Ercikan, 2022). Teachers experienced increased stress levels, an increased workload, and a decline in morale (Audrian et al., 2022, Pressley, 2021). Audrian et al. (2022) maintained that the ambiguity of instructional environments and unfamiliarity with online instruction caused stress for teachers. Additionally, while some districts offered professional development on synchronous and asynchronous instruction, many teachers engaged in individual research and collaborated with colleagues to grow their pedagogical knowledge of remote teaching (Audrian et al., 2022; Marshall et al., 2020).

Research found that in-person instruction remained less common in high poverty areas and with minority students when schools reopened (Diliberti & Kaufman, 2020). Even though access to fixed internet and one-to-one devices improved following the spring shutdown, Hamilton & Ercikan (2022) noted that “many students still lacked access to a device that they could use consistently or to reliable internet” (p. 337). While much research on pandemic teaching and learning detailed the negative effects of remote instruction, some students thrived in asynchronous and synchronous remote classes because the online environment offered more flexibility and fewer distractions (Hamilton & Ercikan, 2022).

Virginia’s Reopening Plan

Virginia created several task forces of superintendents, administrators, teachers, and other instructional leaders to draft a comprehensive plan for the reopening of schools. *Recover,*

Redesign and Restart 2020, available on the Virginia Department of Education website, addressed the phases of reopening, answered key questions, provided guidelines for state assessments, and included links to resources (VDOE, 2020b). The document noted that pandemic conditions worsened economic and social inequalities and stressed that educators and school districts be mindful of vulnerable student populations when developing policies and crafting instruction.

The plan also recommended instructional strategies for remote, hybrid, and face-to-face classrooms. The state maintained that teachers should make instructional decisions that best aligned with both their comfort levels and the needs of their students (VDOE, 2020b). In the remote or hybrid classroom, teachers were encouraged to prioritize social and emotional needs. The plan suggested that teachers design instruction to address the needs of diverse learners, identify and teach essential knowledge, and chose strategies that effectively utilize instructional technology (VDOE, 2020b). Additionally, the plan also promoted the use of student-centered practices like inquiry-based leaning and project-based assessments.

Review of Literature and Conceptual Frameworks

The background on teaching and learning during the COVID-19 pandemic detailed the larger situational context of this study. However, since my research focused on the curricular-instructional decisions of secondary world history teachers, it was necessary to address four strands of interconnected literature. This literature also provides the conceptual frameworks for this study. First, I included a brief examination of literature on teaching history because this study was situated in world history classrooms. Second, teachers make a myriad of decisions as they plan instruction and engage in teaching. For this reason, literature on curricular-instructional gatekeeping was also relevant to this study. Third, the decisions educators make are influenced

by what teachers know. Therefore, I included a survey of literature on teacher knowledge specifically content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, and pedagogical content knowing. Fourth, a summary of literature on the core instructional practices of social studies is also provided because instructional practices are part of pedagogical content knowledge.

History and Social Studies Education

There is considerable disagreement on the who, what, why, and how of social studies education (Wineburg, 2001; Beck & Eno, 2012). The how or the pedagogical approaches to history education are most salient for the context of this study. Beck and Eno (2012) described two signature pedagogies of social studies instruction: mainstream and emerging. Lecture-based direct instruction rests at the core of mainstream pedagogy, and the transmission model dominates history classroom (Beck & Eno, 2012; Grant, 2018). Direct instruction allows teachers to cover large quantities of information. History teachers often rely on lecture-based direct instruction to cover expansive standardized curricula and prepare students for an end-of-course test (Beck & Eno, 2012; Journell, 2007; van Hover et al., 2007; van Hover & Yeager, 2007). In a study of Virginia teachers, van Hover et al. (2007) found that "the SOL test appeared to exert a pervasive and tacit influence on how teachers decided to teach" (p. 109). The pressures of time and accountability, often influence teachers to choose direct instruction over other approaches to teaching and learning (Beck & Eno, 2012; Kelly et al., 2007; van Hover et al., 2010).

By contrast, emerging pedagogy is student-centered and often features inquiry-based learning (Beck & Eno, 2012). Grant (2018) explained that although inquiry is a popular term across the research on teaching social studies, there is no single, agreed upon definition or approach to inquiry. Inquiry typically provides students with opportunities to "do history."

Students engage in inquiry when they evaluate historical sources, ask, or answer historical questions, and create evidence-based historical arguments (Beck & Eno, 2012; Grant et al., 2017; Grant, 2018,). Additionally, inquiry-based learning is often linked with authentic history teaching, authentic historical thinking, and authentic intellectual work (Grant & Gradwell, 2009; Grant et al., 2017; King et al., 2009, Swan et al., 2018; Warren, 2007; Wineburg, 2001).

In 2013, the National Council for the Social Studies introduced the *College, Career, and Civic Life Framework for Social Studies State Standards* otherwise known as the *C3 Framework*. The framework included an inquiry-arc built around questions, disciplinary tools, historical sources, and the communication of conclusions (Grant, 2018; NCSS, 2013). The Inquiry Design Model (IDM), developed by S.G. Grant, Kathy Swan, and John Lee emerged as a powerful approach for implementing the framework. Dague (2020) argued that the IDM provides "students with opportunities to authentically engage in social studies with intellectual, student-centered activities" (p. 66). IDMs are constructed around a compelling question, provide students opportunities to identify historical evidence through a series of formative performance tasks, and conclude with the creation of an evidence-based argument (Grant et al., 2017; Grant, 2018). The IDM moves away from traditional methods of social studies instruction and provides an instructional sequence that aligns with research on ambitious teaching (Grant, 2018).

The presence and prominence of social studies within elementary and secondary schools has declined over the last two decades (Grant, 2018). The combined pressures of No Child Left Behind, the structure of the Common Core, and the elimination of social studies end-of-course tests negatively impacted history education across grade levels (Grant, 2018). However, despite this overall decline, Harris and Bain (2010) noted that world history is the fastest growing subject within secondary social studies. According to Bain and Shreiner (2005) "growth in world

history education suggests a consensus that the students in the United States need to learn more about the world and its past" (p. 244). World history courses often prioritize western civilization, but some, like the Advanced Placement World History course, offer a more global approach (Bain & Shreiner, 2005; Marino & Bolgatz, 2010; Marino, 2011).

World history courses may be growing in importance, but Girard and Harris (2018) noted two major challenges when teaching the subject. First, novice teachers are often unprepared to teach world history because they lack content knowledge (Girard & Harris, 2018). The authors argued that university history courses and the requirements of teacher education programs, do "not necessarily prepare students to think on a global scale or to approach world history in a way that is consistent with the emerging field" (p. 269). Second, research shows that world history teachers had the highest rate of traditional or mainstream instructional approaches (Girard & Harris, 2018; Knowles & Theobald, 2013). A study by Knowles and Theobald (2013) found that world history teachers identified using lecture, textbooks, and worksheets more often than collaborative or inquiry-based practices. Girard and Harris (2018) suggest that teacher education and social studies research should work to determine the practices that best support the teaching and learning of world history.

Curricular-Instructional Gatekeeping

As curricular-instructional gatekeepers, teachers make decisions about what students learn and how they learn it (Grant, 2003; Thornton, 2005, 2012). Stephen Thornton (2005) defined gatekeeping as "the decisions teachers make about curriculum and instruction and the criteria they use to make those decisions." (p. 1). According to Thornton (1991, 2005), gatekeeping is inevitable because teaching is a profession rooted in decision-making. Similarly, Kincheloe (2005) viewed teachers as professionals who "produce knowledge and diagnose the

needs of their students" (p. 85). These needs could require that teachers modify both subject matter and assignments (Whelan, 2006). Additionally, Thornton (2012) maintained that teachers address educational equity when they make sure that the gate is open for all students. Gatekeeping also requires that teachers utilize both subject matter knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge when making curricular-instructional decisions.

Grant (2003) and Cunningham (2007) determined that a series of factors impacted teacher decision-making and curricular gatekeeping. Factors like textbooks, formal curriculum, standards, and administrative expectations affected the curricular-instructional decisions of educators (Grant, 2003). Similarly, Cunningham (2007) identified a series of interwoven student factors, structural factors, and teacher factors that influence instructional choices. Each of these factors aligned with a type of teacher knowledge. For example, knowledge of student beliefs, attitudes, and abilities, enables teachers to make effective instructional decisions tailored to both individual learners and the class as a whole (Cunningham, 2007). Therefore, gatekeeping is an individualized practice shaped by personal, institutional, and environmental factors. The knowledge required to engage in gatekeeping: knowledge of students, knowledge of educational contexts, and knowledge of content are all part of the knowledge base for teaching that underpins the work of classroom educators.

Teacher Knowledge

In the mid-1980s, Lee Shulman (1987) asked "What are the sources of the knowledge base for teaching? (p.4)." Shulman and his associates noted seven sources of teacher knowledge. They identified the sources of teacher knowledge as: content knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, knowledge of educational purposes, knowledge of learners, knowledge of curriculum, and knowledge of educational contexts (Shulman, 1986,

1987; Gudmundsdottir & Shulman, 1987). Shulman focused his research on the impact of content knowledge on instruction and identified a specific type of professional knowledge for teachers called pedagogical content knowledge (PCK). For Shulman, PCK reflected the inherent relationship between content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge (Shulman, 1987, 2012).

Content Knowledge

Shulman (1987) defined content knowledge as the knowledge in the mind of the teacher. He maintained that teaching "begins with a teacher's understanding of what is to be learned and how it is to be taught" (p. 7). For Shulman, teachers served as the primary source of content knowledge and therefore the amount of content knowledge a teacher has impacts what students learn. Ball (2000) maintained that having subject matter knowledge and being able to use it effectively lay at the heart of teaching. Similarly, Feiman-Nemser and Norman (2000) argued that content knowledge included knowledge of facts and concepts, knowledge of organizational frameworks, and knowledge of disciplinary evidence. Teachers need content or subject matter knowledge to answer student questions, broaden the historical narrative, and provide contextualization for the plethora of people, places, and concepts typically featured in standardized history curricula (Bain & Mirel, 2006; Reisman & Fogo, 2016). Additionally, Ball (2000) noted that "the creativity entailed in designing instruction in ways that are attentive to difference requires substantial proficiency with material" (p. 242). Therefore, teachers must have considerable content knowledge to tailor instruction for diverse student populations.

Shulman (1986) wrote "we assume that most teachers begin with some expertise in the content they teach" (p. 8). However, he acknowledged that the content knowledge of both pre-service and in-service teachers varies. College course offerings, degree requirements, and personal interest shape content knowledge. Bain and Mirel (2006) argued "the knowledge

needed to teach challenging subject matter is more complicated than simply demanding that prospective teachers have majors in their subject areas" (p. 212). For example, an undergraduate with a degree in history could be an expert in Civil War history but lack the basic curricular knowledge to teach modern world history. However, Wineburg (2001) suggested "knowledge of subject matter is essential to teaching, but expert knowledge of content is not the sole determinant of good teaching" (p. 170). Expert teachers transform content knowledge through engaging instruction based on effective pedagogy.

Bain and Mirel (2006) contended "for beginning teachers, the problem is not merely acquiring content knowledge but acquiring it in ways that facilitate teaching subjects to young people of varied backgrounds and abilities" (p. 213). They also argued that "teachers need to understand content in the context of teaching" (p. 213). Given the short duration of many teacher preparation programs, gaining these experiences can be difficult. In addition to knowing content, teachers needed to understand how students learn (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Feiman-Nemser & Norman, 2000). "Without knowing deeply how people learn, and how different people learn differently," Darling-Hammond (2006) wrote, "teachers lack the foundation that can help them figure out what to do when a technique or text is not effective with all students" (p. 4). Teachers who apply knowledge of how students learn to disciplinary instruction exhibit pedagogical content knowledge.

Pedagogical Content Knowledge/Knowing

Shulman defined pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) as "subject matter knowledge for teaching" (Shulman, 1986, p. 9). It was, he believed, an amalgam or blend of content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge (Shulman, 1986; 1987). PCK can also be conceptualized

as how teachers design instruction within a specific discipline (Cunningham, 2007; Grant, 2003; Shulman, 1986, 1987; VanSledright, 1996; Wineburg & Wilson, 1991).

Teachers display PCK when they make subjects, like history, teachable to and understandable for students (Harris & Bain, 2011; Monte-Sano, 2011; Monte-Sano & Budano, 2013; Shulman, 1986, 1987). Gudmundsdottir and Shulman (1987) maintained that "PCK is both built with and builds upon content knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, and knowledge of learner" (p.60). Over the last thirty-five years, scholars have augmented, reconfigured, and gone beyond Shulman's original understanding of pedagogical content knowledge (Ball et al., 2008; Cochran et al., 1993; Hashweh, 2005).

Teachers show evidence of pedagogical content knowledge when they foresee the content or skills that students will find challenging (Ball, 2000). PCK enables teachers to anticipate "the conceptions and preconceptions that students of different ages and backgrounds bring with them to the learning of those most frequently taught topics and lessons" (Shulman, 1986, p. 9). Effective teachers understand how students learn and take steps to support their individual learning. Additionally, teachers exhibit pedagogical content knowledge when they use the most effective examples, illustrations, and representations of subject matter in instruction. Shulman (1987) described how veteran teacher, Nancy, had a "mental index" of examples and episodes from different pieces of literature that she could use to teach an assortment of themes. Nancy also had a repertoire of readily available strategies and material in case she needed to adapt her lesson. Studies show that veteran teachers exhibit more pedagogical content knowledge than novices (Shulman, 1987; Gudmundsdottir & Shulman, 1987). Teachers display pedagogical content knowledge when they align instruction with both student needs and content demands (Shulman, 1986; Ball, 2000; Ball & Forzani, 2009). Feiman-Nemser (2003) referred to this as the

"situationally relevant approaches to subject matter" (p. 26). Additionally, teachers with PCK can design instruction that engages diverse learners despite different educational contexts (Feiman-Nemser & Norman, 2000; Ball, 2000).

PCK is also visible when teachers create experiences that enable students to process content knowledge. This is part of what Shulman (1987) calls pedagogical reasoning. According to Shulman (1987) pedagogical reasoning is a multi-step process that with begins with comprehension. First, teachers must understand their subject matter. Second, teachers transform that knowledge into lessons. In the transformation phase, teachers align both their content knowledge and knowledge of their students to design instruction. During this stage, teachers select the examples, models and strategies they plan to use during instruction. Third, teachers and students engage with the material during instruction. During instruction, teachers may use a variety of strategies like questioning, discussion, inquiry, and collaborative learning. Fourth, teachers use assessments to measure student understanding. During the evaluation process, teachers may use formative or summative assessments to check student growth. Fifth, reflection stage offers teachers a chance to assess their practice. After reflecting on their own practice, the teacher comes to a new understanding or develops a new comprehension of both their subject knowledge and pedagogy. Shulman (1987) noted that the phases of pedagogical reasoning were not fixed and could occur in a different order.

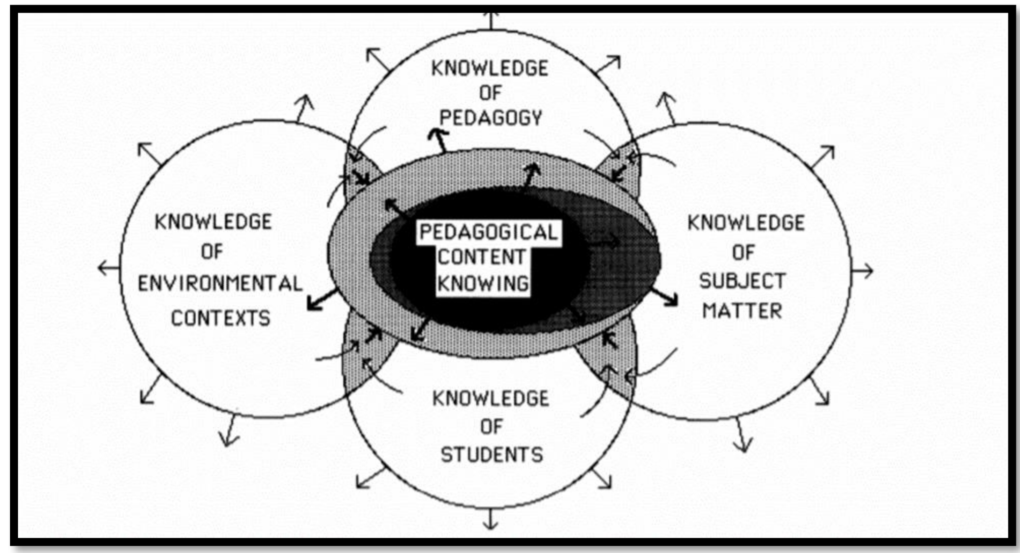
As previously noted, PCK has been reconfigured, adapted, and applied across disciplines. Pedagogical content knowing (PCKg) modified the concept of PCK by placing "increased emphasis on knowing and understanding as active processes" (Cochran et al., 1993, p. 263). Pedagogical content knowing takes a constructivist approach to Shuman's concept, and the authors maintained that learners continually modify their learning. PCKg was originally

developed as an approach to teacher education. However, pedagogical content knowing also seemed applicable to teaching during a global pandemic because educators adapted their knowing of world history subject matter, pedagogy, and students to unfamiliar environmental contexts. As Cochran et al. (1993) explained "as teachers learn about teaching, they continuously integrate each experience with everything they understand including understandings about teaching" (Cochran et al., 1993, p. 265). In the case of the pandemic, teachers had to integrate their existing teacher knowledge to their evolving understandings of teaching and learning during the pandemic.

Cochran et al. (1993) focused on the importance of learners and contexts in their constructivist refashioning of PCK. Therefore, teachers learn about teaching in the same manner that students learn about subject matter. Cochran et al. (1993) used the words synthesize and integrate to describe their model of pedagogical content knowing (See Figure 1). In this model there are four domains of teacher knowledge that shape and are shaped by pedagogical

Figure 1

Model of Pedagogical Content Knowing from Cochran et al. (1993)



content knowing. These domains are pedagogy, subject matter, students, and the environmental context. The authors maintained that PCKg develops as teachers grow their knowledge of content, practice, learners, and contexts.

Pedagogical content knowing, Cochran et al. (1993)) wrote, is “a teacher’s integrated understanding of four components of pedagogy, subject matter, student characteristics, and the environmental contexts of learning” (p. 266). As conceptualized for teacher education, pre-service teachers would develop their content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge within the contexts of knowledge of students and knowledge of contexts (Cochran et al., 1993). While Shulman’s primary focus within PCK was on the importance of content knowledge, Cochran et al. (1993) shifted the emphasis to focus on the teacher’s knowledge of both students and environmental contexts. Although teachers continually grow their knowledge of content and pedagogy, the focus on integration and synthesis makes PCKg more dynamic than PCK. Additionally, there is not a deficit model of PCKg since it is about the continual growth of teacher knowledge. Sometimes, pedagogical content knowledge is described as something teachers have or do not have. With PCKg, knowing develops as teachers gain experiences with students, and pedagogy across different contexts.

Teachers have knowledge of students when they understand the general abilities, attitudes, and motivations of age groups in general and that of individual students (Cochran et al., 1993). For example, teachers know that both prior knowledge and misconceptions affect student understanding. Teachers must also possess an understanding of environmental and institutional contexts. Political, social, and environmental factors continually impact teaching and learning (Cochran et al., 1993). Student socioeconomic status, school funding, and educational inequalities are examples of environmental factors. Additionally, physical environmental

contexts could refer buildings, classrooms, school location or in today's world the shift to synchronous remote or asynchronous learning. Although, Cochran et al. (1993) developed PCKg as a constructivist approach to teacher education, researchers can apply PCKg to in-service teachers as they adapt to new educational contexts like those of the global COVID-19 pandemic.

Pedagogical Content Knowledge in History Education

One misconception about teaching history is that it requires little or no specific pedagogical knowledge (Grant, 2003). Wineburg and Wilson (1991) observed and interviewed experienced secondary history teachers as part of a series of studies on the wisdom of practice. They found that the instructional decisions of veteran teachers, Mrs. Jensen and Mr. Price, derived from a combination of content knowledge, knowledge of students, and knowledge of pedagogy. In Mrs. Jensen's class, students were actively involved in a debate on taxation in colonial America. The authors identified Mrs. Jensen as the invisible teacher because her role was that of facilitator. By contrast, Mr. Price was described as the visible teacher. Wineburg and Wilson (1991) wrote "when the bell rings, Price is on stage--responding to student questions, interjecting anecdotes from his notebook, and using analogies and examples to illustrate his points" (p. 405). Price's use of analogies, stories and examples represents pedagogical content knowledge in action. Despite the difference in instructional approaches, students in both classes engaged with historical narrative.

Grant (2003) conducted a study of two history educators and found that history teachers need a range of knowledge of skills and strategies that go beyond lecture. The teachers in Grant's (2003) study were vastly different in their approaches to instruction. One teacher, Mr. Blair, utilized lecture and presented students with a fact-based narrative of the past. By contrast, Ms. Strait, used a variety of teaching strategies, emphasized historical connections, and presented

multiple perspectives (Grant, 2003). Monte-Sano (2011) explained that "teachers' subject matter knowledge, views of students, and local school contexts influence the extent to which teachers' lessons reflect the discipline and meet students' needs" (p. 262). Pedagogical content knowledge helps teachers develop authentic history instruction within a range of educational contexts.

Monte-Sano and Budano (2013) conducted a review of literature on PCK within history education. The authors determined four components of PCK relevant to teaching history: representing history, transforming history, attending to students' ideas about history, and framing history. They defined r*epresenting history* as "the ways in which teachers communicate to students what history involves and, in particular, the nature of historical knowledge, the structures of history as a discipline, and historical ways of thinking" (Monte-Sano & Budano, 2013, p. 174). Teachers represent history through their organization of content, choice of activities and instructional strategies, and by recognizing student prior knowledge.

Teachers *transform history* when they create lessons and instructional materials from historical content and curricula that "target the development of students' historical understanding" (Monte-Sano & Budano, 2013, p. 174). *Attending to students' ideas about history* occurs when teachers "identify and respond to students' thinking about history in order to build on students' incoming ideas and experiences, address misconceptions, develop students; understandings further and promote historical ways of thinking" (Monte-Sano & Budano, 2013, p. 174). Teachers *frame history* when they arrange content into a structured and coherent narrative (Monte-Sano & Budano, 2013). When teachers frame history, they provide students with a story that emphasizes historical significance, connections between people, places, and events, and focus on interrelationships (Monte-Sano & Budano, 2013). These practices canoccur

in classrooms where teachers use mainstream pedagogies, emerging pedagogies, or a combination of both.

Harris and Girard (2014) conducted a study of how both pre-service and practicing teachers conceptualized historical significance. The authors (2014) developed the term instructional significance "to describe an aspect of pedagogical content knowledge that serves as a lens through which teachers view the content they teach and think about that content in preparing to teach students" (p. 215). They argued that pedagogical content knowledge also involves deciding what historical content to teach. The study found that both content knowledge and personal interest impacted the curricular-instructional decisions of novice teachers. Since the 1980s, researchers and scholars have studied, adapted, and modified the concept of pedagogical content knowledge to describe what teachers do in the classroom and explain the reasoning behind those decisions.

Core Practices in Social Studies Instruction

An understanding of instructional practices and effective strategies is part of pedagogical content knowledge. Effective teaching involves the use of research-based strategies and routines that support learning across diverse student populations (Fogo, 2014; Fogo, 2018). Fogo (2018) explained:

> Core teaching practices are, in large part, grounded in the domains of PCK. They are manifestations of a teacher's subject matter knowledge; a teacher's awareness of how different types of students understand disciplinary content, concepts, and skills; and a teacher's ability to select, develop, use, and adjust different instructional strategies and materials to support student learning. (p. 127).

There is no definitive or exhaustive list of core practices for teaching history, and educators disagree on whether core practices or core instruction should become mandated educational policy (Fogo, 2018, van Hover, 2018). Although, past trends in educational research prioritized the study of teacher beliefs, perceptions, and values, recent literature called for more investigations that identify "effective teaching practices to inform and help shape teacher education and professional development" (Fogo, 2014, p. 151). I compiled the following list of core practices (See Table 1) from the work of Fogo (2014; 2018) and Seixas and Morton (2013).

Table 1

Core Practices in History Teaching

Core Practice	Description
Use historical questions	Teacher plans lesson around a compelling or guiding question
Explain and connect historical content	Teacher explains content and establishes connections
Select and adapt historical sources	Teacher uses primary and secondary sources and modifies them if necessary
Model and support historical reading skills	Teacher models historical reading skills and provides scaffolds to help students
Facilitate classroom discussion	Teacher creates opportunities for students to discuss sources and historical questions
Use historical concepts	Teacher uses first-order and second-order concepts
Model and support historical writing	Teacher models historical writing and students create evidence-based arguments
Use historical evidence	Teachers incorporates maps, charts, visuals and text sources into the lesson, students use evidence in writing
Assess student thinking about history	Teacher uses both formative and summative assessments
Engage in historical thinking	Teachers create instruction that highlights historical significance, evidence, cause and consequence,

continuity and change, historical perspectives, and the ethical dimension

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Many of the core practices in history education are connected. For example, historical sources are used during historical reading, historical writing. Furthermore, historical evidence comes from sources and source evidence can be used by students to answer historical questions. The use of historical questions, explaining and connecting historical content, selecting, and adapting historical sources, assessing student thinking about history, and engaging in historical thinking are the most germane for this study and will be discussed further in the following section.

Historical Questions

Teachers organize lessons and design inquiry around historical questions. Historical inquiry, structured around a series of guiding questions, does not illicit simple fact recall or assess basic comprehension (Reisman, 2012; Seixas & Morton, 2013, Swan et al., 2018). Historical questions, “prompt students to read carefully and think deeply” (Reisman & Wineburg, 2008, p. 204). Reisman and Wineburg (2012) argued that students who only read primary sources for basic facts are “no better prepared for the literacy demand of college than those who cull facts from a textbook” (p. 25). For example, the Inquiry Design Model (IDM) is constructed around a compelling question and a series of supporting questions (Grant et al., 2017; Swan et al., 2018). Historical questions go beyond basic comprehension and challenge students to make connections, draw inferences and create arguments based on source evidence (Seixas & Morton, 2013; Swan et al., 2018; Swan et al., 2020).

Explain and Connect Historical Content

Survey materials from the Delphi Panel described explaining and connecting historical content as the "teacher uses accurate and effective explanations to convey historical content, concepts, and accounts. Explanations include the proper use of analogies, metaphors, and examples to illustrate and make connections between historical events and phenomena" (Fogo, 2014, p. 187). Teachers can explain content and show connections through direct instruction, inquiry-based activities, and project-based learning (Grant, 2003; Wineburg & Wilson, 1991). Teachers can also employ educative materials to expand their content knowledge and help them make connections across historical events and periods (Davis & Krajcik, 2005; Reisman & Fogo, 2016). Educative materials also guide teachers as they make curricular-instructional decisions that support student learning (Davis & Krajcik, 2005; Reisman & Fogo, 2016).

Select and Adapt Historical Sources

Seixas and Morton (2013) maintained that history is derived from the inferences drawn from primary sources. A source can be defined as "an object that has social meaning at a particular time" (Ashby et al., 2005, p. 112). Primary sources provide evidence, and evidence serves as the building blocks of both historical narrative and historical argument (Seixas & Morton, 2013; Wineburg et al., 2012). Primary sources in the form of written and oral accounts, artifacts, visual images like art and photographs are common sources used in historical study. van Hover et al. (2016) suggested "inquiries that explicitly stress the concept of evidence can serve as powerful models of wise practice capable of bridging the evaluation and analysis of sources" (p. 216). Through source work, students engage in the process of doing history and have opportunities to grow their content knowledge.

In a 1991 study, Wineburg tasked both historians and high school students with evaluating a set of primary sources about the American Revolution. Participants evaluated

pictures, ranked documents in order of trustworthiness and defined terms to gauge their background knowledge on the subject. He determined that "high school students can know a lot of history but have little idea of how historical knowledge is constructed" (Wineburg, 1991, p. 84). The study found that while student participants had factual knowledge, this content knowledge did not afford them the skills needed to interpret and analyze historical sources. Given this evidence, students need scaffolds and repeated practice on how to conduct source work. Examples of scaffolded historical inquiry include the Inquiry Design Model and Reading Like a Historian lessons from the Stanford History Education Group (Wineburg & Reisman, 2015).

Assess Student Thinking About History

"Assessment is as much a part of the teaching and learning experience," Grant (2017) explained, "as are planning, instruction, resources, and whiteboards" (p. 461). However, despite a long tradition of assessment in education, determining what students know and understand can be difficult (Grant, 2017; Nuthall, 2004; Popham, 2009). W. James Popham (2009) explained that determining what students know can be challenging because "almost all of our educational goals are aimed at unseeable skills and knowledge" (p. 8). Therefore, the goal of assessment is to make student knowledge visible to both the student and the teacher.

Assessments typically fall into two major categories: large-scale assessments, like high-stakes testing, and classroom assessments (Grant, 2017; Grant & Salinas, 2008). Classroom assessments are created by teachers and can be interwoven into the fabric of instruction (Black & William; 1998a, 1998b; Popham, 2008, 2011; Trumbull & Lash, 2013). Drawing on guidance from the National Council for the Social Studies, Torrez and Claunch-Lebsack (2014) contended that assessments in the social studies classroom should serve a constructive purpose, be linked to

curriculum goals, and allow students to showcase what they know. In terms of core instructional practice, teachers can use both formative and summative classroom assessments to assess historical thinking and measure content knowledge.

Formative assessments are typically described as planned, ungraded opportunities for students to express their understanding (Black & Wiliam, 1998a, 1998b, Popham, 2008, 2011). Formative assessments "reveal not only whether a student has mastered a concept, but also how he or she understands" (Trumbull & Lash, 2013, p. 2). The Inquiry Design Model, for example, is constructed around a series of formative performance tasks. Torrez and Claunch-Lebsack (2014) noted that "discipline-based inquiry projects provide opportunities for continuous formative assessments as the interactions between content and student illuminate the thinking processes and culminate with summative assessments completing the projects" (p. 562). Social studies teachers can integrate formative assessments into the lecture-based direct instruction or use them to scaffold historical inquiry.

While formative assessments are typically described as planned, Dixson and Worrell (2016) argued that they also could be spontaneous. Spontaneous assessments are impromptu and occur when teachers observe misunderstanding by reading visual cues including student body language (Dixson & Worrell, 2016). Fogo (2018) identified a strong correlation between formative assessments and PCK. He maintained that "formative assessment practices involve clear understanding of focal content, concepts, and skills; ability to identify and interpret student thinking about disciplinary content; and knowledge of appropriate instruction to address student misconceptions and support further learning" (p. 129). This means that some degree of pedagogical content knowledge is required to design effective formative assessments. Additionally, for assessments to be truly formative, teachers must use the elicited evidence to

inform ongoing teaching (Popham, 2008, 2011; Roskos & Neuman, 2012; Shemilt, 2018). Teachers can adjust instruction in real time or design future instruction based on formative feedback.

By contrast, summative classroom assessments are usually graded, cumulative, and occur at the end of a learning unit (Dixson & Worrell, 2016; Grant, 2017). These assessments can take the form of multiple-choice quizzes or tests, or be performance-based (Dixson & Worrell, 2016). Performance-based assessments, sometimes called project-based assessments (PBA) or project-based learning (PBL), allows students to demonstrate their knowledge through a combination of product, performance, or process (Dixson & Worrell, 2016). "Project-based learning," Lo and Neufeld-Kaiser (2022) wrote, "is well known for engaging students enthusiastically and for supporting strong experiential learning" (p. 16). Project-based learning, like a simulation, promotes historical thinking skills and civic engagement (Lo & Neufeld-Kaiser, 2022).

Engage in Historical Thinking

Seixas and Morton (2013) defined historical thinking as the "creative process historians go through to interpret the evidence of the past and generate stories of history" (Seixas & Morton, 2013, p. 2). Teachers that are passionate about history will have students engage in historical thinking. According to Seixas and Morton (2013), historical significance, evidence, cause and consequence, continuity and change, historical perspectives and the ethical dimension are the concepts students need to the ability to think both critically and historically. For the purpose of this study, I will expand upon historical significance, evidence, continuity and change, and historical perspectives.

Historical Significance.

Seixas and Peck (2004) noted that it is impossible for history educators to teach everything in the past. Curriculum developers and teachers make decisions about which individuals, events, ideas, and places to teach (Seixas & Peck, 2004). “Defining historical significance” Seixas and Peck (2004) maintained “involves organizing events in a narrative that will show us something important about our position in the world” (p. 111). In a recent study, Girard et al. (2021) explored the factors that influence the content decisions of history teachers. The authors found that teachers identified historical significance as the most important factor in their curricular decisions. In for students to determine historical significance, they need both content knowledge and the ability to contextualize (Seixas & Peck, 2004).

Evidence.

History educators and their students employ evidence in multiple ways. First, teachers construct instructional materials, like slideshows and corresponding lectures, around historical evidence. Second, teachers can assign students to create evidence-based arguments as part of inquiry-based learning, project-based assessments, and research projects. For example, the inquiry arc of the *C3 Framework* and the IDM both require the analysis and interpretation of historical evidence (NCSS, 2013; Grant et al., 2017; Swan et al., 2018; 2020). Third, students complete formative and summative assessments using evidence from primary and secondary sources.

Continuity and Change.

Counsell (2011) wrote, “change and continuity are elusive prey. By contrast, cause and consequence are easier to trap” (p. 109). Students often view history as a linear series of often unrelated events. “Events are not in themselves changes, although this is exactly how many students see things” (Lee, 2005, p. 43). This misunderstanding makes the concept of continuity

and change so important to historical thinking (Seixas & Morton, 2013). The concepts of turning point, progress and decline are all connected to continuity and change (Seixas & Morton, 2013). Historical change can result in either progress, decline or a combination of both (Lee, 2005; Bain, 2005). Through continuity and change students see history as an interconnected web instead of a line of unconnected events.

Historical Perspectives.

Taking a historical perspective can also be called historical empathy (Lee, 2005; Davis, 2001, Barton & Levstik, 2004). Historical empathy should not be confused with sympathy (Barton & Levstik, 2004; Davis, 2001). Barton and Levstik (2004) explained empathy as contextualizing the actions of people in the past. Empathy involves understanding people from the past, by focusing on their goals, values, assumptions and culture. "Only by recognizing how the perspectives of people in the past may have differed from our own, Barton and Levstik (2004) wrote, "will we be able to make sense of their practices (p. 207). Similarly, Davis (2001) argued that historical empathy provides students a way to merge emotion, content knowledge and historical narrative.

Methodology

I conducted a qualitative case study of four world history teachers from one high school in southwest Virginia. I selected this approach because case studies allow the researcher to investigate a phenomenon within the real-world context (Yin, 2018). Case studies utilize evidence from multiple sources because as Yazan (2015) noted, "it is incumbent upon the case study researcher to draw from multiple sources and to capture the case under study in its complexity and entirety" (p. 142). Data collection included interviewing participants, conducting classroom observations, and collecting instructional materials. I used this evidence to answer the

following research question: How did the pandemic shape the curricular-instructional decisions and pedagogical practices of world history teachers? The qualitative evidence allowed me to determine how the educational and environmental contexts of the pandemic affected curricular choices, instructional delivery, strategies and assignments, and classroom assessment practices.

I received approval to conduct this study from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) in July 2020 (See Appendix A). I was given permission to conduct the study in Tate County (pseudonym) after negotiating with district administration. However, I was required to conduct all data collection virtually. After receiving approval from Tate County, I began the recruitment process. The school district required that I provide a list of possible participants to the Administrator of Social Sciences. Once this list was approved, I was allowed to contact building administrators and request permission to contact participants.

Setting

This study took place at Norwood High (pseudonym) in southwestern Virginia. Norwood is one of four high schools in Tate County. Norwood's student body is predominantly white, and students live in both rural and suburban areas. The school has just over 1,100 students. During the 2020-2021 school year, Norwood operated on a hybrid instructional model. This meant that 50% of the student body attended school in person and the other 50% received synchronous remote instruction through Google Meet. In-person students attended for half the school day (See Figure 2) and alternated between morning or afternoon attendance. Some students were fully remote and did not attend any in-person classes. Accommodations for full-time in-person instruction were offered to English language learners and students with disabilities.

Figure 2

School Schedule for Norwood High

	Arrival Pick up *Grab & Go Breakfast*	
8:00-9:00 AM	1st Block (Monday & Thursday) 5th Block (Tuesday & Friday)	50% In-Person 50% Synchronous Remote
9:05-10:05 AM	2nd Block/Period	
10:05-10:20 AM	Dismissal Pick up *Grab & Go Lunch*	
	Arrival Pick up *Grab & Go Lunch*	50% In-Person 50% Synchronous Remote
12:30-1:30 PM	3rd Block/Period	
1:35-2:35 PM	4th Block/Period	
2:35-2:50 PM	Dismissal Pick up *Grab & Go Snack*	

In a typical year, Norwood High operated on a modified block schedule with two 50-minute year-long classes and three 85-minute semester blocks. However, in the hybrid model, all classes met for one hour. Additionally, first and fifth periods only met twice a week. These schedule changes led to a considerable reduction in instructional time.

Participants

Participants in this study met three criteria. First, each participant taught world history during the fall of 2020. Second, participants were employed at Norwood High School. Although I hoped to get participants from multiple schools, Tate County required that I obtain written permission from each high school principal before I contacted participants. Only the principal of Norwood High replied to my request. Third, each participant needed to consent to the research. At the time of this research, five teachers at Norwood taught world history, and four agreed to be part of the study.

Participant 1: Cora Hudson

Cora grew up in southwestern Virginia and attended both elementary and high school in a neighboring school district. She went to a local public university from 2007-2011 and graduated with a bachelor's degree in social science with a teaching option. At the time of the study, she was in her ninth year of teaching and served as lead teacher for the social studies department. Cora is a new teacher mentor and mentored both Tessa and Natalie during their first year. Over the course of her career, Cora has taught a range of social studies courses including World History I, World History II, United States History, Government, and World Mythology. All of Cora's World History I courses have been co-taught or had an instructional assistant because she teaches a high number of students with disabilities.

Teaching was not Cora's original career path. She wanted to work in a museum. When asked, why she decided to become a history teacher, Cora replied, "I love working with kids and I love history and so I thought this is a guaranteed job source. It might not be a luxurious job, but I'm molding the future." Additionally, Cora's self-proclaimed nerdiness and love of history influenced her decision to become a history teacher.

Participant 2: Bruce Moran

Bruce is a native of southwest Virginia and served in the United States military before beginning his teaching career. He has a bachelor's degree in social studies and a master's in geography from a small public university in West Virginia. Bruce is the most experienced teacher in the study having taught high school social studies for two decades. He commonly teaches World History I, World History II, and Advanced Placement (AP) European History. In recent years, he also taught United States History, Government, Psychology, Sociology, and Appalachian Studies. At the time of the study, Bruce taught honors and regular sections of World History I, and AP European History.

Like Cora, Bruce did not want to be a teacher. He planned to become a field archaeologist after his military service. However, his need to find a job and support his family took precedence over his "more extravagant plan" to become an archaeologist. When asked why he became a history teacher, Bruce explained, "I joined the army, I got deployed, had a kid, came back and needed to make money." While practical life concerns influenced Bruce's career decisions, he also has a great passion for history and considers it his hobby. Bruce noted that teaching was an acceptable career choice because, "where else can you go and talk about your interests all day long."

Participant 3: Tessa Russell

Tessa is the only participant not born and raised in Virginia. She received a bachelor's degree in education from a large land-grant university in the Midwest. During her undergraduate program, Tessa focused on social studies, but with an emphasis on special education. She previously taught US History and Civics at a middle school near the North Carolina border. The 2020-2021 school year marked her sixth year in the classroom, but only her third year at Norwood. At this time of this study, she taught both sections of world history. Tessa serves as 504 Coordinator for the school and has a large population of students with disabilities in her classes.

Tessa planned on becoming a special education teacher but realized that while special education was her first passion, she also loved learning about history. While working at summer camps and volunteering with youth in her community, Tessa discovered that "nobody likes history." She hated that young people felt history was only about disconnected pieces of information like names and dates. She explained, "I thought well if nobody else is going to teach

these kids how everything is interrelated and how history works then I guess I will because I'm passionate enough about history myself. So, hopefully that rubs off on my kids."

Participant 4: Natalie Watson

Natalie grew up in a rural area south of Tate County. She attended the same public university as Cora and graduated with a master's degree in curriculum and instruction. Natalie was a novice teacher at the time of this study. The 2020-2021 school year was her third year at Norwood, and she taught World History II, United States History, Government, and Women's Studies.

Natalie explained that she decided to become a social studies teacher because she liked history class in high school and loved history as a subject. Although she also liked English, Natalie decided that it was not a subject she wanted to teach. She noted, "I wanted to be a teacher because I just thought I could convey my nerdiness for history over to some of the students."

Data Collection

I collected data from five sources: participant interviews, participant lesson reflections, classroom observations, follow-up questions, and instructional materials like slideshows, homework assignments, and in-class activities. This combination of interviews, observations, and artifacts offered a diverse collection of evidence to draw from while conducting qualitative research.

Interviews and Observations

I conducted interviews and observations over a four-week period in September and October during the fall of 2020 (See Table 2). The purpose of an interview is to access

Table 2

Data Collection Calendar

Participant	Interview 1	Observation Date/Class/Topic	Observation Date/Class/Topic	Interview 2
Cora Hudson	9/23	9/29 World History I Period 3 Mesopotamia	10/1 World History I Period 3 Egypt	10/9
Bruce Moran	9/21	9/24 World History I Honors Period 4 Mesopotamia	9/25 World History I Honors Period 4 Egypt	10/7
Tessa Russell	9/25	9/29 Period 4 Columbian Exchange	10/1 Period 4 Global Trade	10/12
Natalie Watson	9/23	10/5 Period 1 Reformation	10/8 Period 1 Reformation	10/14

the participant's perspective (Merriam, 2009; Yin, 2018). I conducted two semi-structured interviews with each participant. The interviews took place virtually using Zoom or Google Meet. For both interviews, I asked questions from an interview framework (See Appendix B). The semi-structured format allowed me to ask clarifying questions and dialogue with the participants. The first interview collected background information. I asked questions about the participant's education, teaching experience, and approach to teaching. Participants also addressed how COVID-19 and hybrid instruction impacted their curricular- instruction decisions. The second interview occurred after the completion of both classroom observations. I asked questions based on my classroom observations and personalized the second interview for each participant. I also inquired more about curricular-instructional decision-making during the second interview. I used the question stem, "why did you choose to use _______________as an

instructional strategy in your lesson on _________________”. This question frame allowed me to obtain more information on the reasoning process behind their instructional decisions.

I conducted classroom observations for each participant. Observations occurred remotely using Google Meet and I attended class like a remote student. I observed each teacher twice and conducted a total of eight classroom observations. The contexts of COVID-19 influenced my decision to observe each teacher twice. I knew that teachers were under more stress and faced an increased workload due to pandemic contexts. I wanted to be respectful of each participant’s time and not be the cause of additional worry or anxiety.

Cora, Bruce, and Tessa gave me access to their Google Classrooms. A link to their Google Meet was available on each classroom page. Natalie chose to email the link before each observation. I did not turn on my camera or my audio during the observations. I logged into Cora’s Pear Deck as a student since her class was taught in a synchronous asynchronous fashion. I selected the course to be observed, but participants chose the lesson topic, class period, and date. I took field notes during each observation. After the observations, I wrote memos to record my thoughts about what I had seen and heard during the class and noted emerging patterns (Marshall & Rossman, 2016).

Lesson Reflections and Follow-Up Questions

I asked teachers to complete lesson reflections before and after each lesson. I originally intended these to be quick interviews. However, given the increased workload of pandemic teaching and time constraints, I chose to have participants complete these in writing. I emailed reflection questions to each participant before the first observation. Participants returned their answers by email or by sharing a Google document. For the pre-observation reflection, participants provided an overview of the lesson and what they hoped to accomplish. In the post-

observation reflection participants described how the lesson went, reflected on student learning, and addressed how they would change the lesson in the future. Following my initial data analysis, I wanted more information on classroom assessment decisions. I emailed teachers a series of follow-up questions that addressed their assessment practices during hybrid instruction (See Appendix C). Only three participants submitted the lesson reflections, but all four completed the follow-up questions.

Document Collection

Documents are defined as "a wide range of written, visual, digital and physical material relevant to the study" (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 162). Documents typically exist before the research study begins and the stability is type of evidence benefits the researcher (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Since documents exist prior to the research, Merriam and Tisdell (2016) explained that the "presence of the investigator does not alter what is being studied" (p. 182). It was important to collect instructional materials because this study looks at the teacher decision-making and the role of teachers and curricular-instructional gatekeepers. Lecture materials and class assignments provided evidence of teacher knowledge, show how each participant designed instruction, and offer insight into their approaches to teaching diverse student populations during shifting educational contexts.

Due to hybrid instruction, Tate County required that all instructional materials be uploaded on Google Classroom. I was able to collect instructional materials from each participant either by request or through access to their Google Classroom (See Table 3).

Table 3

Documents Collected from Participants

Participant	Documents Collected
Cora Hudson	Pear Deck on Mesopotamia Pear Deck on Egypt Both Pear Decks included video clips from National Geographic Mesopotamia reading and worksheet Ancient Egypt web quest
Bruce Moran	Lecture videos created for NY Global Regents 9 curriculum Teacher created lecture videos posted on Google Classroom and YouTube Chapter 2 Scavenger hunt Chapter 2 Homework sheets Ancient Texts Assignment Introduction to the *Code of Hammurabi* reading *The Instruction of Ptah Hotep* primary source reading
Tessa Russell	PowerPoint on Columbian exchange Pear Deck on global trade and regional civilizations Global trade stance activity Columbian Exchange stations activity Explorer Primary Sources and questions Age of Discovery Primary Sources
Natalie Watson	Reformation Pear Deck Reformation vocabulary worksheet Reformation scavenger hunt

Since Cora, Bruce, and Tessa gave me access to their Google Classroom, I had access to all their instructional materials including classroom assignments and lecture materials. Natalie did not provide access to Google Classroom, but she electronically shared copies of her slideshows and worksheets. In addition to documents from each participant, I collected state standards and curriculum frameworks for both world history courses.

Triangulation

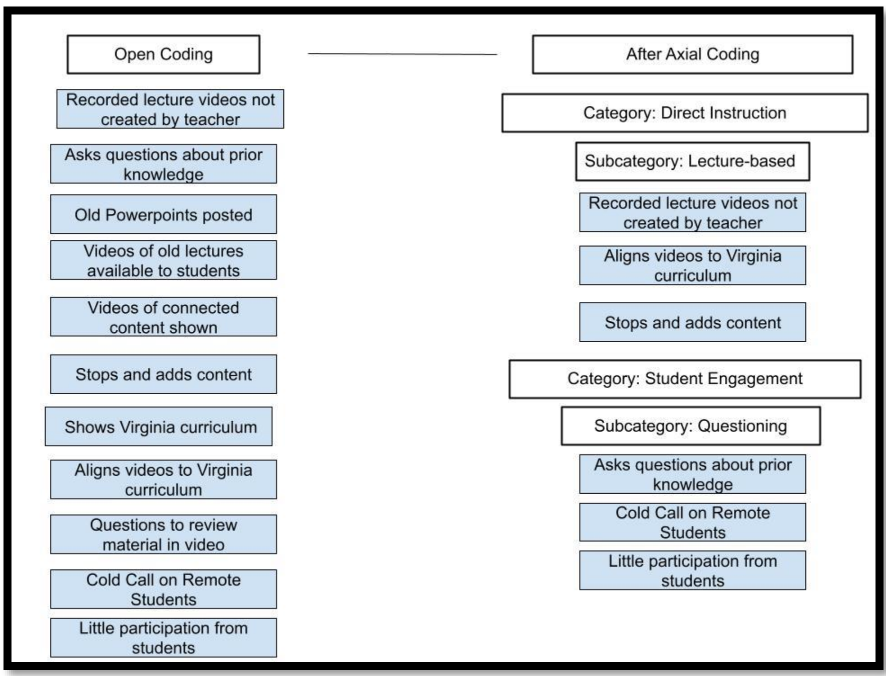
Triangulation is used to strengthen the credibility of a study (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). The combination of interviews, lesson reflections, classroom observations, and instructional materials allowed me to triangulate or cross-check data (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). This study used more than one method of data collection and multiple sources of data which increased the study's credibility and validity (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). I invited each participant to member check interview transcripts. Two participants requested access to the interview transcripts but neither offered feedback or voiced concerns about the accuracy of the transcript. I also used the follow-up questions to clarify findings about an emerging topic that was only marginally addressed during the interviews.

Data Analysis

Researchers make meaning when they synthesize and interpret data (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). I conducted data analysis for this study by coding interview transcripts, memos, and lesson reflections. I began the process using open coding. This meant that I was "open to anything possible" at this stage of analysis (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 204). I highlighted excerpts in my word documents and assigned a code using the comment feature. I tried to capture both the implicit and explicit meaning of the excerpt through my codes (Hein, 2019). Since words, phrases, and sentences or whole paragraphs can be excerpted and code, some of my comment boxes contained multiple codes. From there, I went back through each interview and sorted the like codes into axial codes. Once I grouped similar codes, I began looking for patterns to generate categories. Categories were then groups into larger themes (See Figure 3).

Figure 3

Coding Example



As the coding process progressed, several themes emerged including changes to lecture-based direction instruction and the inclusion of more formative assessments.

As I moved forward with coding, I created tables of the categories, codes and subcodes with supporting evidence from participant interviews, reflections, and email responses. For example, for the code of instructional technology, I identified evidence for the subcodes: concerns for equity, change for teachers, teacher training, and lack of familiarity with technology (See Table 4).

Table 4

Instructional Technology Codes and Evidence Table Example

Codes and Subcodes	Evidence from Participants
Code: Instructional Technology Subcode: Concern for equity	It’s just so overwhelming trying to implement all these different types of technology when you have some kids that don’t have the strongest internet. Like some kids don’t have internet to support Google Meet which is why I don’t require them to stay in it the whole time. That’s why I

	prerecord my lectures so it's easier for them to get access to the content. (Cora)
	Everybody in class is going to have the same experience of class that day whether they are sitting in front of me or whether they are sitting at home. That means I have to tailor it to the ones at home. That means it's effectively—you're remote in person. (Bruce)
Subcode: Change for teachers	I do not like technology—I don't trust technology. I am very much a paper/pencil girl—I believe in old school learning, and this has required a complete mind shift. It has upended my entire process of teaching. (Cora)
	I have—sometimes I have a hard time focusing so—and that's another problem for me with the current environment—when we're in person--half your kids or some of your kids in person and then on the computer screen—I have a very hard time working with both so it's almost like I will unintentionally devote more attention to one group over the other and it just depends. It's something I'm having to get used to. (Natalie)
Subcode: Training	Since probably mid-June they've offered Tech Tuesdays where they have offered different PDs. We were required to do Google Meet training before we started. Google Classroom is something we've implemented for 4ish maybe 5 years. They've offered PearDeck, Edpuzzle. (Cora)
Subcode: Lack of familiarity	I've started using Google forms. I'm not very good at it. It's been a struggle and honestly they say don't reinvent the wheel—I have gone—we are three weeks in and I've already gone to Teachers Pay Teachers twice. Just because I can't comprehend the technology piece of it to give them something worthwhile that they can manipulate. (Cora)

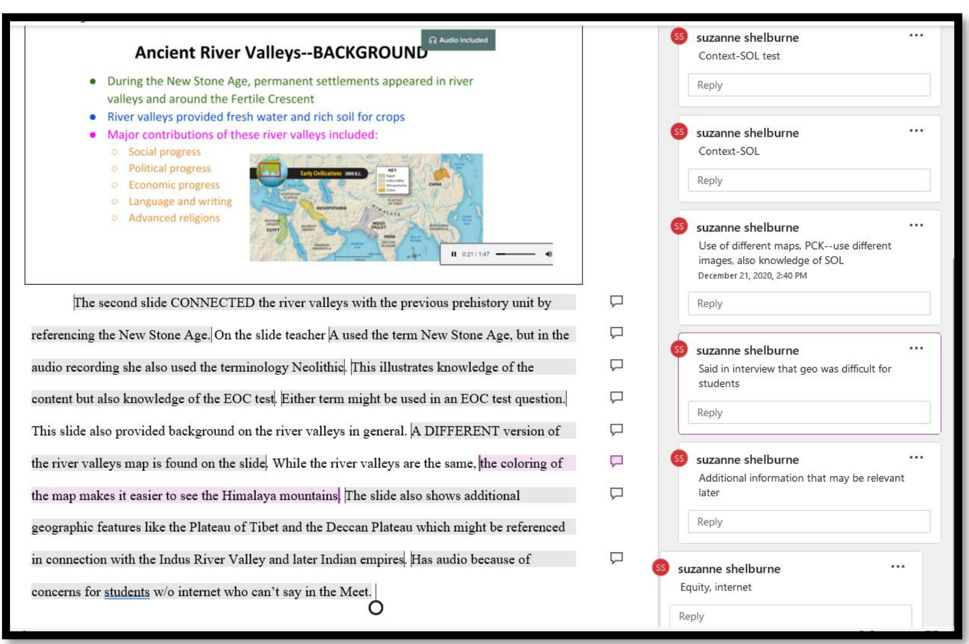
These tables served as a repository for evidence as I moved through different sources and collected data.

Memoing

The process of memo writing allowed me to expand on what I saw in the classroom. I wrote my thoughts about teacher decisions, strategies, context knowledge, and their presentation of the historical narrative. Through memoing I began to interpret the observation data (See Figure 4). The memos provided a place for me to analyze each participant's curricular-instructional decisions, identify evidence of teacher knowledge, and note core practices in social studies education.

Figure 4

Memo Example



For example, I also wrote memos about the teacher-planned curriculum found in Pear Deck slides, Google slides, or PowerPoint Slides and compared the content in the slides to content in the curriculum frameworks. I made notes in the comment feature that eventually become part of the coding process.

Limitations

There are limitations to all research studies (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). This research was limited by the contexts of COVID-19, selection of participants, and timing of the study. The educational and environmental contexts created by the pandemic were the first limitations of this study. I had limited access to teachers given my inability to go into the physical classroom. Additionally, I observed classes remotely, and had a limited view of the in-person classroom. I also conducted all my interactions with participants either virtually or digitally. However, I was fortunate to have access to teachers at all during the pandemic. In addition, access to Google Classroom increased the accessibility of instructional materials. The second limitation of this study was the use of a convenience sample of individuals I know or worked with in the past. A third limitation is that all participants came from one school. The final limitation was the timing of this study. I conducted observations and interviews in the first two months of the school year.

Findings

The purpose of this study was to identify the educational contexts created by the COVID-19 pandemic and determine how these contexts affected the curricular-instructional decisions and pedagogical practices of high school world history teachers. The study addressed the following research question:

1. How did the pandemic shape the curricular-instructional decisions and pedagogical practices of world history teachers?

First, to answer this question, the research found that district policies and hybrid instruction generated multiple environmental and educational contexts that affected both teaching and learning. For example, the inability to see remote students or use break out rooms. Second, in addressing the question, this study discovered that teachers responded to pandemic educational contexts with a combination of change and continuity in their instructional practices and

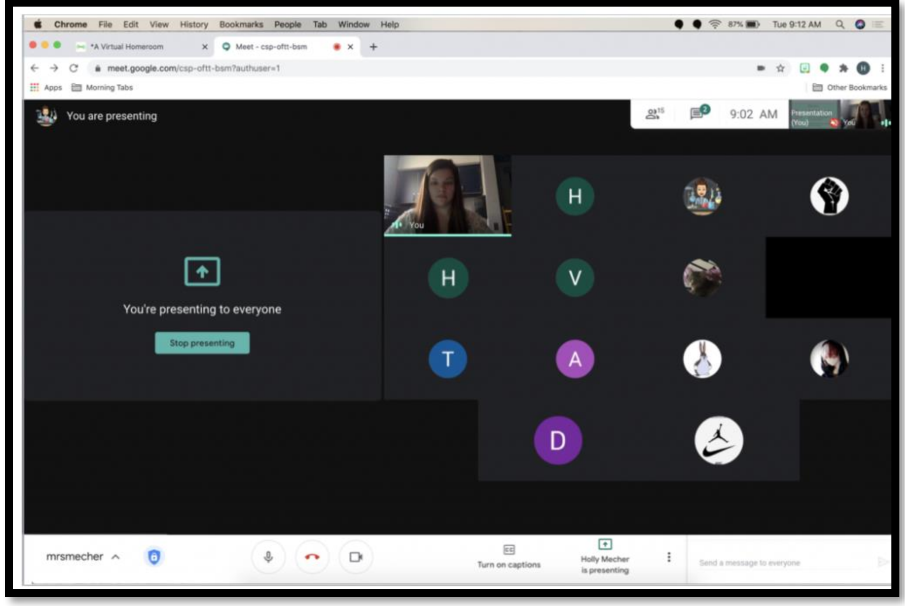
assessment strategies. Teachers retained elements from the pre-pandemic classroom, like the use of lecture-based direct instruction, but also changed, modified, and adapted instructional delivery, existing assignments, and classroom assessment practices. In terms of instruction, the most significant changes were made in classroom assessment. Third, participants altered how they developed and maintained the teacher-student relationship. Teacher knowledge, especially pedagogical content knowledge, is evidenced across their decisions. The term pedagogical content knowing is especially applicable since their knowledge of pandemic educational contexts, online pedagogy, and remote students continually developed over the course of this study and throughout the school year.

Shifting Educational and Environmental Contexts

COVID-19 introduced new educational and environmental contexts into the classroom. Each teacher I observed taught from their regular classroom, but changes occurred in terms of time, technology, and testing. First, Norwood High operated on four-day week, hybrid instructional model. This schedule reduced instructional time and altered how often classes met. For instance, Natalie's World History II classes only met twice a week. First period met on Monday and Thursday and fifth period met on Tuesday and Friday. She explained the instructional impact stating, "it's easier with like second, third and fourth—first and fifth they have less time to do work, so I have to kind of divide things and make it work for them." Second, remote students were not required to turn on their video cameras. Due to student confidentiality, I was not allowed to take pictures of the remote classroom environment on Google Meet. However, participants in this study were often faced with rows of blank, black screens like the one shown here (See Figure 5).

Figure 5

Example Google Meet from Mecher (2020)



Since the county did not require that remote students turn on their cameras, teachers could not be sure who remained in class unless they used a response tool or directly called on remote students. Bruce explained the problem of calling on remote students:

> Your ability to call on individual students is limited and if they were in front of me, I'd be able to say "well, Julie what do you think" and it's a little more difficult on here. Sometimes you will say a kid's name on here and they will have stepped away. So, you don't actually get a response. So, you sit there with a 30-second gap and then you call on somebody else you know, or somebody says "oh they got kicked off or they lost their connection.

During my observation, Bruce called on several remote students during direct instruction but did not get a response. At Norwood, leaving the in-person classroom typically required a hall pass. However, remote students could leave from the Google Meet at any point. I witnessed students

noting in the chat that they were going to the bathroom or taking a quick break from the Google Meet, but this was not always the case.

Third, technology limitations and district policy impacted opportunities for collaborative work. In-person students were discouraged from logging into the Google Meet during class due to bandwidth issues. Additionally, as Cora explained, not all remote students had access to reliable internet. Bruce explained that the district also discouraged the use of breakout rooms in Google Meet due privacy issues and student safety concerns. In the in-person classroom, students were subject to masking and social distancing requirements which further affected instructional decisions. There were fewer desks in the physical space, and students were spread apart. Additionally, I observed teachers sitting at their desks or standing near their desks for most of each lesson. This was a departure from their pre-Covid practice but necessitated by the need to be near the desktop computer to manage the Google Meet and other instructional technology.

Finally, the pandemic brought changes to end-of-course testing requirements. As lead teacher, Cora attended a meeting about state testing when the school year began. She recalled, "we went to a Webinar with the Virginia Department of Education and Christonya Brown, who is over that for social studies, and she said that "yes, there would be SOL testing for accreditation purposes." Cora explained that teachers in the meeting asked where they could make cuts in the state curriculum due time loss. Cora stated, "we were told that all of it is important and none of it can be taken out." However, after I conducted my research, the state reduced the passing score from 400 to 350 to compensate for the conditions of synchronous and asynchronous learning. School districts also had the option of continuing with end-of-course testing or using locally developed performance-based assessments.

Continuity and Change in Curricular-Instructional Responses

This study found four specific areas where teachers responded to pandemic educational contexts through a combination of continuity and change in their curricular-instructional decisions and pedagogical practices. First, teachers kept consistency with the routines and practices from their pre-pandemic classroom by covering the standardized curriculum, adding additional content, and relying on lecture-based direction instruction. Second, teachers changed their instructional delivery methods to better align with remote instruction. Third, teachers tried new instructional strategies, adapted existing assignments to the new modalities, and expanded their knowledge of instructional technology. Fourth, teachers adapted their classroom assessment practices to better suit the contexts of synchronous remote learning. The integration of content knowledge, knowledge of contexts, and knowledge of pedagogy are apparent throughout these findings. These efforts to adapt existing knowledge and develop understanding of new contexts is illustrative of pedagogical content knowing.

Consistency of Curriculum

During my observations, I found that teachers continued to cover the state world history curriculum and expanded the historical narrative by adding content. For example, the essential understanding of World History I Standard 3c. requires that students know that religion was a major part of life in all early civilizations. The bulleted facts in the framework include the words monotheism and polytheism (See Figure 6). No specific gods identified are identified

Figure 6

Excerpt from World History I Curriculum Framework

STANDARD WHI.3c

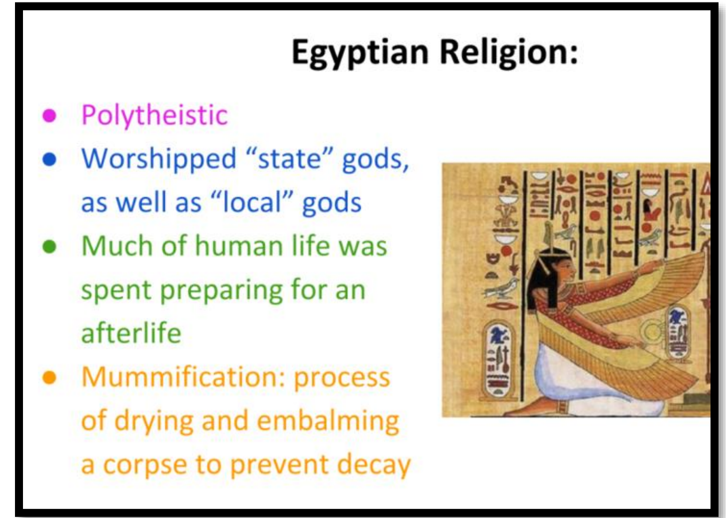
The student will apply social science skills to understand the ancient river valley civilizations, including those of Mesopotamia, Egypt, the Indus River Valley, and China and the civilizations of the Hebrews and Phoenicians, by
c) explaining the development and interactions of religious traditions;

Essential Understandings	Essential Knowledge
Religion was a major part of life in all early civilizations.	**Development of religious traditions** • Polytheism was practiced by most early civilizations. • Monotheism was developed by the Hebrews. • Mesopotamian religion continued to influence Hebrew monotheism, but that influence decreased over time.

in the curriculum framework for this standard and the term mummification is mentioned. However, Cora referenced Egyptian gods like Ra and Anubis in her lecture and explained the process of mummification in her slides (See Figure 7). The additional information expanded

Figure 7

Cora's Slide on Egyptian Religion



the narrative, connected with students might already know about ancient Egypt, and offered context for the concept of polytheism. Acting as gatekeeper, Cora determined how to cover the curriculum. She also made decisions regarding historical significance and added content absent from the curriculum framework that she deemed important.

The world history teachers in this study identified different reasons for adding material to the curriculum. Bruce explained his curricular-instructional decision this way:

> I want to tell an interesting story and to me like the bits that are –the tidbits that are interesting to me you know I include in the story because I feel like they will be interesting to others. And I feel like that's the hook—if it's just the pyramids are tombs, the leaders are called pharaohs, it's a hierarchical society—that's really boring—um so you have to have some kind of hook."

For Bruce, it was important to hook students with interesting historical facts and embellish the narrative to make history more interesting. In her lesson on global trade, Tessa explained that she went beyond the content in the curriculum framework to help students make connections. She noted:

> I think I went a little bit further them what the standards said because I think the standards are just very general "hey this is how the Ottoman empire trades" "this is how Japan trades" –which I did but I also wanted to make sure they understood the connections between those things because as we move forward again to um like the World Wars and things that are gonna become more interconnected in the years—I want to make sure that when we talk about those things I can say "hey, remember how these things connected before".

Many of Tessa's curricular-instructional decisions were based on importance of connections. She further explained "I'm kinda trying to figure out ways to streamline the essential knowledge in ways that creates either neuro connections for the kids in terms of like a mnemonic or something or like timeline chronology connections, content connections—so they can build on one another." The essential knowledge became notes in her slideshows, but the additional

information in the lecture and her choice of strategies reflect the focus on connections. Each participant used direct instruction to explain historical content and make help students establish connections.

Participants in this study continued to use lecture-based instruction as the primary method of direction instruction even though they changed the delivery format. I observed each participant engaged in some form of lecture-based direct instruction during all my observations. In the synchronous remote classroom, world history teachers continued to rely on the transmission model of direct instruction to cover the standardized curriculum.

Instructional delivery

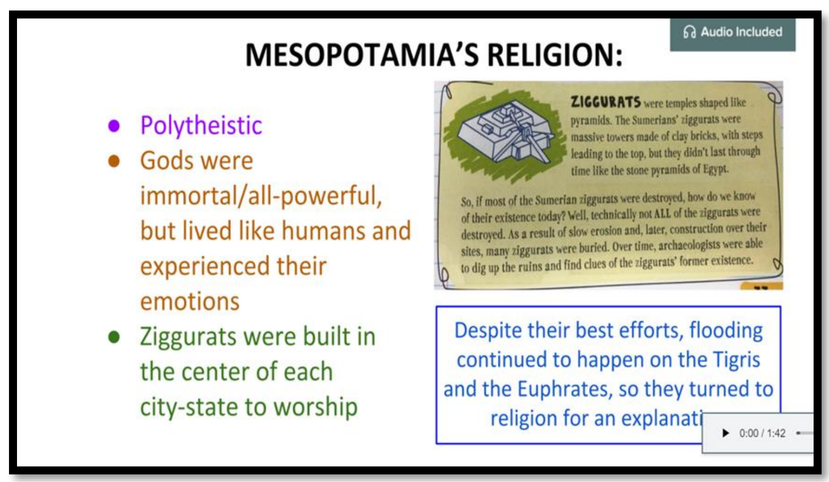
Each participant adapted their delivery of classroom instruction to accommodate new environmental conditions. Cora's shifted from teacher-paced to student-paced Pear Decks, and Bruce stopped giving lectures based on his own slides and showed lecture videos from another teacher. Tessa and Natalie conducted lecture-based direct instruction much like they had in the traditional classroom. However, both modified their existing lecture materials by transforming their PowerPoints or Google slides into Pear Deck presentations. While each participant made changes and adapted to the remote context, there were continuities underlying each change.

Pear Deck and Lecture-Based Direct Instruction

The use of Pear Deck was a commonality among three participants. Pear Deck is an online instructional tool that works with both Google and Microsoft products. Teachers can create new Pear Decks or integrate interactive question response items into existing presentations (See Figure 8). Response slides can serve as formative assessments or provide students with

Figure 8

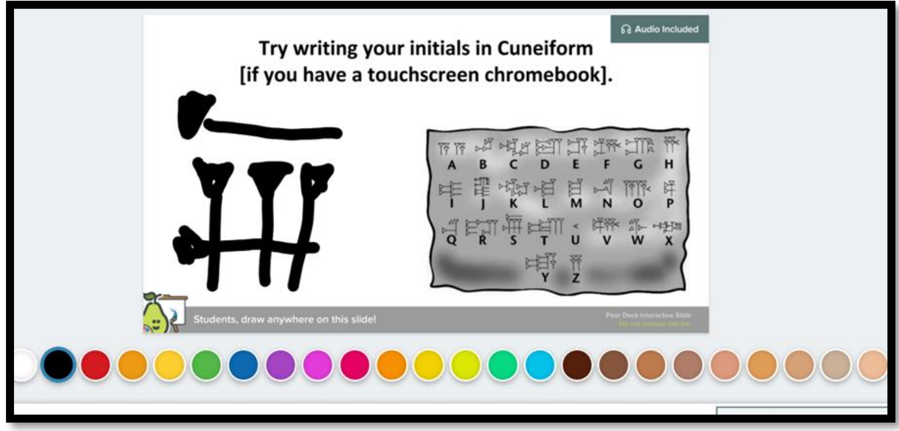
Example of Pear Deck Notes Slide



Response slides can serve as formative assessments or provide students with processing or experiential opportunities. For example, Cora's students were given the opportunity to write in cuneiform using their touch screen devices (See Figure 9). Pear Deck promotes the use of

Figure 9

Example of Interactive Response Slide



formative assessment, retrieval practice, and active learning (Pear Deck, 2021). Pear Deck formative assessment templates can be adapted to a topic or teachers can design their own assessment slides. These slides serve as to check understanding and provide teachers with actionable feedback. Pear Deck presentations can be student-paced or teacher-paced. With teacher-paced Pear Decks, teachers lecture in real-time, and students complete interactive

response slides within the presentation. Teacher-paced Pear Decks can be used for face-to-face instruction and synchronous remote classes. Student-paced Pear Decks allow students to work at their own pace as they work through the presentation asynchronously.

Continuity and Change: Pear Deck in Cora's Classroom

Before COVID and the transition to hybrid instruction, Cora used teacher-paced Pear Deck presentations in her direct instruction. She lectured in real-time, posed questions for discussion, and monitored student processing through the interactive response slides. However, for the 2020-2021 school year, Cora adapted her teaching methods and recorded lecture audio for each slide. Both in-person and remote students worked through the slide show independently. Although she played the audio aloud in class, she did not lecture in real time. Cora approached direct instruction asynchronously which was a major departure from her traditional teaching methods. After the Pear Deck, students completed an independent activity like a WebQuest or reading. Cora explained her instructional choices stating:

> I have an air purifier in my room, so it is a little more difficult to hear…we will get through the Pear Deck and again Pear Decks are not going to be any more than twenty minutes because we don't have that kind of time.

While the physical environment of Cora's classroom impacted her instructional decisions, she also designed instruction to meet the needs of remote learners. The lack of reliable internet concerned Cora. She explained:

> It's just so overwhelming trying to implement all these different types of technology when you have some kids that don't have the strongest internet. Like some kids don't have internet to support Google Meet which is why I don't

require them to stay in it the whole time. That's why I prerecord my lectures so it's easier for them to get access to the content.

Environmental conditions surrounding both in-person and remote learning impacted Cora's curricular- instructional decisions. She changed her instructional delivery to align with the environmental contexts and meet the needs of her students.

Continuity and Change: Pear Deck in Natalie's Classroom

Despite all transitions to hybrid instruction, Natalie tried to keep her lessons as close to the original as possible. In the first interview, she explained "I do anticipate there being some changes . . . I'm going to figure out what works and what doesn't work but so far, I'm pretty much doing everything as close to the original as I can." However, by the time of my first observation, she made her PowerPoints into Pear Deck presentations. The content stayed the same, but she incorporated formative assessments into the Pear Deck that were not part of the original slides. She commented, "my goal with using Pear Deck was to get them [students] more engaged and kinda be able to see their responses a little better than I was the first couple weeks." Natalie adapted her instruction as she became more familiar with remote learning. When describing her approach to hybrid instruction Natalie explained, "to be honest, I'm not…entirely satisfied with it but I'm still learning because I'm not super tech savvy." As Natalie's knowing of remote learning strategies grew, she adapted her instructional practices to meet both her needs as teacher and the needs of her students.

Continuity and Change: Lecture Videos and Primary Sources in Bruce's Classroom

Before the pandemic, Bruce lectured using PowerPoint slides, but his primary instructional focus was the integration of primary sources into each lesson. He explained his approach to teaching this way:

> I just write my notes. I wrote them years ago and haven't really updated them –I mean western civilization hasn't changed appreciably in my career. Um, but I don't think of my notes as what I teach—I don't teach from my notes, I teach from primary sources. You know when I say "we are coming in here to study history—you are coming in here to examine historical documents and to think about them and to have a conversation."

Through lecture, supported by questioning and student discussion, Bruce covered the world history curriculum.

Bruce's concern for equity, led him to change his instructional delivery when schools reopened in fall 2020. He showed lecture videos created for the New York Regents Global curriculum instead of lecturing from this typical slide presentations. He periodically stopped the videos to clarify, add commentary, or ask questions. Bruce wanted to create a class that provided both sets of students with the same experience. He explained:

> Everybody in class is going to have the same experience of class that day whether they are sitting in front of me or whether they are sitting at home. That means I have to tailor it to the ones at home. That means it's effectively—you're remote in person.

He relied on lecture videos to cover curriculum, but also showed additional YouTube videos on related content. Both Cora and Bruce structured content delivery with their remote students in mind. Questioning and discussion were a common practice in Bruce's pre-pandemic classroom. He connected with students through dialogue and by engaging with their physical presence in the classroom. However, due to the pandemic educational contexts remote learners could be logged into the Meet and not physically be present for the synchronous instruction.

Bruce retained the use of primary sources in his instruction while on the hybrid instructional model. During both observations, students were engaged with primary source documents. The first day, students read and analyzed sections from *Hammurabi's Code* and then answered questions related to social class. The following day, students examined writings from Egyptian vizier, Ptah-Hotep. Once again, the curricular focus was social class in the ancient world which directly aligned with the standards. However, the instructional approach to the Ptah-Hotep source was different. Students were asked paraphrase Ptah-Hotep's teachings and put the source material into their own words (See Figure 10).

Figure 10

Ptah-Hotep Primary Source Activity Excerpt

Source: The Instruction of Ptahhotep	**Student's Paraphrase:** In your own words, what do you think Vizier Ptah Hotep's Proverbs Mean?
Be not proud because you are learned (educated); but discourse with the ignorant man, as with the sage. For no limit can be set to skill ,neither is there any craftsman that possesses full advantages. Fair speech is more rare than an emerald that is found by slave-maidens on the pebbles.	
If you find an arguer talking, a poor man, that is to say, and not your equal, do not scorn him because he is lowly. Let him alone; he will confound himself. Question him not to please your heart, neither pour out your wrath upon him that is before thee; it is shameful to confuse a mean mind. If you are about to do what is in your heart, overcome it as a thing rejected by princes.	

In both instances, Bruce determined the primary sources and provided a specific scaffold to support students as they engaged in source work.

Continuity and Change: Collaboration in Tessa's Classroom

Tessa lectured using both PowerPoint and teacher-paced Pear Deck slides and relied on direct instruction to cover most of her curriculum. However, Tessa's class was the only place I observed in-person and remote students working collaboratively. Discussion was important in

her pre-pandemic classroom, and she was not willing to completely abandon the practice. However, she explained that pandemic conditions made it difficult to get students to engage with each other and the material. Tessa said:

> I can't do any of the really cool discussion-based or hand on type of things even in a hybrid environment with the whole 6 feet its just not possible even when they are in the room. Um, the other problem I'm noticing is that even the discussed based type things that should theoretically work through digital means like Google Meet or Zoom or whatever just aren't happening and not because they don't want to have a conversation. It's because they are feeling so isolated that they are not wanting to interact.

Tessa worked to integrate dialogue and collaboration into her instruction to create community among her students and combat the isolation created by remote learning and distance requirements. Tessa explained:

> What I am trying to do is obviously make sure that the kids have the content knowledge they need and practice with the questions and practice with sources and all those types of things that they need, but I'm trying to create a community in a weird way.

Tessa created opportunities for students to work together in her hybrid classroom because she believed collaboration promoted the development of a classroom community, helped the students feel connected, and provided opportunities to process the historical content.

During my observations, Tessa adapted a paper-based station activity on the Columbian Exchange to Google Docs and Google Slides. She partnered remote and in-person students together in groups and instructed students to dialogue with each other using the comment

features in Google. Tessa told students she would drop into their Google Docs to monitor progress and the instructions noted her intention to review version history to assess individual contributions (See Figure 11).

Figure 11

Columbian Exchange Stations

WHAT TO DO

1) There are four stations and seven groups. Each station will give edit access to your entire group, but ONLY your group. Station 4 MUST be completed LAST.
2) Work with your group to complete each station. Each member must contribute. (Version History is a thing y'all.)
3) Once you have completed your stations, designate ONE group member to turn in each station.
4) Then, complete the Exit Ticket Google Form on your own.

In this way, Tessa adapted her practices from the traditional classroom to the virtual environment and continued instruction with her preferred pedagogies.

Integration of New Strategies and Changes to Assignments

As previously shown, participants sought new strategies and adapted existing instruction to formats like Pear Deck, Google Slides, and Google Forms. Before the transition to hybrid instruction, Tate County teachers individually decided how Google Classroom and the Google Workspace (formerly Google Suite) tools were incorporated into their practice. Some incorporated Google Classroom and the Google Workspace tools slowly, while others, like Bruce, worked to go "paperless" before the pandemic. Therefore, teachers in this study had varying degrees of proficiency with the Google Classroom as a learning management system and the Google Workspace tools.

Natalie and Cora acknowledged that the transition from a traditional, paper-centered environment to a virtual one was a learning curve. Although Tate County provided professional development on applications like Pear Deck, participants seemed to be learning many of the new strategies by themselves or from each other. During the pandemic, participants adopted new practices, adapted existing routines and assignments, and abandoned practices that were not viable in for the remote environment.

Continuity, Change and Google Workspace: Cora's Classroom

Cora found the transition from the traditional classroom to remote instruction challenging because she lacked expertise with applications like Google Forms. Additionally, she was unfamiliar with strategies for teaching and engaging remote learners. Cora explained that the transition to remote learning required "a complete mind shift." She stated, "I do not like technology—I don't trust technology. I am very much a paper/pencil girl—I believe in old school learning, and this has required a complete mind shift. It has upended my entire process of teaching." Despite using Pear Deck before the pandemic, Cora found the transition to hybrid instruction and the increased reliance on Google Classroom challenging.

During Cora's lesson on Mesopotamia, students completed a reading and answered comprehension questions in a Google Form. She selected one version from a leveled reader that best suited her whole class. Cora used secondary sources like textbooks and leveled readers before the pandemic. However, this year she adapted to remote instruction by creating a Google Form. She found the experience less than satisfactory. Cora said:

> I wanted to make it more meaningful and have them do a secondary source and look at reading and answering questions and honestly with the Google Form, I

> hated it. It wasn't fun to grade. It wasn't fun to do. Um, I would much rather read through it together as a class and then process that way but here we are—COVID.

Cora adapted her instructional choices to the requirements of remote learning but felt that another approach would have been more effective. She also explained that she purchased activities from the Teachers Pay Teachers website because she could not "comprehend the technology piece enough to give them [students] something worthwhile to manipulate." Cora modified her Pear Decks to better align with the needs of her students in the hybrid contexts, but she found the increased use of technology and lack of effective strategies for remote learning challenging.

Continuity, Change, and Assignment Choices: Bruce's Classroom

Of the participants, Bruce had the most experience with online learning and seemed the most comfortable with remote instruction. Many of his assignments were uploaded into Google Forms or Google Docs before the pandemic, but not all. Bruce abandoned one of his typical assignments that could not be effectively transitioned into the hybrid environment. For years, his honors and AP students completed chapter or unit identifications. Students used the textbook to handwrite definitions or identifications for significant terms, places, people, and events. However, this assignment did not transition well to the digital environment. Bruce explained:

> With Corona you can't have them do IDs. IDs are not gonna work. I gave them access to the quizlet page where the IDs live—so they are there on flashcards and I can't really grade notebooks, I can't grade IDs because I have no way of getting the paper and if I let them do the IDs or notebooks digitally it will be copy and pasted—what's the point? Right? Um, that's just throwing a lot of grading effort

> after a lot of copying—you know—I took 20 seconds to throw this on the page and have no idea what it says and now you spend a half hour grading it.

The digital context diminished the value and utility of the identification assignment. For Bruce, the fact that students could easily cut and paste from the internet, instead of drawing from the textbook, made the assignment difficult to adapt. He abandoned the assignment because it lost its efficacy as a learning activity.

Classroom Assessment Practices

A combination of student characteristics and environmental contexts influenced changes in classroom assessment practices. Participants noted the inability to visually monitor students and a lack of student engagement as the major challenges of remote instruction. These circumstances led teachers to use more formative assessments and redesign their summative assessments.

Three teachers in this study introduced more formative assessment into their daily instruction and altered their summative assessment practices in response to hybrid instruction. Cora, Tessa, and Natalie integrated formative assessments, in the form of quick checks for understanding, into their lecture-based direct instruction. During the pandemic formative assessments had a dual purpose. First, to check for understanding, allow for processing, and provide feedback. Second, to monitor student presence and participation. Additionally, all participants reduced the number of multiple-choice tests used as summative assessments and Bruce, Tessa, and Cora replaced most multiple-choice tests with project-based assessments.

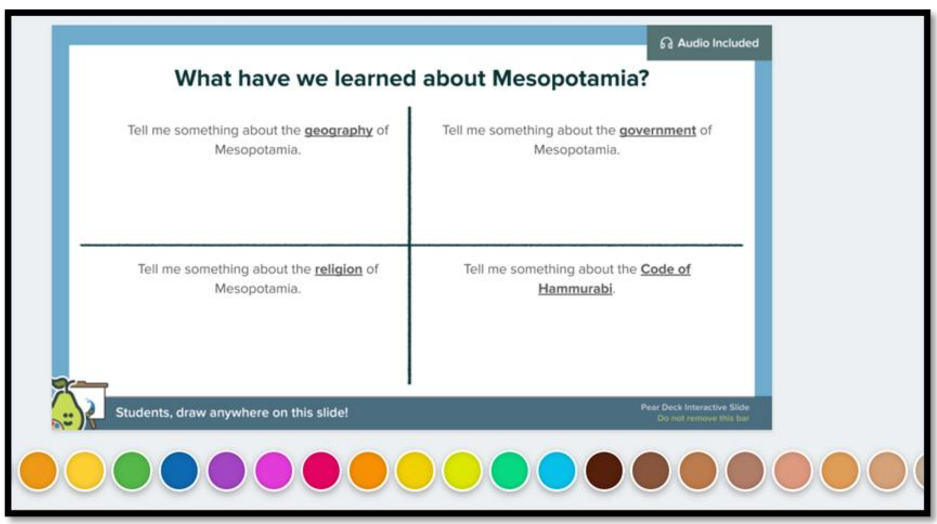
Continuity in Formative Assessment: Cora's Classroom

Cora used formative assessments in her Pear Deck presentations to provide opportunities for student processing before the pandemic. However, the continued use of Pear Deck allowed

her to monitor student participation. She explained, “in this environment it’s really hard to monitor progress when you never see some kids other than looking at their activities.” In her lesson on Mesopotamia, Cora asked students complete a formative assessment by telling her something they learned about the geography, government, and religion of Mesopotamia (See Figure 12).

Figure 12

Formative Assessment on Mesopotamia

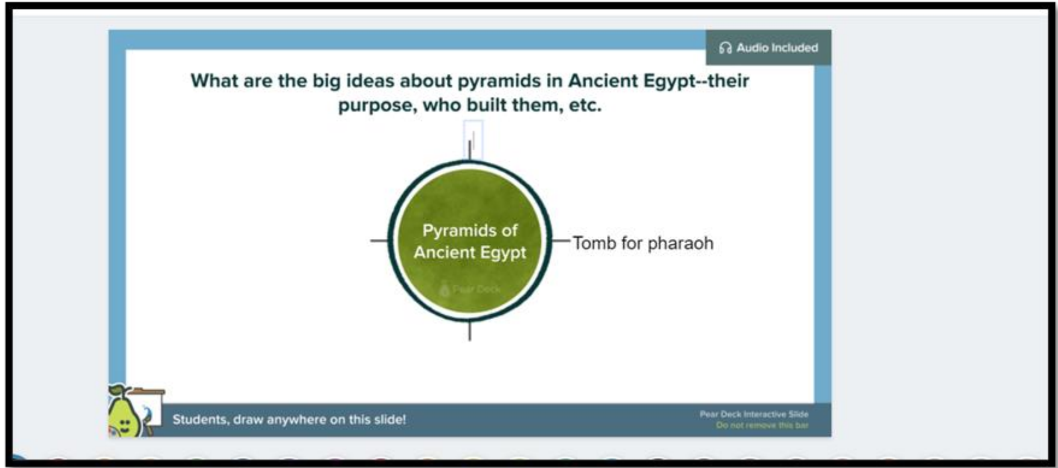


Cora designed this assessment with the standardized curriculum and state assessment in mind. She commented, “I know what I want to ask them because I know what they need to know.” She went on to say, “really all of the formative assessments that’s just the essential knowledge.” Cora expected students to pull evidence from the Pear Deck but allowed for student choice. Cora repeated this format with each of her ancient river valley lessons. Student completed similar assessments on Egypt, India, and China.

Cora used a web diagram assessment on pyramids in her Pear Deck on Egypt (See Figure 13). Since I observed in Cora’s class as a remote student, I also engaged with her Pear Decks and completed part of the graphic organizer.

Figure 13

Formative Assessment on Egypt



Cora explained that she designed her assessments with her lesson objectives and end goals in mind. She commented:

> I've been teaching World I for so long I know in general what I like to ask them and how I like to route them through the content so when I get the opportunity … I can just pop it into the PearDeck.

She further explained that Pear Deck was "the only way that I know they're engaging in the content." Although Cora used Pear Decks before hybrid instruction, she added more formative assessments to monitor student understanding. These assessments were especially important for Cora's remote students who completed much of the course work asynchronously.

Change in Formative Assessment: Tessa and Natalie's Classroom

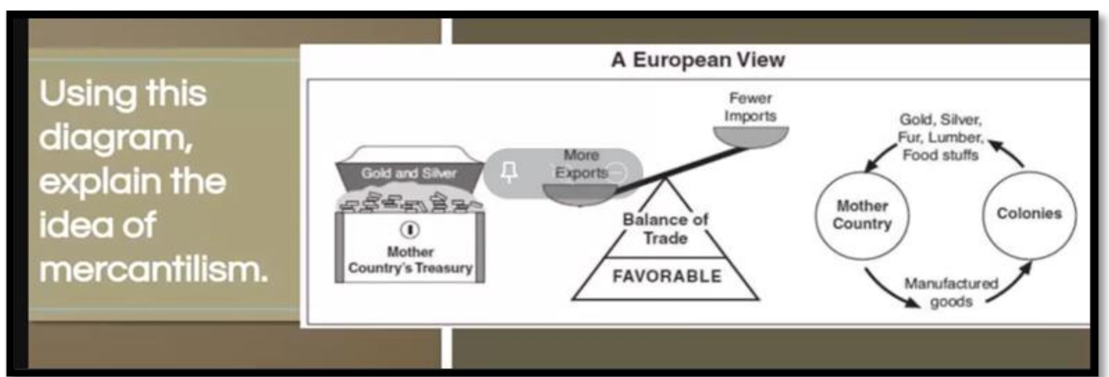
Tessa slowly transitioned to Pear Deck before the pandemic, but now integrated it into direct instruction almost daily. She made existing PowerPoint presentations into Pear Decks and integrated formative assessments to track student processing. She commented: It [formative assessment] gives me a quick idea of if they [students] understand what I just said or do the kids

understand what I said three slides ago—are they retaining it? Or can they make a connection, or can they interpret um depending on what I'm looking for.

Tessa designed formative assessments to address specific information in the curriculum and create opportunities for students to either make connections for themselves with the content or establish connections across history. For example, Tessa asked students to explain the concept of mercantilism in relation to a diagram (See Figure 14).

Figure 14

Mercantilism Formative Assessment



She told students "There is a reason I keep putting this image out there." Tessa later told me that the image came from a released end-of-course assessment. Tessa's knowledge of released SOL tests influenced her decision to integrate this assessment into her lesson. She also explained that she focused on concept of mercantilism because it played role in upcoming units. In this way, she focused on connections across historical periods. She remarked:

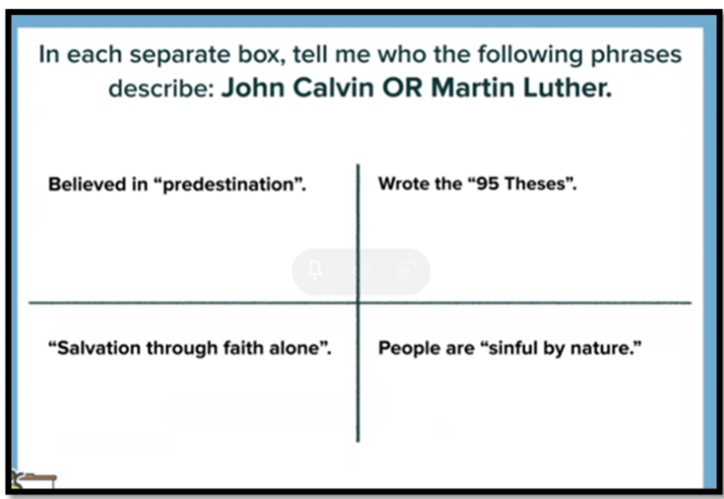
> I know that mercantilism is a big part of that standard piece in the SOL, and I also know that it would probably show up in some way, shape or form either in a graphic form or they may ask a text question about it but um it's also a really key piece moving forward.

For Tessa, it was important that her students understand the concept of mercantilism because it underpinned future learning and was found on the end-of-course assessment.

Natalie incorporated a diverse selection of formative assessments into her Protestant Reformation Pear Decks. She used questions in Pear Deck as both diagnostic and formative assessments. For example, Natalie asked students "Tell me one thing you remember learning about during our last class?" This type of low-pressure assessment gave students choice and allowed them to reflect on what they recalled from the previous lesson. She integrated a range of formative assessments into her Pear Decks including short answer questions, true/false, and opinion questions. In one example, Natalie asked students to match essential knowledge with the correct Reformation leader (See Figure 15). To assess student learning, she locked the Pear Deck presentation to prevent students from simply copying from the slides.

Figure 15

Luther and Calvin Formative Assessment



Before hybrid instruction, Natalie's students completed slot notes as she lectured. She typically assessed their understanding and engagement during lecture using visual cues. Natalie explained:

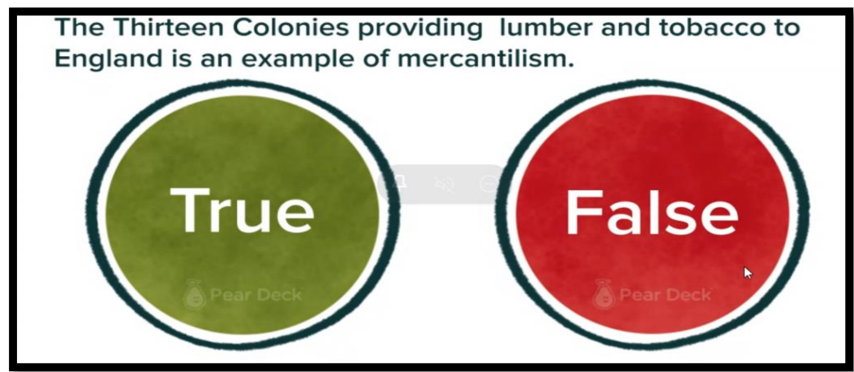
> I usually kind of gauge their faces in person. If they're looking really puzzled, if they're really just out of it and look like they're just miserable—like I know that they're not picking up what I'm saying—they're not here—they're not listening.

However, the limitations of Google Meet and the mask mandate made it difficult for Natalie to read facial expressions and spontaneously assess student understanding. She adapted her direct instruction to include Pear Decks to compensate for the lack of visual assessment opportunities.

Tessa and Natalie both engaged in reteaching based on evidence from these formative assessments. For example, Tessa asked students to respond to a true/false question on mercantilism (See Figure 16). She could view student responses in real time and noticed that one

Figure 16

True/False Question on Mercantilism



remote student answered incorrectly. Since she could not visually see the student, she pivoted and quickly reviewed the material for everyone. Tessa went to the whiteboard and drew a diagram to represent the scenario (See Figure 17). In this way, feedback from the formative

Figure 17

Reteaching Example

enabled Tessa to immediately address student misunderstanding before she continued with the lesson.

Change in Summative Assessment: All Participants

Cora, Bruce, and Tessa noted using more project-based assessments due to hybrid instruction. Tessa explained that she wanted to create assessments that were "not Google-able" to ensure that remote and in-person students had the same assessment experience. Cora commented, "I shifted focus from traditional multiple-choice tests to end of unit projects with meaningful questions to provoke thoughtful responses." Cora assigned students to complete project-based assessments like unit snapshots (See Figure 18) or ABC books. Cora integrated project-based assessments that were digital, allowed student choice, and reviewed important curriculum.

Figure 18

Unit Snapshot

- Each slide has a different event that helped shape the history of Ancient Rome
- You will need to add **2-3 pictures** that represent/illustrate that particular event
- You will also need to add basic information: **4-5 bullet points**
- On the LAST slide, you will choose the event that you think had the most impact and influence on the progress and culture of Rome. You will need to include the **title** of the event, the **dates** which it occurred, and **4-6 sentences** explaining why you think it was the most important event.

In this example, Cora tasked students to create Google slides with bulleted information and pictures for the unit on ancient Rome. One the final slide, students selected one event in the and explained why it was the most important event in Roman history. In this way, students made decisions about historical significance based on their understanding of the content. Cora was pleased with the results of these summative assessments. She explained "it is clear to me that they [students] synthesized more overall information" in comparison to multiple-choice tests."

Cora noted that the use of project-based assessments offered opportunities for her students to take on the role of historian and engage in doing history. For the first time in her career, passing the end-of-course assessment was not the primary goal. She explained:

> I found that my assessment practices were more impactful when I started implementing end-of-unit projects, instead of the standard multiple-choice test. It allowed me the freedom to have students put what they had learned into their own words--using images, responding to open-ended questions, and making connections within the unit itself, and connecting to previous units.

Cora felt that she had freedom to move away from multiple-choice tests because of the educational contexts created by the pandemic.

Bruce also made changes in his summative assessment practices. Bruce used an interactive notebook assignment in his AP European History classes for years. Students completed a combination of tasks from a choice board for this assignment. Students worked collaboratively and completed a combination of tasks from a choice board of assignments (See Figure 19).

Figure 19

Interactive Notebook

Interactions Chart for your Interactive Notebook

Star (Creative, Artsy)	Circle (Big picture, connections, review)	Square (Charts and Tables)	Triangle (Analysis, Synthesis)
A. Pictures with descriptions	A. Connections to outside world	A. Create a Map	A. Textbook Examples
B. Collage	B. Connections to your own life	B. Analyze Map	B. List of Review Questions
C. Book Cover	C. Connections to Vocab	C. Label Map	C. Article Analysis
D. CD Cover	D. Reflections	D. Concept Map	D. Paraphrase notes
E. Illustrated Definitions	E. Connection to current events	E. Flow Chart	E. Additional Examples
F. "Pictowords"	F. Examples of _________	F. Annotated Map	F. Perspective Piece
G. Postcard	G. Review worksheet	G. Timeline	G. Corrections
H. Comic Strip	H. "What if?" Statements	H. Graphic Organizer	H. Brainstorming
I. Political Cartoon	I. Double Entry Journal	I. Venn Diagram	
J. Propaganda Piece		J. Compare Maps	
K. Song Lyrics		K. Spoke Diagrams	
L. Mnemonics		L. Spectrums	
M. Facebook Statuses		M. Frayer Model	

The assignment choices include a perspective piece, connections assignments, question writing, timeline, and various mapping activities. Core instructional practices like use of evidence, historical perspectives, and continuity and change are evidenced

Before the pandemic, students worked together and completed the assignment using time in class and outside of class. Bruce planned for students to work together in Google Meet break out rooms. However, he explained:

> I thought we were going to be able to use Google Meet in breakout groups, but we are not. We were kinda expressly told not to because they didn't want them to video and share things over video and us not be there—so what I've been having them do—I've been having them chat in the comments of the project that way there is a record of it, and they also have to share their groups work with me.

To compensate for loss of breakout rooms, Bruce asked students to meet virtually outside of class or collaborate in Google slides using comment feature. In previous years, Bruce reserved this assignment for advanced placement students. However, as he reduced the number of multiple-choice assessments, he decided to use this assignment in both regular and honors sections of World History I.

Natalie's experience with project-based assessments (PBAs) was different. She noted, "I initially tried to use project-based assessments, but there was a lot of late and outright missing assignments." Natalie decided to keep multiple-choice tests as her summative assessment practice because her students struggled to complete projects. She explained that it was easier for students to complete PBAs when they were in person. For this reason, she retained multiple-choice tests, but changed the delivery method to Kahoot because it was more game-like. Natalie made curricular decisions based her knowledge of both students and pedagogy.

Maintaining the Teacher-Student Relationship

Participants in this study attempted to build relationships with students, especially remote students, using social-emotional learning and various forms of communication. Due to the contexts of pandemic instruction, teachers had difficulty getting to know their individual students—especially remote learners. After a month of being in school, Cora explained:

I still don't know my students. I know maybe 5 to 7 that are in the classroom or talk to me on a regular basis whether they are emailing me or actually asking questions in the chat. Um, but I don't know them well enough yet to determine really what's the best practice—what's the best way that they learn. […] Its very disheartening for me and I'm sure it is for the kids.

Before hybrid instruction, Cora noted being able to build relationships quickly with her students. As she gained knowledge of her students, she selected strategies and designed instruction that built on her students' strengths and interests. However, limited interaction with both in-person and remote learners made this common pedagogical practice more difficult. Like Cora, Tessa found it difficult to build relationships with her remote students. Tessa felt that her pre-pandemic classroom was a safe space for students, and she worried about the well-being of all students, but particularly those who were remote full-time.

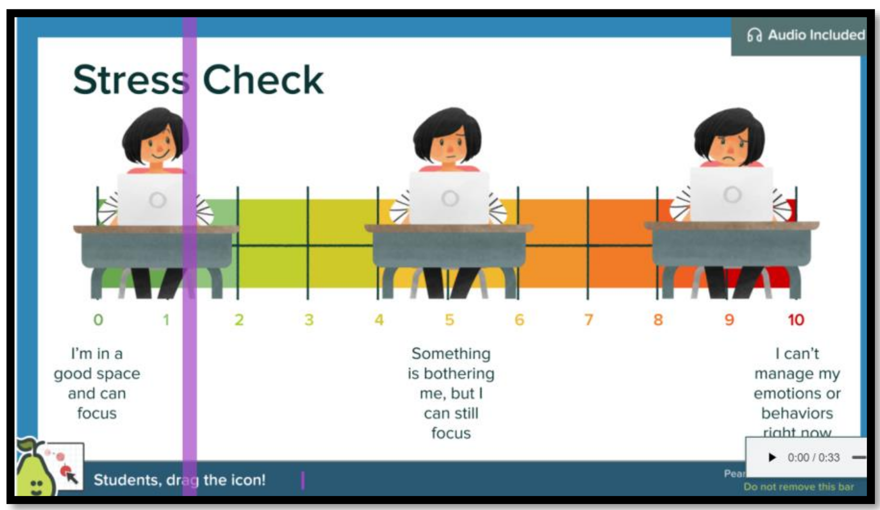
Given their concerns, both Cora and Tessa integrated social-emotional learning slides into their Pear Decks. For example, Tessa posed the question "What's something you've heard, seen or experienced recently that has bothered you and you would like to discuss in class?" Tessa explained her decision and the importance of social-emotional learning stating:

Part of it is more what's going on with COVID and mental health issues and all of the stresses that I recognize my kids are having. Every once in a while I will stick a slide like that in there. [. . .] I'll go "lets fill in your bucket today what's in your bucket" and I just get kids to talk to me—especially with this hybrid learning it's really hard to get kids to trust you and get them to talk to you about things and I want to make sure that my kids feel supported even if it has nothing to do with content.

Pear Deck offered a variety of social-emotional learning slide templates that can assess student well-being and help teachers get to know their learners. For example, Cora used a pre-made stress check slide (See Figure 20) to assess how students were feeling as they worked asynchronously through the Pear Deck. This slide helped her gauge how students were feeling at a time when she could not physically connect with half her students.

Figure 20

Social-Emotional Learning Example



Additionally, the recorded audio on this slide, served as a way for Cora to dialogue with her students like she would in the traditional classroom.

The findings of this study showcase how world history teachers combined routines and practices from the traditional classroom and made curricular-instructional changes for remote instruction. Teachers acted as gatekeepers as they added content to the curriculum, made pedagogical choices to meet the needs of their students, and grew their knowledge of remote teaching by trying new strategies or adopting old ones.

Discussion

Graham Nuthall (2004) wrote, “teaching is an interactive process in which teachers must always be creating or adapting methods to meet the requirements of the curriculum as it relates to the specific needs and abilities of their pupils at particular moments in time” (p. 276). The COVID-19 pandemic is one such “moment in time” where teachers adapted their teaching methods or employed new ones to meet the needs of their students. However, when participants deviated from the performances, cadences, and routines of the traditional classroom, they often did so to maintain consistency for themselves and the students during a time of incomparable uncertainty.

This study answered one primary research question. That question asked, how did the pandemic shape the curricular-instructional decisions and pedagogical practices of world history teachers? The findings of this study indicate that the contexts of remote instruction, especially the inability to see remote students in the Google Meet, necessitated many of these curricular-instructional changes. The nature of world history stayed the same, but teachers made changes to classroom assessment practices to increase student engagement, obtain evidence of student understanding, and monitor the presence of remote students. Additionally, the instructional decisions and pedagogical practices that emerged from pandemic conditions began as reactions to shifting educational contexts but are also representative of wise and effective practice. Teacher decisions to integrate formative assessment into daily instruction, especially lecture-based direct instruction, align with research on best practice for how students learn (Black & Wiliam, 1998a, 1998b; Pellegrino et al., 2001; Popham, 2008, 2009).

Cochran et al. (1993) devised pedagogical content knowing to “emphasize the importance of teachers’ knowing about the learning of their students and the environmental

context in which learning, and teaching occur" (p. 263). As a constructivist concept, pedagogical content knowing is the product of experience (Cochran et al.,1993; Doolittle & Hicks, 2003). Teachers modified instructional practices as they learned more about teaching on the hybrid model. With each lesson, participants came to understand which strategies and routines worked effectively within the new context. All participants adapted their teaching, but some made more instructional changes than others. The findings show that as teachers gained experience with remote learners and the context of hybrid instruction, they further developed their pedagogical content knowing which in turn shaped their decisions as gatekeepers.

Consistency of Curriculum

Virginia has an expansive world history curriculum. World History I covers prehistory to the Renaissance and World History II begins with the Renaissance and ends with the early 2000s. Given my experience as a world history teacher, I began this study expecting participants to make significant cuts to the standardized world history curriculum given the loss of instructional time. However, the findings show that participants covered the material in the curriculum framework and added content into the teacher-planned curriculum. In terms of core practices, teachers added historical content that they believed significant to the historical narrative. Cora included topics like mummification in her lecture notes and referenced Egyptian mythology. These pieces of information were absent from the curriculum framework, but Cora deemed them significant and relevant to the story that she wanted to tell about ancient Egypt. As a gatekeeper, she made the decision about what her students would learn. These choices also illustrate wise and effective practice because Cora selected content that went beyond the standardized curriculum for the purpose of piquing student interest (Yeager, 2000).

As Cora recalled, state social studies leaders advised that all curriculum was important and should be taught. It is possible to attribute the actions of world history teachers to this directive. Although it seems more likely that teachers found stability in the world history content and their content knowledge. Instructional delivery methods changed but the curriculum remained. There was consistency and cohesiveness in the world history curriculum which offered stability despite disruption in context and general anxiety caused by a global pandemic.

Classroom Assessment Practices

The most significant finding of this study was the increased use of formative assessments. Without the ability to visually monitor student, teachers introduced ways to continually check for student understanding as well as ensure participation. Natalie, Tessa, and Cora relied on formative assessments within their Pear Deck slideshows for evidence of student learning. In keeping with the literature on formative assessments, their assessments were planned, frequent, and provided opportunities for processing as learning was taking place (Black & Wiliam, 1998b, Pellegrino et al., 2001; Trumbull & Lash, 2013). The response slides were interwoven into direct instruction and were established as a consistent part of the classroom practice (Pellegrino et al., 2001).

Black and Wiliam (1998b) maintained that "dialogue with the teacher provides the opportunity for the teacher to respond to and reorient a pupil's thinking" (p.144). Findings indicate that formative assessment became a form of dialogue between both student and teacher and student and the curriculum. In the pre-pandemic classroom, teachers asked questions, talked with students during class, and walked around the room to monitor student progress and participation. The functionality and fluidity of these routines did not translate to Google Meet. In

this study, teachers relied more on written expression because fewer students made verbal contributions during instruction.

Formative assessments create and capitalize on moments of contingency and contribute to the regulation of student learning (Black & Wiliam, 2009). The authors explained that these moments can be synchronous and asynchronous. Tessa retaught the concept of mercantilism during a synchronous moment of contingency. These synchronous moments allow teachers to regulate learning by responding to student misunderstanding in real time. Formative assessments also provide students with moments to monitor and correct their own learning. A recent review of literature on formative assessment found that "when the learner is active in their own learning the effectiveness of formative assessment interventions was further enhanced" (Lee et al., 2020, p. 135). In this way, students regulated their own learning through assessment feedback. This was especially important for remote learners who were physically separated from both teacher and peers. For teachers in this study, formative assessments were one way they interacted with most students daily.

Black and Wiliam (1998b) explained that teachers need to be aware of student progress so that they can meet the needs of all learners. Cora noted that formative assessments were "a good way to check not only my teaching but also their learning." In this way, the feedback from formative assessments provided a way for teachers to measure the effectiveness of their teaching in addition to monitoring student progress. This type of formative feedback has the potential to improve both instructional effectiveness and student learning. Pellegrino et al. (2001) maintained that "ideally, assessment will not simply be aligned with instruction, but integrated seamlessly into instruction so that teachers and students are receiving frequent but unobtrusive feedback about their progress" (p. 256). Natalie and Tessa provided students with feedback when they

went over the assessments in class and engaged in reteaching if the data showed evidence of misunderstanding.

Research suggests that formative assessments are a key component of wise and effective practice (Black & Wiliam, 1998a, 1998b, 2009; Popham 2008, 2009). Yeager (2000) maintained that wise educators interact frequently with students though different instructional methods. Formative assessments provide a way for teachers to frequently engage with students during remote instruction. Torrez and Claunch-Lebsack (2014) contended that classroom assessments should serve a constructive purpose. Formative assessments during the pandemic were constructive because they provided opportunities to check for understanding and monitor student presence and participation. Furthermore, Fogo (2018) identified formative assessment are a core instructional practice for history education. Despite considerable research on the effectiveness of this practice, Shemilt (2018) noted that a paradigm shift to formative assessment was still absent from most classrooms. Pandemic educational conditions prompted three teachers in this study to integrate formative assessments into their direct instruction for the first time, use them more consistently, or increase their use in Pear Deck. For Cora, the use of formative assessments was a continuation of pre-pandemic practice, but this practice was an alteration in approach for Tessa and Natalie. With bodies replaced by blank screens, teachers found alternative ways to connect with students and convey content. Formative assessments in Pear Deck became a point of connection between teacher, student, and content.

The transition from multiple-choice tests to project-based summative assessments aligns with a larger trend in assessment across both Virginia and the United States (Grant, 2017; van Hover et al., 2022). At present, states are replacing end-of-course tests with project-based or performance-based assessments (van Hover et al., 2022). van Hover et al. (2022) explained:

> This push for authentic assessment is being enthusiastically endorsed as a move away from regurgitation of factual content and toward performance-based activities that recognize disciplinary skills and ways of knowing in the content areas that fall under the umbrella of social studies. (p. 239)

The curricular-instructional decisions of Cora, Tessa, and Bruce are representative of this trend. However, it appears that participants made these changes out of necessity rather than an intentional move toward performance-based assessment.

Although the interactive notebook was not a new activity, Bruce chose to introduce this assignment to his regular World History I course in addition to Honors and Advanced Placement. Additionally, pandemic educational contexts had a liberatory effect on Cora's summative assessment practices. The instructional focus shifted from preparing students to pass an end-of-course test to "simply having students learn, process, and grow." Cora chose to measure student growth through ABC books, Unit Snapshots, timelines, photo collages, and by explaining connections across the world history curriculum. Interactive notebooks and Unit Snapshots are authentic assessments because students have choice, use evidence to support their thinking, and are engaged in higher-order thinking (Breakstone et al., 2013). These assessments also provide a way to monitor and manage the work of remote students. Classroom assessments were one way to make remote students visible.

These classroom assessment decisions also reflect a shift in educational outcomes. During the pandemic, promoting and monitoring student growth became more important than preparing students for an end-of-course test. Overall, participants in this study made changes to classroom assessment in response to environmental and educational contexts of the pandemic.

However, these changes align with trends in social studies classrooms and research on instructional best practices in assessment.

Remote Instruction and Equitable Practices

Findings show that teachers learned practices for remote teaching through professional development, individual research, and by sharing with members of their department. Cora's use of Pear Deck served as a model for Tessa and Natalie. Like most K-12 teachers in the United States, participants in this study had little or no experience with synchronous remote instruction. Additionally, even though students had one-to-one devices and the school district used Google Classroom before the pandemic, individual teacher knowledge varied. Findings indicate that Natalie and Cora became more familiar with Google Forms through trial and error.

Directives from the Virginia Department of Education encouraged teachers to consider equity and the needs of vulnerable student populations when making curricular-instructional decisions (Lane, 2020; VDOE, 2020). This research shows that world history teachers were concerned about maintaining equity between remote and in-person students. Cora, Bruce, and Tessa were all cognizant of assessment equity, cheating, and lack of reliable internet when making decisions. The wanted to make sure that both groups of students had the same instructional and assessment experiences. Since participants could not monitor the remote environment, most transitioned to more project-based assessments. By contrast, Natalie chose to design multiple-choice tests in Kahoot because her remote students struggled with performance-based assessments. Kahoot will randomize questions and change answer orders. She explained, "I did what I could to make it harder to cheat, but I know some of my students still managed to work around it." Natalie was aware that cheating might occur, but student success was more important than the potential for cheating.

Instructional Decisions and Pedagogical Content Knowledge

Yeager (2000) noted that wise and effective practitioners have a good understanding of both content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge. World history teachers in this study show evidence of the four components of PCK relevant for history and social studies education (Monte-Sano & Budano, 2013). Participants *represented history* when they used formative assessments to access prior knowledge, created a cohesive narrative by adding material to the standardized curriculum and chose activities that aligned with the discipline like primary source analysis. Each participant *transformed history* through their choice of instructional materials. Participants in this student found it difficult to facilitate effective classroom discussion. Remote students were less likely to answer questions either orally or in the chat and the lack of breakout rooms made it difficult to have small group discussion. However, participants *attended to student ideas about history* by using formative assessments or primary source analysis. Cora, Tessa, and Natalie addressed misconceptions and built on student knowledge with a wide array of processing opportunities. Participants also framed history by emphasizing historical significance and connections. Tessa and Cora both created lecture, formative assessments, and supporting activities to help students identify connections across the historical narrative. Cora reused the same formative template so students could see continuity across ancient river valleys. Similarly, Tessa reiterated the importance of mercantilism because of its historical significance in upcoming units.

The themes of continuity and change are evident throughout this study. As historical concepts, continuity and change are interwoven, and change is a process (Seixas & Morton, 2013). For teachers in this study, adapting to the environmental and educational contexts of the COVID-19 pandemic was certainly a process. Educators made decisions based on their

pedagogical content knowing and, in every decision, it is possible to find both consistency and adaptation. Teachers made curricular-instructional decisions and determined their pedagogical practices in reaction to pandemic educational contexts. Although teachers were new to the hybrid model and remote instruction, some of their decisions were indicative of wise and effective practice especially in areas like classroom assessment. They created a planned curriculum and both in-person and remote students had opportunities to engage in curriculum enactment.

Implications

Teachers and students are now in their second full year of pandemic education. This study has clear implications for both teacher education, in-service teachers, and educational research. First, teacher education programs should prepare students to teach in multiple modalities. The days of working solely in the in-person classroom are past. This means that teacher educators must stay current on instructional technology and design opportunities for students to practice with learning management systems and digital pedagogy.

Teacher preparation programs should also educate students on how to create instruction centered around the principles of universal design for learning (UDL). UDL offers a framework for teaching and learning that addresses the needs of all learners and is applicable to both in-person and online environments (CAST, 2022; Rose & Meyer, 2002). Rose and Meyer (2002) explained that barriers to learning occur when learners interact with inflexible materials and instructional practices. The authors maintained that the integration of digital pedagogies and educational technologies allowed for more flexibility in learning.

Second, although most schools have returned to in-person learning teachers need continued professional development on effective and wise practice for virtual instruction. As the pandemic continues, teachers may have a mixed schedule of remote and in-person classes.

Professional development can support teachers in staying current with continually evolving instructional technologies. Additionally, current trends suggest that the most important educational technology tools will focus on human interaction, relationships, and community building (Morrison, 2021). Houghton Mifflin Harcourt CEO, Jack Lynch, predicted that educators will seek out technology that allows teachers to personalize the learning experience and incorporates the most beneficial experiences from the in-person classroom (Morrison, 2021).

Third, social studies researchers must determine effective strategies for remote learning and hybrid instruction by conducting studies in asynchronous and synchronous remote environments. Educational technologies seen in this study, like Pear Deck, can be used across disciplines and are not social studies specific. Additionally, more research needs to be conducted in social studies classrooms on the design and implementation of formative assessments.

In terms of future research, I would like to revisit each world history teacher and determine what tools and practices they kept from their hybrid classroom. I am especially interested in discovering if teachers returned to their pre-pandemic classroom assessment practices or continued to use formative assessments and project-based summative assessment.

Conclusion

The educational and environmental contexts created by the COVID-19 pandemic influenced the curricular-instructional decisions of world history teachers. As participants gained experience with remote learning, their pedagogical content knowing reflected this shift in understanding. As the school year progressed, teachers constructed new knowledge that influenced their pedagogical practices and made decisions to better serve their students in these uncertain times. Participants prioritized checks for understanding and monitored student well-being. Although many of their decisions were reactions to new contexts these reactionary choices

became effective practice. Throughout the study, world history teachers exemplified the theme of continuity and change as they retained practices from the pre-pandemic classroom and adapted to the new contexts of remote instruction.

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Appendices

Appendix A

IRB Approval Letter

Division of Scholarly Integrity and Research Compliance
Institutional Review Board
North End Center, Suite 4120 (MC 0497)
300 Turner Street NW
Blacksburg, Virginia 24061
540/231-3732
irb@vt.edu
http://www.research.vt.edu/sirc/hrpp

MEMORANDUM

DATE: July 7, 2020

TO: David Hicks, Suzanne Peyton Shelburne

FROM: Virginia Tech Institutional Review Board (FWA00000572, expires October 29, 2024)

PROTOCOL TITLE: Webs of Knowledge: Teacher Knowledge, World History Curriculum, and the Teacher-Curriculum Relationship

IRB NUMBER: 20-558

Effective July 7, 2020, the Virginia Tech Human Research Protection Program (HRPP) determined that this protocol meets the criteria for exemption from IRB review under 45 CFR 46.104(d) category (ies) 1,2(ii).

Ongoing IRB review and approval by this organization is not required. This determination applies only to the activities described in the IRB submission and does not apply should any changes be made. If changes are made and there are questions about whether these activities impact the exempt determination, please submit an amendment to the HRPP for a determination.

This exempt determination does not apply to any collaborating institution(s). The Virginia Tech HRPP and IRB cannot provide an exemption that overrides the jurisdiction of a local IRB or other institutional mechanism for determining exemptions.

All investigators (listed above) are required to comply with the researcher requirements outlined at:

https://secure.research.vt.edu/external/irb/responsibilities.htm

(Please review responsibilities before beginning your research.)

PROTOCOL INFORMATION:

Determined As: **Exempt, under 45 CFR 46.104(d) category(ies) 1,2(ii)**
Protocol Determination Date: **July 7, 2020**

ASSOCIATED FUNDING:

The table on the following page indicates whether grant proposals are related to this protocol, and which of the listed proposals, if any, have been compared to this protocol, if required.

Invent the Future

VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE AND STATE UNIVERSITY
An equal opportunity, affirmative action institution

Date*	OSP Number	Sponsor	Grant Comparison Conducted?

* Date this proposal number was compared, assessed as not requiring comparison, or comparison information was revised.

If this protocol is to cover any other grant proposals, please contact the HRPP office (irb@vt.edu) immediately.

Appendix B

Interview Guide

Background

1. Tell me a little bit about yourself

Educational Autobiography

1. What is your educational background?

Teaching Experience

1. How many years have you been teaching and what courses have you taught?

World History Knowledge

1. How much course work or experience did you have with world history as a content area before teaching either World History I or World History II?
2. Which content areas in world history do you feel most knowledgeable about? Where did you obtain this knowledge?
3. What content areas in world history do you feel the least knowledgeable about?
4. What is your opinion of the world history curriculum found in the SOLs and Curriculum Framework?
5. Are there any topics absent from the World History curriculum that you think should be included? Please discuss. If so, how do you incorporate this content into your lessons?

Teaching Philosophy

1. Why did you decide to become a history teacher?

Approach to Teaching

1. How do you approach planning for a lesson or unit?
2. Where do you get the content or curriculum that you teach in your world history course?
3. When I come into your classroom, what will it look like?
4. How do you develop:-organize curriculum for your course? Why do you do it this way?
5. How do the Standards of Learning and Curriculum Framework influence your planning and instruction?
6. How does the SOL end of course test impact your instruction?
7. What would you do differently if the SOLs and Curriculum Framework did not exist?
8. What would you do the same if they did not exist?

Instructional Methods

1. What instructional practices do you typically use and why?
2. What instructional strategies do you think are the most effective for teaching world history?
3. How do you determine what instructional strategies to use during your lesson?

Appendix C

Follow-Up Questions

- Did your assessment practices change due to hybrid instruction? If so, how?
- If any of your practices changed, please explain why.
- Did the reduction of the SOL passing score affect your assessment choices? If so, explain.
- What types of classroom assessments did you typically use in the traditional (non-hybrid) classroom?
- What types of classroom assessments did you use last year with hybrid instruction?
- If you used Pear Deck, I noted the use of formative assessment slides in your slideshows. Did you use formative assessment slides in your slideshows prior to using Pear Deck? If so, please describe.

Appendix D

Consent Form

VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE AND STATE UNIVERSITY

Consent to Take Part in a Research Study

Title of research study: ***IRB# 20-558 Webs of Knowledge: Teacher Knowledge, World History Curriculum, and the Teacher-Curriculum Relationship***

Principal Investigator: Dr. David Hicks, hicks@vt.edu, (540-231-8332)
Other study contact(s): Suzanne Shelburne, sshelbur@vt.edu, (540-392-9283)

Key Information: The following is a short summary of this study to help you decide whether or not to be a part of this study. More detailed information is listed later on in this form.

This study seeks to explore how teacher knowledge shapes and is shaped by the teacher-curriculum relationship. This study seeks to answer the following overarching question: How are the pedagogical practices and decisions of one world history teacher shaped by teacher knowledge, curriculum, and contexts? Participation in this study is voluntary.

Why am I being invited to take part in a research study?

I invite you to be part of this research study because you are teaching world history on the secondary level. Participation in this study is voluntary.

Detailed Information: The following is more detailed information about this study in addition to the information listed above.

Who can I talk to?

If you have questions, concerns, or complaints, or think the research has hurt you, talk to the research team at **David Hicks (hicks@vt.edu)** and **Suzanne Shelburne (sshelbur@vt.edu)**

This research has been reviewed by the Virginia Tech Institutional Review Board (IRB). You may communicate with them at 540-231-3732 or irb@vt.edu if:

- You have questions about your rights as a research subject
- Your questions, concerns, or complaints are not being answered by the research team
- You cannot reach the research team
- You want to talk to someone besides the research team to provide feedback about this research

How many people will be studied?

We plan to include no more than __5___ people in this research study. This is not a multi-site study.

Why is this research being conducted?

The purpose of this study is to explore how teacher knowledge shapes and is shaped by the teacher-curriculum relationship.

Consent to Take Part in a Research Study

What happens if I say yes, I want to be in this research?

- You will be expected to participate two primary interviews lasting 60-90 minutes. All interviews will be conducted virtually using Zoom or Google Meet.
- Answer a series of short reflection questions by email before and after teaching two of the observed lessons and provide instructional materials for one unit
- Your participation in this study will last a maximum of 20 hours over a period of 1-4 weeks depending on school schedule
- The co-investigator, Suzanne Shelburne, will conduct the interviews
- You may participate in an optional member check of findings later in the research process
- The research will be conducted during the Fall semester of 2020
- The interviews will be audio and/or video recorded.
- You will be asked allow the researcher to view online synchronous teaching or view video recordings of direct instruction/lecture for at least two class periods
- None of these procedures are part of a course or class.
- The researchers do not know of any risks associated with participation in this study

What happens if I say yes, but I change my mind later?

You can leave the research at any time, for any reason, and it will not be held against you.

If you decide to leave the research, contact the investigator so that the investigator can destroy your interview materials and remove your data from the study. You will not be asked to explain your reason for withdrawal.

Is there any way being in this study could be bad for me? (Detailed Risks)

There are no known risks to participating in this study.

Taking part in this research study should not lead to added costs to you since all research procedures take place virtually. Public school systems provide internet access on site to employees.

What happens to the information collected for the research?

We will make every effort to limit the use and disclosure of your personal information, including research study and medical records, only to people who have a need to review this information. We cannot promise complete confidentiality. Organizations that may inspect and copy your information include the IRB, Human Research Protection Program, and other authorized representatives of Virginia Tech.

No other organizations will have access to the data and there are no challenges to participant confidentiality.

Paper copies of interview transcripts, observation data, instructional materials and results from data analysis will be stored for a minimum of three years. Materials will be kept in a locked filing cabinet at the co-researcher's home. During long term storage, the co-researcher will have access to

Consent to Take Part in a Research Study

the data. When data is destroyed, paper copies will be shredded, and electronic copies will be deleted.

The results of this research study may be presented in summary form at conferences, in presentations, academic papers, and as part of a thesis/dissertation.

Can I be removed from the research without my OK?

The person in charge of the research study or the sponsor can remove you from the research study without your approval. Possible reasons for removal include an accident or illness that makes it impossible for the participant to fully participate in the research study

What else do I need to know?

- You will not receive compensation for participating in this study.

Signature Block for Capable Adult *(contact HRPP for questions about adults not capable of providing consent)*

Your signature documents your permission to take part in this research. We will provide you with a signed copy of this form for your records.

_______________________________ _______________
Signature of subject Date

____
Printed name of subject

S. Sh[signature]
_______________________________ _______________
Signature of person obtaining consent Date

Suzanne Shelburne
____
Printed name of person obtaining consent

Conclusion to the Dissertation

These manuscripts focus on curriculum and instruction in world history. While the studies are very different, there are main five points of comparison. First, formal curriculum serves as a foundation for the work of classroom teachers. However, teachers also create a planned curriculum where they can expand the historical narrative to include material that they think is interesting or significant. The enacted curriculum is what happens in the classroom. Curriculum enactment illustrates how teachers and students engage with the historical content.

Second, both studies conclude that teacher knowledge plays an important role in teaching world history. The findings and implications from these two manuscripts suggest that college courses and professional development can provide both pre-service and in-service teachers with the knowledge required to both address gaps in the standardized curriculum and teach in different learning environments.

Third, concerns for equity rest at the heart of both studies. World history teachers during the pandemic designed their lessons to address concerns over internet access and make sure that in-person and remote students had equitable learning experiences. Similarly, world history teachers must be cognizant of issues of representation in the curriculum. The gender imbalance in the world history curriculum, especially the absence of women of color, speaks volumes about racial and gender inequality. Teachers must be prepared to address gaps and challenge stereotypes.

Fourth, educational policy decisions impact the work of teachers. State and district decisions regarding mask mandates, hybrid instruction, and Google Meet affected the instructional decisions of educators during the pandemic. In the same manner, curricula are

educational policies. The events, ideas, and individuals included in the world history curriculum are purposely chosen and educators are tasked with teaching the material.

Finally, both these studies are illustrative of how continuity and change occur differently in the field of social studies education. Teaching like history is defined by varying degrees of change and continuity and these factors can lead to progress or decline. The global pandemic required that teachers adapt to new contexts and some of these changes aligned with research on wise and effective practice. However, in terms of representation and inclusivity in the world history curriculum, the path of continuity perpetuates gender stereotypes, and the limited changes fail to reflect the achievement and progress of women over time.

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