

A critical analysis of the curricular landscape of secondary Social Studies across the Deep South
since the rise of standardization and accountability with No Child Left Behind

by

Katelyn Dodd

B.S., Winthrop University, 2017
M.Ed., Clemson University, 2021

AN ABSTRACT OF A DISSERTATION

submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

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Abstract

Social Studies as both a field and subject in K-12 education is nebulous and is constantly changing. Since each state is responsible for their own education system, the result is that how Social Studies (and specifically history) is taught in each state differs. History education has proven to be a way that societies can move beyond their history or a way to control the population and legitimize the current social order. The purpose of this study was to complete a critical discourse analysis in the form of textual analysis of the Social Studies curricular landscape in the Deep South and the changes that have occurred since the rise of accountability and standardization around 2001. This study aimed to find patterns of change within the Deep South, in order to also explore how educational policies have helped shape Social Studies education in the region. This study was an analysis of standards (both historical and current) and legislation (both enacted and proposed) from the five Deep South states. Drawing from critical orientations conceptualizing curriculum and discourse, this critical discourse analysis was to connect both the overt and hidden curriculum in the Deep South with the legislative support that allows it to continue. The research found that In the Deep South, the official knowledge required by the state is biased, focused upon the history of white men, heavily influenced by economic principles, and representative of the geographic location of the states in the Bible Belt. The standards, as supported by legislation both enacted and proposed, emphasize and recreate the current social order that is built upon systems of inequality. With the current political climate and the election of the 47th president, this research is pertinent as standards in conservative-dominant areas, such as the Deep South, are revised and implemented.

Key Words: standards, educational policy, U.S. History, curriculum, knowledge

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Approved by:

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But I have trusted in your steadfast love; my heart shall rejoice in your salvation. I will sing to the Lord, because he has dealt bountifully with me. – Psalm, 13:5-6

Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my grandparents – both those still here and not. Gran and Pop, you are missed every day and I wish you were here to watch me finish this life-long dream. Nana and Papa, you helped push me to this degree and I appreciate all your support through the process.

To my students – past, present, and future – you inspire me to keep going and to make sure the world is a better place.

And, this dissertation is for educators throughout the Deep South who use their classrooms to make sure students are taught an accurate reflection of history and who make sure their students are critical thinkers and empathetic people. Thank you for your bravery.

“History, as well as life itself is complicated – neither life nor history is an enterprise for those who seek simplicity and consistency.”

- Jared Diamond, *Collapse*

Chapter 1 - Introduction

Research Context

Social Studies (and Social Studies education) can be a difficult term to define. However, the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) adopted a definition in 1992:

...the integrated study of the social sciences and humanities to promote civic competence. Within the school program, Social Studies provides coordinated, systematic study drawing upon such disciplines as anthropology, archaeology, economics, geography, history, law, philosophy, political science, psychology, religion, and sociology, as well as appropriate content from the humanities, mathematics, and natural sciences. (National Curriculum Standards for Social Studies: A Framework for Teaching, Learning, and Assessment | Social Studies, n.d.)

While each state is unique in their required standards for various Social Studies classes, across the United States, the most prevalent subjects in secondary Social Studies standards are United States History and Government (or Civics), with over 90% of states having these standards required for graduation. Not far behind are World History, Economics, and Geography (See Supplementary Table in Appendix J).

However, Social Studies education is an ever-changing landscape. Social Studies is one of the disciplines at the heart of the fight over whose past, present, and future are worth considering as valuable knowledge in Social Studies classrooms; and, more broadly, over the purpose of education (Miner, 2023; Salman, 2023; Sawchuk, 2022).

The primary purpose of Social Studies is to help young people make informed and reasoned decisions for the public good as citizens of a culturally diverse, democratic

society in an interdependent world. (National Curriculum Standards for Social Studies: A Framework for Teaching, Learning, and Assessment | Social Studies, n.d.).

One viewpoint is that education should be focused on the relaying of sanctioned information and improving the knowledge of students (Glaser, 1984). Another viewpoint is that education should be focused on the development of skills and making sure the next generation workforce is prepared (Glaser, 1984). Ideally, the education system would be focused on the joys of learning, and creating a populace that is well-rounded in both skills and knowledge and has a passion for learning. Alas, that will only happen if the world turns into a utopia. Instead, the reality of education is that the system is designed to create the next generation of workers and to make sure they have the skills and knowledge deemed necessary by the governments of the states (Wilson, 2005), with particular perspectives and ways of knowing positioned as more valuable than others (Apple, 2019). No matter the perspective on education, Social Studies is an important piece of a student's education (Burroughs et al., 2005).

Since the turn of the century, the education system in the United States has continued to develop and adapt to concurrent social and economic needs. This includes updating what students are expected to know, as well as creating new policies and legislation to support various education reform movements. While states are in control of their own education system, the federal government does pass legislation and policies from their Department of Education to support the right of all children to receive a public education. These pieces of legislation - such as the Elementary and Secondary Education Act in 1965 (ESEA), No Child Left Behind Act in 2002 (NCLB), and the Every Student Succeeds Act in 2015 (ESSA) - all have played a part in how state governments create standards, policies, and legislation for their education systems (McGuinn, 2006; NY State Archives, 2009). While it is up to the individual states as to how

changes occur in their education systems, states are held accountable by the federal government for student achievement and growth. This can especially lead to contention in a field such as Social Studies where it can be challenging to determine how to test a discipline that can be ever-changing. The accountability the federal government requires typically results in high-stakes testing, which has a major impact on Social Studies education and the content taught within the classroom (Grant, 2007). This fight over accountability and what content should be included in Social Studies can be seen very clearly in the South – and in particular, how those in power in the South respond to the initiatives of the federal government in their standards and policy drafting.

While the “South” as a cultural region can be difficult to identify, the Deep South is a more defined geographic region in the United States (Merriam Webster, n.d.). Comprised of five states, the region has a tumultuous history—particularly in its relationship to the federal government. This can be seen in the fights over implementation of federal pieces of education legislation. Typically, conservative-dominant areas desire to see less government involvement, and therefore wish to see less government control over the legislation of education and history. The definition of “conservative” is nebulous, and is constantly changing (Kumar, 2023). There are common characteristics associated with conservatism throughout the definitions, however. Those include characteristics such as the importance of the free market, an emphasis on tradition, an idea of morality typically based in the Christian faith, and specifically in the Post War Era after World War II, a firm anti-communist stance, and a belief in individual rights (Phillips-Fein, 2011). Sometimes, this is represented as being resistant to change (Gross, et. al., 2011) or an emphasis on nationalism (Kiely, 2021). For this particular project, “conservative” includes the characteristics of a capitalist economic focus, an emphasis on tradition and the status quo,

Christian morality, and being very pro-American. Typically, conservatives vote for the Republican Party (Phillips-Fein, 2011). The Deep South is a conservative-dominant region, as evidenced by the numerous years of the elections in those states electing Republican candidates, as well as their situation in the “Bible Belt.”

Also a nebulous term, the Bible Belt is considered to be a, “religiously conservative or fundamental region in the American South and sometimes the Midwest” (Brunn, et. al., 2011; p. 1). The exact location of the Bible Belt has changed somewhat over the years as scholarship has developed, but both Zelinsky (1961) and Heatwole (1978) define the Bible Belt as an area where Protestant denominations are the predominant religious affiliation. Brunn and his colleagues (2011) used the same metrics from Heatwole’s research in 1978 to update the map, and determined that the Bible Belt covers the region of Northern Texas to Western North Carolina, and from Mississippi to Kentucky - which includes all five states of the Deep South. Therefore, the Deep South - which is both a conservative-dominant region and situated in the Bible Belt - can have a strenuous relationship with the federal government and its attempts to be involved in the educating of students. This was seen most clearly in the early 1990s as the standards movement ground to halt and was crushed in the Senate over the national history standards created by the National Center for History in Schools (Celis, 1993; Whitman, 2015). The resounding criticism of the history standards caused the Senate to vote 99-1 to denounce those standards, resulting in an unwillingness to move further with any national standards (Whitman, 2015). This push for, and then against, the idea of standards (particularly in the field of Social Studies) highlights the important discussion of who decides what knowledge counts in Social Studies. This discussion has not ended, and is only continuing in the current political climate.

Statement of the Problem

Social Studies as a discipline can be nebulous. This is partially because a key question within the discipline is what content counts as Social Studies - and then within defining the overarching subjects in Social Studies, further questions must be asked about what specific knowledge within those subjects is deemed acceptable and necessary to teach to students. This discussion is a necessary one in the Deep South, in particular, due to the political and cultural background of the region.

The teaching of history is one of the most effective ways to combat or control a population's understanding of their context in both society and the world around them. One example of how history is being taught to combat ignorance and hate is in Germany. There, the schools have helped to take on the mantle of Holocaust education - making sure that history is remembered and not repeated (Psaltis et al., 2017). There is not an avoidance of the hard topic to try and minimize its importance in history, or to not make Germans feel guilty for the atrocities committed. Instead, there is a recognition of the past, its challenges and damages, and a commitment to making sure it does not happen again. South Africa has been the opposite. The South African government during apartheid used history education to control the ignorance of the oppressed population. They chose to intentionally not educate the populace about the history of the world so that people would not question the social stratification occurring and challenge those in power (Noah, 2016). Both of these examples of the teaching of history illustrate the potential control and influence of educational decision-makers to shape curriculum and public knowledge (Apple, 2019)

In the Deep South, which is heavily conservative, the discussion over what history should be taught can be contentious. The "Lost Cause" myth is still strong, and there is strong

“Southern” pride across the region (Maurantonio, 2019; Seger, 2022). This leads to fights over historical monuments (Burch-Brown, n.d.; Cox, 2019), the names of buildings and roads (Hennigan, 2022), and what is included in the teaching of Social Studies (Huffman, 2019). These fights over history and how it should be memorialized have created a challenge for Social Studies teachers in the Deep South. There is a need to teach the standards as they are given, while also balancing the understanding that the standards (and policies and legislation) are created with biases in an already tense political climate.

Therefore, in the Deep South, analyzing the content and creation of standards, policies, and legislation related to Social Studies education, as well as how these have evolved in light of standardization is crucial in the discussion about what the purpose of education is and the current state of Social Studies education in the Deep South. Without an understanding of the contemporary educational conditions of Social Studies in the Deep South it is difficult to discern whether students are being taught relevant, accurate information in their Social Studies classes untainted by groups in power.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to complete a comprehensive, critical discourse and textual analysis of the Social Studies curricular landscape in the South and the changes that have occurred since the rise of standardization and accountability - most notably, since the passage of No Child Left Behind (NCLB) in 2001. This study aimed to find patterns of change within the South, in order to also explore how educational policies have helped shape Social Studies education in the region. This study is an analysis of standards, enacted legislation, and proposed legislation from the five Deep South states. This study aimed to examine patterns of change within the Deep South in order to also explore how the educational legislative landscape has

helped shape Social Studies education in the region. Social Studies education is increasingly under scrutiny and pressure to conform to societal expectations (Hess & McAvoy, 2015; Kryczka et al., 2024; Stevens, 2023; Tatter, 2022). Therefore, finding these patterns of change and identifying how educational policies can influence Social Studies education can provide crucial information for researchers, those directly involved with classroom teaching, and legislators looking to make an impact on the education system. In summary, this study is aimed at examining how Social Studies in the Deep South has (not) evolved and how government legislation, policies, and standards have caused those changes.

Research Questions

This project analyzes the landscape of Social Studies education in the Southern United States since the passage of the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) in 2001. Specifically, the following research questions guided this study:

1. How has the Social Studies curricular landscape evolved in the United States Deep South since 2001?
 - a. How have Social Studies standards evolved in the United States Deep South since the rise of standardization and accountability?
 - b. How has the educational legislative landscape shaped Social Studies education in the United States Deep South since the rise of standardization and accountability?

Rationale and Significance

History has a pattern of rhyming with itself. When society does not remember its past, it cannot learn from its mistakes - which means it cannot apply those lessons to improve its future. Therefore, teaching history (and other subjects within Social Studies) is vitally important for the next generation to learn. In a society where a portion of the population is trying to edit history

and only teach one perspective of history, it is important that the whole of history is taught. History is not a single story - it is made up of multiple perspectives, voices, and contexts. When history is taught in a binary state (e.g., heroes and villains), it erases the idea that identities are multidimensional and that reactions, decisions, and movements are systemic (Van Kessel & Crowley, 2017). However, there is not an understanding of what that should be at the national, state, or local level. These debates intersect with what to educate and be educated means and looks like.

Each state possesses its own standards - its own requirements for what students are required to know. Each state also has its own policies and perspectives on the teaching of history, and that can change based upon who holds the power currently. Curriculum is a form of sanctioned knowledge - legitimizing and securing the continued social order through both the overt and hidden curriculum (Apple, 2019). Each state approaches this in their own unique way to make sure that their social order remains, and that the curriculum taught meets the needs of the continued social order. Therefore, those in power will create policies, standards, and legislation to support a curriculum that continues the current power and social structure. This then informs—even constrains—the practices of students, teachers, and educational institutions to only (re)producing particular ways of knowing. This then also brings into question how standards and legislation built within this idea of curriculum have an impact on the skilling of knowledge, and the focus on what students are expected to do instead of broadening what they should know (Apple, 2019).

This continued discussion over curriculum and the split between overt and hidden knowledge is not the only political fight around education. Most states also have passed or attempted to pass policies that provide parents with more control and input into the instructional

materials in the classroom - thereby introducing another dimension of the debate over what history should be taught in classrooms (PEN America, 2023). Therefore, a comprehensive analysis of how the Deep South is approaching Social Studies education is timely and necessary to further the conversation about how and why we teach history. Additionally, this study also adds to the literature surrounding the contentious relationship between state governments and the federal and state governments in the field of education. By analyzing for the patterns of educational change in Social Studies across the Deep South, a region known for contention around issues within education (Van Kessel & Crowley, 2017), discussions about who controls and legislates the teaching of history can be supported with research.

Epistemology and Research Approach Overview

What knowledge is considered to be worth knowing depends upon each individual person, particularly in the field of history and Social Studies. What knowledge is deemed the “correct” history has changed throughout time (Ward, 2007). Knowledge and truth about history are socially constructed and subjective (Ball, 1993; Foucault, 1982). Everyone has an individual experience, their own context, a unique time and place in which they live, cultural traditions, identity markers, and social networks. Every part of these unique experiences influences how people see the world around them and interpret history. Having an accurate teaching of history is important to avoid a biased perspective that avoids hard topics. This leads to the question of what historical knowledge is deemed worthy of being known, and how is that reflected in the standards and policies that guide education.

Legislation, policies, and standards are all guided by the same subjectivity as individuals. However, when powerful groups band together to use their subjectivity to create legislation, that can sway public knowledge, public action, and what is considered “true” and “valuable” (Van

Kessel & Crowley, 2017). This can eclipse other viewpoints, which creates a continuing feedback loop of limited perspectives. This also limits students, who are then not exposed to more perspectives, nor other narratives of history that allow them choices in how they interpret the world.

Therefore, we must examine how educational realities and truths are not only subjectively and socially constructed, but also how these are maintained through standards and policies and what implications this has for teaching Social Studies in contested areas, such as the Deep South. This also includes the rigor that is expected of students, and how they are being challenged to think beyond just the memorization of information. Consequently, the purpose of this study is to complete a comprehensive, critical discourse and textual analysis of the Social Studies curricular landscape in the South and the changes that have occurred since the rise of standardization and accountability - most notably, since the passage of No Child Left Behind (NCLB) in 2001. Specifically, Social Studies standards, enacted, and proposed legislation will be analyzed to interpret how those in power have created systems that legitimize and value their perspectives on history and what historical knowledge is deemed worth knowing.

Researcher Positionality

I began to have a passion for Social Studies when I was in high school. I found studying history to be fascinating and soon realized that there was more to history than just what I was being taught. I also discussed history with friends and acquaintances - and I was often told how much they disliked history. When pushed further, they acquiesced that they didn't actually dislike history, they just had a teacher who made the subject seemingly so boring that they decided they disliked history. This pushed me into changing my teaching focus from the elementary school to the secondary level where I could teach history (and other Social Studies

subjects) for the entire school day. When I became a history teacher, the standards required were my lifeline. Trying to teach all of United States history was overwhelming - having a set of standards that I could rely on to guide me in my teaching was very helpful because it gave me a structure to teach with and a framework to guide my instruction.

However, as I continued my career, I quickly realized that the standards left things out that I felt were key for students to know. My understanding was that standards were supposed to create a base equality for all students taking United States History. That all students across the state were supposed to have been taught the same standards, which meant they would have the same core knowledge as every other student in the state who had taken United States History. However, once I began working with other United States History teachers, I soon realized that not everyone taught United States History the same. Different teachers had time periods or events that were their favorites, or that they wanted to avoid. Teachers also sometimes emphasized certain standards if they deemed it a more important standard. Also, while all teachers have their unique style of teaching, United States History lent itself to both creative teachers who wanted to find new ways to engage students, but also had the more traditional teachers who chose a lecture style to pass along information. This variation within United States History teachers at the school level - not even at the district or state level - created unique United States History classes for each student, even though they were supposed to all be given the same content. It also felt as though some teachers didn't want to pay attention to the standards or understand that the state standards are mandatory. This frustration over the lack of common implementation of the standards made me reflect on my own views of the standards and their role in my classroom.

I therefore started researching more into state standards, and their development and implementations - particularly when my state adopted new Social Studies standards. After reviewing the new standards, I realized that clearly standards and their development are not neutral. Political leanings, biases, and experiences influence people in what they view as crucial information and skills for students to learn. I realized this when I was studying the standards and realized that there were things in history I would have included as crucial information but were not included in the standards. For example, nowhere in the indicators or additional instructional documents did it clearly clarify that enslavement was an immoral, illegal, and atrocious time in history. Instead, the official documents from the State Department of Education at one point referred to “slavery” as an “economic matter” in the Antebellum Period (South Carolina Department of Education, 2024). Now, while this document did explain that the “Lost Cause” myth was not a valid historical perspective, nowhere did it actually condemn enslavement¹. I could not fathom why the standards and official instructional documents would not make this distinction - helping me to realize that there was a bigger issue at hand. The standards (and additional materials) were written by people with agendas and perspectives, and they had used the standards as their way of sharing their viewpoints. This realization led me in one of my research classes to analyze the standards over time and see what changes occurred in how we are expected to teach our students history and other Social Studies subjects. After seeing those changes, it sparked the research questions for this study - to analyze across the South how the states view the teaching of Social Studies, and how it has changed over time.

¹ Throughout this study, (non)capitalization is used to de-center the white perspective. Minority populations are capitalized (e.g., Black history or Indigenous populations), but references to Caucasian historical figures or the singular demographic government is represented as “white”.

Personally, I believe that teaching history to the next generation is crucial. With an understanding of our past and a balanced view of the country's historical record, students have a better context to understand the world around them. This also helps students understand the importance of not just voting, but also expanding their civic participation to more critical efforts to bolster their communities. While standards are a great resource for guiding instruction, particularly for new teachers, their development must be done in a way that supports the realities of history - not how we wish history had happened (American Historical Association, 2019; Ratway & Mabli, 2023). My goal is that this study helps to provide insight into how legislation and policies help shape the teaching of Social Studies, and how that has (or has not) changed over time. Ideally, this would provide necessary context so that positive changes can be made - both in legislation, policies, and in classrooms. Understanding the larger patterns in Social Studies and education and how legislation, policies, and standards have influenced the teaching of history will hopefully benefit educational institutions, teachers, and students as they move forward in the field of Social Studies.

Definition of Terms

The following terms, which are supported by scholarship, guide this dissertation.

- The Bible Belt - a “religiously conservative or fundamental region in the American South and sometimes the Midwest” (Brunn, et. al., 2011; p. 1); region of Northern Texas to Western North Carolina, and from Mississippi to Kentucky
- Conservatism - a political ideology that has the following characteristics: a capitalist focus, an emphasis on tradition and the status quo, Christian morality, and being very pro-American (Gross, et. al., 2011; Kiely, 2021; Kumar, 2023; Phillips-Fein, 2011)

- Curriculum - the method of creating and reproducing the expected patterns of society: cultural, societal, and economic (Apple, 2019)
- The Deep South - the states in the most southern and eastern part of the U.S.; South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana (Merriam Webster, n.d.)
- Depth of Knowledge (DOK) - a leveled approach to rigor and setting expectations for student activities (Webb, 2007)
- Educational Standards - a description of what subject matter or skills students are required to know by their respective state Department of Education (Shepard et al., 2009)
- The Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) - federal legislation from 2015 reauthorizing the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, focused on making sure students are prepared for college and careers (The Every Student Succeeds Act, 2015)
- The Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) - federal legislation from 1965 to provide federal funding for K-12 schools, focusing on lessening the achievement gap (The Elementary and Secondary Education Act, 1965)
- Legislation - the preparation and enactment of laws by a legislative body (Legal Information Institute, 2023)
- The No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) - Public Law 107-110 is an act that was passed in 2001 which focuses on the use of flexibility, accountability, and school choice in an attempt to close the achievement gap (H.R.1 - 107th Congress (2001-2002), 2002)
- Policy - processes and outcomes of those in power (Ball, 1993)
- Policies - a systematic intervention to improve the educational system (Papanikos, 2011)

- Social Studies - the study of individuals, communities, systems, and their interactions across time and place that prepares students for local, national, and global civic life (National Council for the Social Studies, 2023)
- Social Studies Education - the teaching of Social Studies in K-12 classrooms; specifically, in the subjects of United States history, world history, geography, civics, and economics

Organization of the Dissertation

Chapter 1 has introduced the context for this research study, as well as the problem being studied. After providing the purpose of the study, the research questions were identified and the rationale behind the study was explained. An overview of the epistemology and research approach was given, and then the positionality of the researcher was explained. There is also a definition of terms for the reader.

In Chapter 2, a review of the relevant literature will be covered. The literature will be broken down into four sections: conceptualizing curriculum, legislating United States Education and Social Studies, Social Studies in the classroom, and legislating Public Education in the South. The section on legislating United States Education and Social Studies will be broken down into four subsections: the standardization of Social Studies education, the purpose of Social Studies education, the rise of reform, accountability, and standardization, and the impact of legislation on Social Studies education. A review will be provided, along with an explanation of the contribution of this study.

Chapter 3 is a description of the research study. After providing and explaining some data from a pilot study completed, the research design and rationale will be explained. Then both the conceptual framework and methodology will be elaborated upon. The criteria for state selection

will be explained, along with both the data collection and data analysis procedures. Finally, credibility, limitations, and delimitations will be outlined.

Chapter 4 contains the findings of the research. Beginning with the legislative landscape, pieces of relevant legislation will be identified through the outline of five topics: (1) Continued Socialization; (2) Textbooks and Instructional Materials; (3) Education Related Committees; (4) Religious Inclusions; and (5) Civil Rights, Black History, and “Divisive Concepts.” Following the legislative sections, relevant proposed bills will be identified through a similar five topics: (1) Changing Education Committees; (2) The Importance of Civics; (3) Instructional Topics in Social Studies; (4) Religious Inclusion; and (5) Civil Rights, Black History, and “Divisive Concepts.” Following the legislative landscape will be the findings from the iterations of the standards analyzed. The standards will be analyzed through four time periods - Pre-NCLB, 2001-2009, 2010-2015, and 2016-present. Within each time period the findings will be presented based on the analysis of the DOK levels, and then specific topics within the U.S. History standards and the Government standards by individual states.

Chapter 5 is a discussion of what was found. The four topics discussed in this section include: Racism, Whiteness, and the Other; The Concept of “American”; An Emphasis on Capitalism; and Regarding Religion. The findings are situated within literature to make larger connections, with each section being further divided into subsections.

Chapter 6 is a conclusion of the research and next steps. By addressing the larger questions of what is worth knowing, who decides, and how the knowledge is demonstrated the goal of Chapter 6 is to provide a summary of the findings and discussion. Additionally, this chapter will provide the “call to action” and next steps for both myself and other researchers seeking to pursue similar lines of inquiry.

Chapter 2 - Literature Review

Introduction

The purpose of this literature review is to provide context for this research study into the curricular changes in the Deep South, focused on the field of Social Studies education since the rise of standardization and accountability. This time period is inclusive of the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB), introduced in 2001 and passed in 2002. NCLB was by no means the first national education legislation, nor the most recent; however, it was a landmark piece of legislation and had drastic impacts related to the standardization of content and accountability of schools and districts, particularly in the Southern United States. Therefore, this literature review will provide the historical context of various state and federal pieces of legislation, as well as the larger historical context of educational standards. Since this research study focuses on the curriculum landscape in Social Studies education since the rise of standardization and accountability, this literature review will provide readers with important background information to better understand the impact of education legislation, particularly in the area of the South and more specifically within the Deep South. This literature review will more commonly address the larger South, and will therefore use the term South rather than the Deep South.

This literature review is organized into four overarching sections, with the second section broken down into four subsections. The first section is a conceptualization of curriculum, helping to provide a foundation for the rest of the literature review. Secondly, the legislation of education in the United States and in Social Studies will be reviewed. This is further broken down into four subsections. The first is a look into the standardization of Social Studies education to provide background into the evolution of Social Studies education into the discipline it is today. This is followed by an analysis of the various purposes of Social Studies education through United

States history. The third section is about the rise of reform, accountability, and standardization. Finally, the review includes a section about the impact of Social Studies education overall on the country. The third major section is about Social Studies in the modern classroom, and its various purposes. This is meant to provide background into how educational policy has shaped Social Studies education to meet the current needs of society. Finally, a history of legislating public education in the South provides context for the larger research study into Social Studies education in the South.

Conceptualizing Curriculum

There are many theories and perspectives on curriculum. Apple (2019) outlines curriculum as a multifaceted concept - being inclusive of both overt and hidden knowledge. Schools are not only spaces of learning but are also spaces of control. This control is over people, meaning, and even “truth.” Schools do not just mirror societal values and norms, but instead, serve as a legitimizer of societal expectations. Schools are webbed into policies (social, political, and economic) in addition to various trends and movements. Schools are not apolitical, nor the “great equalizers” (Duncan, 2009) - and neither are the processes that occur within. Schools (re)produce inequality and unequal ways of knowing.

Therefore, curriculum is a necessary topic as decisions are made about what knowledge society must learn and possess in order for society to continue. Curriculum continues the discussion of what knowledge is legitimized and deemed valuable. This knowledge also implies power and those in control, particularly in control of economic resources (Apple, 2019). These curricula are then mass-produced in textbooks, and in resources bought and adopted by states, districts, and schools. The classroom instruction of teachers is then informed by these curricula - which ultimately shapes what students learn. Curriculum is what informs and what is informed

by society in order to maintain particular societal structure. This can be seen clearly in the field of Social Studies, where the discussion over what information is to be included in history is constant. As society changes, as political trends shift, as national and global priorities move - the fight over what should be included in Social Studies classrooms continues. Both political sides have a version of history they want taught, and they both desire different hidden knowledge incorporated.

A Brief History of Legislating United States Education and Social Studies

Standardization of Social Studies in the Education System

Before there was Social Studies, there were the social sciences. These precursors to the current field of Social Studies included subjects such as history and geography. This dates back to the time of Thomas Jefferson and John Adams (Cremin, 1980; Founders Online, n.d.). Both of these men recognized the need for history and geography in primary education. As the nation developed, and sectional tensions continued to rise between the North and the South, the concept of Social Studies in education continued to evolve. Most schools directly taught geography and reading with history being woven throughout. This history knowledge was based on European history, with the brief history of the United States included, as well (Cremin, 1980). History was found within the readers students used as their reading textbook. This first occurred with Noah Webster's "An American Selection of Lessons in Reading and Speaking, Calculated to Improve the Mind and Refine the Taste of Youth, and Also to Interest Them in Geography, History, and Politics of the United States" - and other writers followed Webster's example (Tryon, 1935). By the year 1801, there were only six history textbooks published in the United States (Tryon, 1935). This number had grown to 351 textbooks by the Civil War in the 1860s. As the country

continued to develop, so did the issue of education and what students should be taught - particularly in the field of Social Studies.

The adoption of Social Studies was not nationwide - similar to how education was not uniform across the nation. Due to the Tenth Amendment to the Constitution, education became a right of the states since it was not named within the Constitution (U.S. Const. Amend. X, 1791). Therefore, there was no federal legislation of the teaching of Social Studies. While history did become a subject offered in most secondary schools in the years before the Civil War, only five states had adopted history as a requirement for the schools (Tryon, 1935). The choice over who legislates the teaching of history was left to the state governments.

In the United States, education is considered a right and responsibility of the state governments (U.S. Const. Amend. X, 1791). All fifty states have a respective Department of Education, and each state approaches education differently within the state. Since education is run by the individual state government, those within the legislature and other government positions wish to have a say in education and attempt to influence policies within education in order to help their vision become a reality in classrooms across the state. Classrooms are not just a mirror of societal structure, but also give legitimacy to the societal structure (Apple, 2019). The standards created by those in power at the state level directly impact the curriculum found in classrooms - which then impacts how teachers teach their students, and how the students go on to perform in society.

In 1884, the American Historical Association (AHA) was formed. This organization was meant to provide a way for historians to become stakeholders in the curricula for elementary and secondary schools (Brief History of the AHA, n.d.). During the next twenty years or so, there were many attempts to encourage Social Studies curriculum reform efforts. AHA worked with

the NEA to create more reforms to the early Social Studies curriculum (Cordasco & Krug, 1964). Specifically, AHA's Committee of Seven (1899) and NEA's Committee on History, Civil Government and Political Economy were the most influential (Hertzberg, 1989). In 1905, Thomas Jesse Jones for the Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute created a curriculum entitled "The Social Studies in the Hampton Curriculum" (Jones, 1906). This school, originally created to educate the newly freed people of the South, intended for the curriculum to provide the students a model of proper behavior, and thus included sociology, political science, and economics. This first use of the term "Social Studies" was referenced by Edgar Wesley in his 1905 paper, creating the first time the term had appeared in scholarship (Fairbanks, 2020).

Model Behavior: "Good Citizens" and Patriots

As the world of education began to incorporate the term "Social Studies," the nation was given its first set of recommendations on the inclusion of Social Studies in 1916. These recommendations came from the Committee on Social Studies - a sub-committee within the Commission for the Reorganization of Secondary Education (CRSE) within the National Education Association (NEA). Jones argued that those teaching Social Studies in the high schools had the best opportunity of anyone to help improve citizenship in the United States (Jones, 1913). While the committee did include history in their idea of Social Studies, civics became a priority for the committee, influenced heavily by the Progressive movement who wanted schools to help educate "good citizens" and help with the improvement of society (Jones, 1913). Between 1900 and 1919, thirty-two states had laws incorporating Social Studies into the public-school curricula (Pierce, 1926).

The need for civics-based Social Studies led the AHA to help create the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) in 1921 (Social Studies and the Birth of NCSS: 1783-1921 | Social

Studies, n.d.). This organization was intended to help provide leadership in a time when Social Studies was beginning to become more standard across curricula and to provide guidance in the instruction of students in civics. While not a federal program or endorsed by a government, this organization became a crucial part of the development of Social Studies in the larger education system in the United States. The work put out by the NCSS helped to influence the requirements for education created by the state governments, and what they chose to be a part of those requirements.

The focus of Social Studies education during the Progressive Era was on civics - making sure that students knew what was expected as a citizen of the United States, which focused mostly on patriotic values and support for the government. The Postwar Era, however, added a new component to Social Studies education - patriotism. This took the form of teaching history and government, requiring teachers to proclaim loyalty to the United States, enacting legislation on flags, and more. The state governments utilized the Social Studies systems already in place to encourage patriotism, and almost all legislation passed after 1917 contained some provisions related to the inclusion of Social Studies (Field & Burlbaw, 1995). Politicians and government leaders took the opportunity to utilize education to reinforce patriotic ideas in the next generation - creating an example of how history can be legislated and leveraged for the benefit of a particular group. Between 1917 and 1926, forty-three states had legislation about the inclusion of Social Studies, and all states had, at some point, required history as a subject (Field & Burlbaw, 1995). This focus on patriotism and the “Americanization” of students continued in the postwar period of the 1950s, revisiting many values from the Progressive Era.

In 1965, The Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) was enacted by President Lyndon B. Johnson as a part of his “War on Poverty” (Guthrie, 1968). This act was the primary

source of federal aid for elementary and secondary education to help close the gaps in reading, writing, and mathematics found within various socioeconomic statuses (The Elementary and Secondary Education Act, 1965). ESEA created the Title 1 program, providing federal aid for schools who teach disadvantaged students (Aud, 2007; Paul, 1971). This landmark piece of legislation helped to change the role of the federal government within the larger education system in the United States - helping to create ways for the federal government to begin legislating education (McGuinn, 2006).

The Rise of Reform, Accountability, and Standardization

The discussion around standards is a long and complicated one - amplified by the fact that education is considered a right and responsibility of the fifty states and therefore not implemented uniformly across the nation (AIR, 2009; CCSSI, n.d.; NAEP, 2019). While the federal government has passed legislation to emphasize the role of the federal government in education - namely the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA), No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB), and the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) - officially, the states have the power to determine what students in their state are required to learn.

The concept of having standards for education is not new; however, a large standards-based reform movement began in the 1980s. With the publication of *A Nation at Risk* in 1983, there was a call for drastic educational reform (U.S. Department of Education, 1983). This call came from the idea that better education was necessary for the future of the country, but since education was a right of the states, therefore, individual states would need to fix the problem rather than the Federal Government (Schwartz & Robinson, 2000). Just over a year later, *Action in the States* was published identifying the changes that had been made and the progress achieved. Forty-six states had developed plans to improve education for their students, and there

were over 250 task forces to help these plans come to fruition (Education Commission of the States, 1984). The state governments were working to improve education, and progress was being made. Through the rest of the 1980s, governors across the nation became “education governors” - meaning that a key part of their platform was based in education. In fact, the 1986 National Governors Association (NGA) meeting was solely focused upon education - producing the report, *Time for Results*. This report was meant to encourage those in education, attempting to encourage accountability in education by giving more flexibility (NGA, 1986). The bipartisanship that was shown at the 1986 NGA meeting led to an idea of creating a national framework that states could then individualize within their own application (Schwartz & Robinson, 2000). This movement throughout the 1980s showcased the changing role of the government in the education system, particularly the role of the governor and their connections with other states, and how these political turns shaped education legislation and control.

1989 was the year of the Charlottesville education summit - a meeting between President George W. Bush and all fifty governors. This group adopted the National Education Goals for the year 2000, which included the creation of content standards. The national goals that were discussed at this meeting were not intended to be a new federal initiative that would become uniform across the nation (Schwartz & Robinson, 2000). Instead, these national goals would be a guide for the states as they continued the improvement of their individual education systems. The standards were to be designed more as an accountability measure for the education system, instead of a restriction of curriculum to be taught. This accountability can be seen as a form of control within the system (Apple, 2019), as it holds educators accountable for content deemed the most important by the states.

This discussion continued into the nineties, with forty-nine states developing and implementing standards by 1997 (Iowa remaining the only challenger) (Lobes, 1997). However, the concept of what should be included in those standards varied from state to state. Many states began with reading and mathematics standards, only adding science and history later on (Roeber, 1999).

The presidency of Bill Clinton saw two key pieces of education legislation passed (NY State Archives, 2009). In 1994, the Improving America's Schools Act (IASA) was passed to revise ESEA and change the Title 1 program. IASA required math and language arts standards to be utilized in accountability of schools, and reduced the threshold for schools to qualify for Title 1 funding. Clinton's presidency also passed the Education Flexibility Partnership Act of 1999 to provide the states with flexibility when it came to education reforms and federal funding (NY State Archives, 2009). This was intended to help the local school systems have a larger impact on reform in their area, and yet still receive federal funding - even if they did not meet certain requirements.

All of these legislations led to the passing of NCLB during the presidency of George W. Bush (H.R.1 - 107th Congress (2001-2002), 2002). This was a reauthorization of ESEA, increasing the accountability of schools who received Title 1 funding from the federal government (NY State Archives, 2009). One of the key measures of accountability created with NCLB was the requirement of yearly standardized tests - and the creation of school report cards that published student achievement data and demographics.

Since NCLB, there have been two further federal-level relevant pieces of legislation. The first was passed in 2011, and worked with states to provide relief from both ESEA and NCLB provisions - with the stipulation that other requirements were met. The ESEA Ed-Flex Waiver

echoes Clinton's Education Flexibility Partnership Act of 1999. In 2015, President Obama replaced NCLB with the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) - another reauthorization of the original ESEA (NY State Archives, 2009; The Elementary and Secondary Education Act, 1965). Under the first presidency of Donald Trump, this law was not changed, nor was it up for reauthorization. Trump's presidency did not pass any new education legislation, although it did work to weaken federal oversight from the role the federal government had taken under Obama, specifically in the areas of civil rights oversight and enforcement (Wong, 2020).

The Impact on Social Studies Education

Social Studies continued to be a broad term that could encompass many specific subject areas; inclusive of many areas of history, geography, economics, and civics. The term could be adapted to fit curricular needs and the changes within education. However, this fluidity reached a point where this was no longer acceptable. The National Center for History released a suggested set of national history standards for United States History and World History in 1994 - garnering many criticisms for being "anti-West" and "too multicultural" (Chapin, 1995). Chapin (1995) discusses these criticisms, and offers commentary on where the critics were accurate or not. These critiques of the standards showcased the conflict between groups in the United States on what history should be taught in schools and how (or if) to standardize the teaching of history. For example, conservative talk-show hosts declared the standards to be a menace to the republic - stating that the United States history standards were too full of political bias and the world history standards minimized the impact of the West (Ravitch, 1998). Even the president of the American Federation of Teachers criticized the national standards, stating that they failed to put democracy at the center of history (Ravitch, 1998).

Some considered the standards recommended by the National Center for History too conservative, while others considered them too liberal. There were follow-up papers written as well, both critiquing and praising the national standards. One particular response argued that the standards were not too conservative, but instead were too focused on chronology instead of taking a more issue-focused approach (Evans & Pang, 1995). This debate of if there should be national standards, and if so, what their content should be was even debated in the United States Senate. Even when the standards were amended and republished, there was no consensus on whether these standards would be accepted. Both conservatives and liberals rejected these standards due to their lack of conformity with their respective beliefs (Hill, 1997).

Contemporary commentators had many responses to the standards put forth by the National Center for History, and the concept of standards in general. In his 1997 article, James Hill published in *The History Teacher* a recommendation for history teachers to turn to the Advanced Placement program, since there is standardization within those classes (Hill, 1997). Buckles and Watts (1998) detailed the need for a greater focus on economics throughout the standards. They outline where economic principles could be found in the published standards, and where they believe more should be added to highlight the importance of economics (Buckles & Watts, 1998). Additionally, Lobes (1997) encourages historians to continue their push for historical standards, saying that a national assessment on history could not be far behind, since there were national assessments in reading and mathematics in the process (Lobes, 1997). Frankel (1999) agreed with this assessment, encouraging historians to become involved with the creation of standards. She views the national history standards as sound, albeit in need of some change - but an important endeavor that historians should support (Frankel, 1999).

Symcox (2002) summarized the fight over Social Studies standards by framing the discussions around standards as ideological struggles. She argues that the national standards proposed by the National Center for History were equally weighted to value critical thinking skills and content knowledge - which would cause students to challenge the status quo and question the grander narrative surrounding American history (Symcox, 2002), inclusive of the history of the development of the standards, the controversies against the standards, and a summary of lessons learned from the entire process.

In 2005, researchers compiled a synthesis of over a hundred research studies completed related to standards-based education (Lauer et al., 2005). Their two-hundred-page report contains great insight into the effects of standards-based education on several topics - teacher instruction, student achievement, curricula, and assessments. However, two of their conclusions are poignant - (1) results from the studies depend on how the outcomes are measured; (2) the amount of research on standards-based education needs to be greater and more in depth. The school system has become reliant on educational standards. There are periodic reports put out by educational organizations on the “state” of standards. These reports are meant to rate and rank states on the strength of their standards. However, these rankings entirely depend on the organization, their perspectives, and whatever metrics they utilize. These reports can be beneficial to gain a deeper look into larger patterns of the standards across state lines.

However, these rankings entirely depend on the organization, their perspectives, and whatever metrics they utilize. For example, the Thomas Fordham Institute published “The State of State Standards for Civics and U.S. History in 2021.” In this report, they rank each state on their standards, and offer guidance on what makes “exemplary” standards as well as recommendations for states who were “mediocre” in their standards (Fordham Institute, 2021).

This report, however, was not the institute’s first attempt at ranking state standards on this subject. In 2003, the institute published “Effective State Standards for U.S. History: A 2003 Report Card” (Fordham Institute, 2003). In this report they similarly graded each state on their standards, and offered recommendations for how to improve the United States History standards. In both reports, specificity is a recommendation given. The writers outline in both reports how standards need to be specific in outlining what students should be expected to know, in order to be more useful for history teachers. The Fordham Institute markets itself as a “conservative think tank” and has become a common name in the discussion around charter schools, standards, and even in testing (Fordham Institute, n.d.). These reports are helpful for researchers as they look to analyze standards across time periods, as well as their effectiveness. These reports also highlight the conservative viewpoint in regard to standards and their content.

In 2011, the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) published their revisions of the 1994 national curriculum standards (National Curriculum Standards for Social Studies: A Framework for Teaching, Learning, and Assessment | Social Studies, n.d.). These revisions are centered around ten themes - just like the original standards from 1994. These themes “represent a way of categorizing knowledge about the human experience, and they constitute the organizing strands that should thread through a Social Studies program, from grades pre-K through 12, as appropriate at each level.” (Adler & National Council for the Social Studies, 2013).

With the standards-reform movement of the 1990s, legislators and stakeholders wanted core content for all students - they wanted set standards (Saxe, 2004). This led to decreased use of a broad Social Studies class, and an increased use of the specific subjects within Social Studies - history, geography, civics, and economics. This major change was influenced by the 1983 publication of *A Nation at Risk*, which called for “high educational standards” and

“rigorous” curricula (U.S. Department of Education, 1983). The discussion around the report and education in general led to an education summit in 1989, held in Charlottesville. This summit led to the “Goals 2000: Educate America Act” - passed in 1994. The term “Social Studies” does not appear in this legislation - but it does mention the specific subjects of geography, history, economics, and civics (Rep. Kildee, 1994). As the first true piece of federal legislation that directly relates to Social Studies education, the Goals 2000 act showcased what the federal government valued within Social Studies, and what it believed the states needed to include in their legislation of Social Studies.

The National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) was created in response to the standardization movement to help provide continuity in the Social Studies field. The NCSS used their position to create a set of standards for those four subjects - recognizing that in order to continue using the term Social Studies, there needed to be standardization and continuity. The NCSS standards were meant to combine the four main subject areas with other areas that previously fell under the umbrella of Social Studies - such as anthropology, sociology, and psychology (Saxe, 2004). These standards were not the most successful, as NCSS continued to try and push for subjects outside the four core subjects identified in the Goals 2000 legislation. This led to pushback, resulting in the NCSS standards not being adopted uniformly.

In 1994, NCSS published the National Standards for History. This document immediately was criticized - and was a major cause of Congress abandoning the idea of national standards entirely, in every subject (Saxe, 2004). This is due to the fear that the Social Studies standards were simultaneously too broad and inclusive while also attempting to be too particular in their perspective of history (Celis, 1993; Tulenko, 2002; Whitman, 2015). This raised concerns over the role of the federal government, and whether having national standards really was the best

decision for students. This led the Goals 2000 program to refocus on standards at the state level. During the controversy over the National Standards for History, NCSS passed their ten-strand Social Studies standards (National Curriculum Standards for Social Studies: A Framework for Teaching, Learning, and Assessment | Social Studies, n.d.). These standards provided a basis for schools' curricula in the lack of standards provided by the government. When states began instituting standards in the late 1990s and early 2000s, how Social Studies education was included varied between the states. Typically, those state standards were focused on their four core subjects within the larger term of Social Studies - history, geography, civics, and economics (Saxe, 2004). Social Studies evolves with policies and trends, along with most things in education. For example, geography has been a Social Studies subject that has circulated in and out of state curricula based upon whether it is valued or not. This evolution of what is "Social Studies" and how it should be taught then prioritizes what is taught in schools and what students are held accountable for.

Social Studies in the Classroom

In light of Social Studies' evolving importance and curricular goals, these changes influence student and teacher perspectives on Social Studies; perspectives that sometimes mirror or reject national priorities, policies, and movements. Other stakeholders in education, such as businesses and higher education, also mirror or challenge the evolving national priorities, policies, and movements. In 1991, students preferred studying Social Studies to studying math (Stodolsky et al., 1991). Twenty years later, researchers asked a similar question - whether students believe that Social Studies is relevant in the 21st century or not. What they found is that not only do students still believe Social Studies is relevant, but that it is a necessary component of education. Students believe they are given authentic learning experiences that provide them

with knowledge and technical know-how that they need to be successful in the workplace (Camposano et al., 2021).

Students are not the only ones who value Social Studies - but teachers do not always agree on why Social Studies is important. Some teachers believe that Social Studies classrooms provide opportunities for students to gain the skills needed for the 21st century workplace (Peters, 2022). Another way that teachers view Social Studies as beneficial is in the variety of technology that can be used to build student knowledge and skill attainment (Zhao, 2007). Teachers also view Social Studies as useful to help students understand their culture and communities (Burroughs et al., 2005). Social Studies provides students a chance to learn not only the history of the world around them, but also to practice historical literacy and gain crucial critical thinking skills and an understanding of analysis that will help them throughout their life (Rabb, 2004). All of these different perspectives showcase how Social Studies is not a uniform subject - but instead can evolve and reflect (or challenge) particular policies, trends, and movements throughout history.

With the increased testing that accompanied the passage of NCLB, Social Studies has often been pushed aside to make time for the tested subjects of math, reading, and science (Griffith, 2009; McMurrer, 2008). When asked about this, President Bush's press team defended NCLB by saying that the legislation does not prohibit or limit the teaching of Social Studies (Burroughs et al., 2005). While technically this is true, the research also shows that where there is a lack of assessments, there is also a lack of instruction (Manzo, 2005). Therefore, this lack of inclusion in NCLB of Social Studies testing has resulted in less Social Studies instruction and less of a focus on the importance of Social Studies (Burroughs et al., 2005; Hamilton et al., 2008; Rabb, 2004). This means that students do not get a chance to gain crucial knowledge and skills

needed. Based on the legislation and the response from various government agencies, this appears as though Social Studies is not necessarily valued similarly to the value teachers and students place upon the subject.

Students, teachers, and those in control of the education system (including legislators) all have different perspectives on the function of Social Studies and its place within the larger school system. Since education is considered a right and responsibility of the state governments, the relationship between education and the federal government can be complicated - especially when Social Studies can be the center of many curricular, social, and political fights about what it should include within the classroom (Hess & McAvoy, 2015).

Legislating Public Education in the South

The Deep South is a region of the United States made up of five states. This region comprises the following states: Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, and South Carolina (Merriam Webster, n.d.). This next section is not an extensive historical account of all educational, political, and social policies, priorities, and movements in the South. Instead, it is meant to summarize the pertinent issues related to national educational policies and trends that are contrasted within the South.

When the English colonies were established, differences in how each state approached education began. While New England states opted to use property and poll taxes to fund village schools, no Southern colonies used taxes to support public schools (B. D. Walker, 1984). This is not to say that these colonies did not support the education of their children - in fact, Thomas Jefferson was a strong advocate for public free schools supported by taxes (B. D. Walker, 1984). However, while most Northern states, and even the Midwestern states as they were added to the union, created a tax system that supported the development of the public school system, the

Southern states chose not to implement a similar system. Reconciliation of the philosophical difference would not happen between the states until after the Civil War (B. D. Walker, 1984). Another reason the Southern states resisted the adoption of a public-school system was that the Southern aristocrats and other leaders (including large taxpayers) saw the public-school system as a threat to private control of schools (Butts, 1947).

By the time the nation reached the end of the Civil War, the South was in an extremely poor economic state. Economic recovery was slow following the war, which meant that finding funding for education was difficult. Additionally, since the majority of the population was in poverty, there were not suitable incomes for taxation, further compounding the issue of creating tax-funded public schools (Dabney, 1936). The Southern states did make progress in providing state systems of schools, but the support for local taxes to support education was not consistent, and fought against into the twentieth century (Dabney, 1936).

Another issue that arose with the concept of public schools in the Reconstruction era in the Southern states was that of segregation in schools. Nine of ten former Confederate states implemented new requirements for universal education in their Constitutional Conventions held during Reconstruction (Gershon, 2018). However, the discussion went beyond just the requirements for education - it dove into the issue of segregation and the issue of race in schools. Only two states constitutionally banned legal segregation, South Carolina and Louisiana (Gershon, 2018). The other former Confederate states remained silent on the issue. In reality, however, integrated schools did not happen across the Southern states, particularly after Reconstruction was ended in 1877. Instead, across the South schools became segregated - both by de facto segregation and by de jure segregation (Purnell, 2014). When Reconstruction ended and the white elite who wanted the old political order returned took over the state governments,

they did not get rid of the school systems created during Reconstruction - instead those systems were utilized to enforce the caste system that supported segregation (Tyack & Lowe, 1986). The white elite utilized their power to restrict knowledge and legislate what students should learn - thereby creating a system that would maintain their power.

In 1948 Southern governors and legislators formed the Southern Regional Education Board (SREB) (Southern Regional Education Board, 2015b). The sixteen Southern states are all a part of this non-profit organization that works to improve education across the South in order to increase the social and economic vitality of the region (Southern Regional Education Board, 2015a). Through the 1940s and 1950s, the SREB was focused on combating shortages of trained professionals, particularly in the professional education program, in addition to studying the region's higher education needs (Southern Regional Education Board, 2015a). In the 1960s, the SREB focused on long-term goals for the regions and launched a program to improve postsecondary educational opportunities for black students in historically black institutions (Southern Regional Education Board, 2015a). This large-scale organization did have an impact on legislators across the South in its first twenty years, and garnered prestige in the Southern state governments (Haskew, 1968). This organization is an early example of a group attempting to influence and control the legislation surrounding the teaching of young minds. This group, in influencing legislators and their decisions about education, were able to help shape the education system to fit their perspective on what education should look like.

The Civil Rights Movement was undeniably different in the Northern states compared to the Southern states (Davis, 2020; Sugrue, 2008; Young, 1974). The push to end segregation caused major fights across the South - particularly in the education system. When the Supreme Court decided in *Brown vs. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas* that segregation was

unconstitutional (*Brown v. Board of Education*, 1954), the Southern states immediately began to condemn the decision and vowed to defy it (Legal Defense Fund, n.d.). Virginia's Senator Harry Byrd had much to say about the Brown decision and his push for resistance across the South. "If we can organize the Southern States for massive resistance to this order I think that, in time, the rest of the country will realize that racial integration is not going to be accepted in the South." (Equal Justice Initiative, n.d.). Resistance to desegregation that the Brown decision called for was found across the South. In some counties, the public-school systems were shut down rather than integrate (June-Friesen, 2013). Most notably, Central High School in Little Rock, Arkansas, was an example of how extreme anti-integration a state could be, and the force the federal government would need to take to enforce Brown (Anderson, 2004). The Brown decision caused an increase across the South in private schools (Clotfelter, 2004; Suitts, 2024), some of whom were able to gain public funds until that was challenged in the court system (Suitts, 2024). This "white flight" caused an increase in de jure segregation - which proved harder to dismantle and correct - with or without the support of legislation.

In 1979, the National Department of Education was reformed (it was originally created in 1867, then demoted to the Office of Education in 1868) and established for several purposes - namely to support the education systems found across the country and improve education for all students (U.S. Department of Education, 2018). While it is not able to set educational standards or establish schools and colleges, it can provide guidance and support for individual state departments of education (Yeban, 2024). The SREB continued to work on improving education across the South - expanding interstate and inter-institutional specialized programs in the 1970s, and adding K-12 education to its scope in the 1980s to join the standards-based reform movement (Southern Regional Education Board, 2015a). Advocating for statewide academic

standards, the SREB worked to also develop a program to test student achievement in a way that results could be compared between states and nation-wide. The South was the first region to have such an organization, and is still one of the only regions of the country with an interstate educational organization.

The fight over public education and curricular oversight is still ongoing in Southern states. As of May 2024, thirty-two states now have or are in the process of adopting Educational Savings Accounts (ESAs) - voucher programs that send public dollars to private schools (Ronco, 2024). Specifically, thirteen of the sixteen southern states have, or are adopting, ESAs (Mercier, 2024). These ESAs allow for tax dollars to finance private schools - and with legislatures making it easier to acquire an ESA, affluent families who are already sending their children to private schools can now begin accessing those funds as well. However, ESAs have major impacts on underfunded public schools (T. Walker, 2024). The voucher system also helps to keep private schools free from regulations, standards, and state assessments - requirements that public schools have to meet in order to keep public funding (Suitts, 2024). The adoption of the voucher system, particularly in the South, is a reflection of separate and unequal education created by segregation pre-Brown. The educational landscape of the South has the potential to have major changes in the coming years - changes that will be impacted by both federal and state legislation. Those in power who are able to legislate education and create educational policies incorporate their own biases and perspectives into their work. Therefore, this continued discourse surrounding public education, particularly in the South, is timely and necessary.

Review of Literature Summary

Social Studies education is not universally taught, and it has been a process for this subject to be given recognition across states and in standards. The NCSS was a crucial

development in the fight for Social Studies recognition, and has assisted both the federal government and state governments in the development of quality Social Studies education. However, this level of standardization, accountability, and control has shaped what Social Studies education means, in addition to what knowledge and ways of knowing are counted. The federal government has not been silent on the issue of education - even though education is considered a right of the states. Through the passage of legislation such as the ESEA, NCLB, and ESSA, the federal government has attempted to hold states accountable for how they educate their students (H.R.1 - 107th Congress (2001-2002), 2002; NY State Archives, 2009). These pieces of legislation have not always been received well by the states and have led to larger discussions within the education field about reforms and what accountability looks like. Reform is a common term in discussions around change, but in reality, it is a term that is a code for control, accountability, and oversight by those in power (Ravitch, 2013).

Social Studies is a valuable subject in the field of education. Not only does it provide students with a needed context of the world, but it is also a subject that helps to build skills and knowledge needed to be successful in the 21st century workplace. Therefore, it should be protected within the school system and those who are involved with the creation of standards and curriculum should be knowledgeable and accountable for their work.

Contribution of the Study

This study is focused on the Deep South, and how the landscape of Social Studies has changed since the rise of standardization and accountability, most notably marked with the passage of NCLB. Education in the Deep South is a difficult subject since so much of the nation's turbulent history is linked within the Deep South (Ollove, 2013), particularly in education due to segregation and the fight for social, political, and educational justice. There has

not been much research completed about the modern curricular landscape related to Social Studies education in the Deep South. This study will add to the literature in that area, aiming to provide a comprehensive analysis of how the curricular landscape has changed in the unique area that is the Deep South – and how those changes coexist with ongoing debates around Social Studies standards.

In summary, Social Studies education (and broad curriculum) remain susceptible to national priorities, policies, and movements (Apple, 2019). In the Deep South, especially, its fraught historical past reflects an additional catalyst shaping what Social Studies knowledge is worth knowing and legitimizing through curricula (Ward, 2007). The nation remains gripped by issues of power in education, and standardization legislation remains a clear example of exercising power over educational practices and institutions that necessitates additional exploration.

Chapter 3 - Methodology

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to complete a comprehensive, critical discourse and textual analysis of the Social Studies curricular landscape in the South and the changes that have occurred since the rise of standardization and accountability - most notably, since the passage of No Child Left Behind (NCLB) in 2001. This study employed a critical discourse analysis of standards, legislation, and policies from the five states of the Deep South (Merriam Webster, n.d.). This study aimed to find patterns of change within the Deep South, in order to also explore how the educational landscape has helped shape Social Studies education in the region. Social Studies education is increasingly under scrutiny and pressure to conform to societal expectations, priorities, and trends (Kryczka et al., 2024; Salman, 2023; Tatter, 2022). Therefore, finding these patterns of change and identifying how educational policies influence Social Studies education can provide crucial information for both researchers, those directly involved with classroom teaching, and legislators looking to make an impact on education systems in the Deep South.

This project analyzed the curricular landscape of Social Studies education in the Deep South of the United States since the passage of the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) in 2001, due to its ushering in of increased surveillance on state-level education (McGuinn, 2006). Focused on five states in the Deep South, this study examined standards and legislation in Alabama (AL), South Carolina (SC), Georgia (GA), Mississippi (MS), and Louisiana (LA). Specifically, the following research questions guided this study:

1. How has the Social Studies curricular landscape evolved in the United States' Deep South since 2001?

- a. How have Social Studies standards evolved in the United States' Deep South since the rise of standardization and accountability?
- b. How has the educational legislative landscape shaped Social Studies education in the United States Deep South since the rise of standardization and accountability?

This chapter introduces the pilot study that analyzed standard development over three states in the South; which informed the development of this research study that examines standards across five states. After the pilot study, the research design and rationale are explained, along with the conceptual framework. Then the methodology will be discussed, along with the explanation of the state selection. Both the data collection and analysis processes will be explained - with the data analysis process detailed into the state standards and all other documents (policies, court cases, etc.). Trustworthiness will be outlined next, followed by the limitations and delimitations of the project.

Pilot Study

A pilot study that spanned September to December of 2023 analyzed Social Studies standards from three states in order to determine how their standards have changed over time and the impact of these changes on Social Studies education. The states analyzed were South Carolina (SC), Georgia (GA), and North Carolina (NC). SC had all four iterations of their Social Studies standards analyzed (2000, 2005, 2011, and 2019). GA and NC each had two iterations of the standards analyzed: GA's standards were from 2008 and 2016, and NC's standards were from 2011 and 2021. These particular states were chosen for this pilot study for several reasons. The first reason is that I teach within South Carolina, and therefore wanted to research my home state. When I decided to expand beyond South Carolina, I chose the bordering two states to provide some continuity with the region of the country chosen.

This pilot study collected standards from each state - both the current standards and previous iterations. Each standard set was analyzed for Depth of Knowledge (DOK) levels, task verb usage, and for the overarching purpose of the standard. The DOK level was analyzed in order to determine whether the rigor expected of students has increased or decreased over the years. Figure 3.1 is a breakdown of the four DOK levels and the expectations of each level. This particular chart was sourced from a training hosted by Maverick Education in 2022, and will be used for the same purpose of informing aspects of data analysis for the larger research study. DOK levels are based upon Norman Webb’s work and research (Webb, 1997, 2007).

Teacher Expectation	Student Goal	Mental Processing	Depth of Knowledge (DOK)
answer correctly	answer it	recall information recall how to	DOK 1
establish and explain answers with examples	use it to explain it	apply knowledge, concepts, and skills use information and basic reasoning	DOK 2
examine and explain with evidence	use it to prove it	think strategically use complex reasoning supported by evidence	DOK 3
explore and explain with examples and evidence (over an extended period)	connect and extend it (go for it)	think extensively use extended reasoning supported by expertise	DOK 4

Figure 1 - DOK Leveling Chart

What the findings demonstrate is that standards have changed in their rigor and purpose. What people have decided students need to know and be able to do have changed over time and are different across states. These changes are not minor - but instead change the entire purpose of Social Studies education. With new iterations of the standards, students are now required more to use information to solve problems or complete higher-level tasks - not simply recall information. It is interesting to see how the specific vocabulary or task verbs used in the standards have not changed - and yet the intent and purpose of the standards have changed (Dodd, 2023). The Social Studies standards are no longer a requirement for students to memorize information, but instead,

are now requirements for students to be able to do higher-level tasks with information they are given (Dodd, 2023). Since this larger research study aims to answer how the Social Studies curricular landscape has evolved in the United States South since 2001, understanding the changes in the state-required standards is a key part of this study. Additionally, the three states that were included in this pilot study will also be included in the larger research study. The pilot study illustrated broad changes in standards and this research study aims to go further by examining the language of standards from a qualitative, critical discourse approach; exploring how and why those changes occurred; spanning multiple states; and with the inclusion of federal and state-level education policies.

The pilot study was meant to answer two questions. The first was about how the language of the standards have changed over time to reflect a change in purpose. This was shown in the depth of knowledge (DOK) changes. The language of the standards is now written to create skills or ask students to do more higher-level tasks with information. This is different in later standard iterations compared to earlier iterations, which shows a definite change in purpose. The purpose of the standards is now to require students to be more prepared with skills. In each standard iteration between 2000 and 2019, the standards consistently shifted to higher DOK levels. One of the sub-questions for the larger research study is about how Social Studies standards have evolved in the United States South since 2001. Utilizing the research conducted in the pilot study provided a springboard for an analysis of standards from the other states in the Deep South, and into an analysis of larger policy changes that allowed and created those changes.

Research Design of the Study and Rationale

Qualitative research is a way of studying what meaning is ascribed to a problem by individuals or groups (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Denzin, 2017). It tends to be more open-

ended and involves interpreting the meaning of data and allows for a report of the complexity of a situation within the social world (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Anything that involves people, communication, policy, and education is messy—and qualitative research embraces these tensions, contradictions, and multiple realities (Bloomberg, 2023; Foucault, 1982). In this research study, analyzing state standards and state and federal policy documents reflect certain realities and truths that influence what teachers do and what students know—elements that are best examined qualitatively. This involves analyzing standards for their underlying purpose, as well as the implications of their change over time. In order to truly study change over time and the intricacies of language to illustrate those changes, this research lends itself to qualitative research.

Qualitative research is a helpful design for understanding people and the complex nature of policy (Sallee & Flood, 2012), and therefore qualitative research is best suited for this research project. Since standards are a reflection of what society and people deem important for students to know, this cannot be quantified. Additionally, this research project is meant to provide insight and understanding into the complexities of the legislation of history and education and how that can change over time. This outcome fits within the larger outcomes of qualitative research (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Saldaña, 2011). Specifically, critical qualitative inquiry examines issues of power and how certain perspectives become normalized (Denzin, 2017), which is a key component of this study into the legislating and standardization of history.

Conceptual Framework

Curriculum

This study defines formal “curriculum” as the content students are expected to learn before they leave the K-12 system. Specifically, this study is focused on the Social Studies

curriculum at the secondary level. Webster’s Dictionary defines curriculum as, “the courses offered by an educational institution” (Merriam-Webster, 2024). However, Apple (2019) conceptualizes curriculum as both the stated information taught and the hidden information that enables social control. Therefore, for this study, “curriculum” encompasses both the dictionary and theoretical ideas: the content expected of students within the secondary Social Studies classrooms and the role of the curriculum as a socialization mechanism. One challenging part of this perspective is that curriculum, then, is unique to each state or governing body; since each body – whether state legislature, federal government, education stakeholder, or policymaker – has different expectations and requirements of and for students. Therefore, this broader definition of curriculum allows for an analysis of patterns within comparisons of individual state curricula – as policy and standards reflect legislated knowledge (Denzin, 2017). Additionally, curricula can then change, as those who legislate the curricula might alter their perspective on what is valuable knowledge and, therefore, should be required. This project aimed to see those changes and analyze their impact in the larger curricular landscape.

Depth of Knowledge (DOK)

One aspect underscoring curriculum is the rigor expected of students. As requirements change over time, so too can the expected rigor and output of students. Depth of Knowledge (DOK) is a helpful tool for educators when considering rigor within the classroom. There are four DOK levels, and they all have different expectations for student interaction with content (Figure 3.2). By analyzing the standards for their DOK, the expected rigor for students can be found - which informs how educators should be educating their students. For example, if a standard is based on a DOK level 3, to educate the students as if it was a DOK level 1 is to not

accurately teach them the standard. Therefore, there is a distinct connection between DOK level and the curriculum within the classroom.

Teacher Expectation	Student Goal	Mental Processing	Depth of Knowledge (DOK)
answer correctly	answer it	recall information recall how to	DOK 1
establish and explain answers with examples	use it to explain it	apply knowledge, concepts, and skills use information and basic reasoning	DOK 2
examine and explain with evidence	use it to prove it	think strategically use complex reasoning supported by evidence	DOK 3
explore and explain with examples and evidence (over an extended period)	connect and extend it (go for it)	think extensively use extended reasoning supported by expertise	DOK 4

Figure 2 - DOK Leveling Chart

Methodology

The conceptual framework for this study is critical discourse analysis - the analytical practice of examining language for patterns, beliefs, etc. The methodology for this study is therefore a type of discourse analysis - textual analysis. Textual analysis specifically looks into analyzing texts for their larger effects, specifically social effects (Fairclough, 1992). Fairclough defines four headings of text analysis: vocabulary, grammar, cohesion, and text structure (Fairclough, 1992). These four components of text analysis will be utilized for this study throughout the rounds of analysis. As mentioned previously, Depth of Knowledge (DOK) is a crucial portion of the discourse analysis of the standards from each state because it furthers the discussion surrounding expected rigor and the requirements of students. This analysis fulfills Fairclough's heading of vocabulary. Key vocabulary was identified from the various policies and legislation, in order to find intertextuality between the standards and the other documents collected. Additionally, biases and perspectives are evident in how people write - even in legal documents such as legislation. Legislation and policies are not neutral - but instead those that

write them have various goals and perspectives (Bevan, 2009). Therefore, using critical discourse analysis and textual analysis allowed for these biases to be found, and connected with their impact on the legislation and policies produced.

Therefore, the analysis of semantic structure in policies, legislation, and standards will provide key insight into the discourse within those documents. Similarly, analyzing the sets of documents across a state can provide a look into the cohesion of the documents, since documents do not occur in isolation (Bevan, 2009). Analyzing and comparing states to each other, can provide an analysis of the patterns within and/or lack of cohesion between the states. The analysis of text structure can provide insight about ideas related to systems of knowledge and the assumptions made about relationships and the social identities found in types of text (Fairclough, 1992; Gee, 2014). Specifically, the analysis of policy structure will be a look into where power structures can be seen as well as what knowledge has been legitimized as necessary (Apple, 2019).

This research project also employed Fairclough's (1992) ideas of intertextuality and its relationship with change in discourse. Intertextuality helps to prove how texts go beyond just written language and instead are productive and can shape both prior texts and existing language into new ideas and inform and connect to texts (Fairclough, 1992). Part of this research study is to analyze change over time within both individual states and a region of the United States. By analyzing standards and their changes over time, alongside the legislation and policies created by the state governments to influence those standards, this research relies heavily on the concept of intertextuality and how discourse (particularly in its written form) shapes future discourse.

Those who write and implement standards, who write legislation and policies related to Social Studies education, and who create the assessments for everything are the ones with the

power (Apple, 2019). Knowledge and power are linked - those who have power are the ones who determine what knowledge is shared and viewed as important. This then creates a reality where those perspectives are written and communicated as normalized, valued, and true (Dunn & Neumann, 2016). Therefore, in this particular research study of the standards, legislation, and policies related to the teaching of Social Studies in the South, analyzing the language of those in power – and how this language manifests in Social Studies standards and policy across states and time – is valuable and necessary.

Discourse

This research study employed both critical discourse analysis and textual analysis. Fairclough (1992) views “discourse,” or language, as a social practice and as a mode of action - a way for people to represent themselves, and act upon the world around them. “[D]iscourse is shaped and constrained by social structure in the widest sense and at all levels ... by the relations specific to particular institutions such as law or education, ...” (Fairclough, 1992, p. 64). Language is our medium to communicate our perspectives on reality (Gee, 2014). For the legislators, department members, and committees that write the standards and pass policies and legislation related to Social Studies education, the language they use to do so communicates their perspectives on history, the teaching of history, and the education system – and these perspectives make their way into curriculum. Therefore, utilizing critical discourse analysis to determine those perspectives and the influence of their power and how they have or have not changed since the rise of standardization, as best seen with the passage of No Child Left Behind, is valid. This research focused on standards, and legislation (both proposed and enacted) - all examples of how state governments and those within act upon the educational world around them. Policies and standards are the sanctioned forms of knowledge by those in power (Apple,

2019; Ravitch, 2013). However - knowledge is not made important just through the language in standards and policy, but instead also through what the language carries with it as it relates to the purpose of Social Studies. This also feeds into what Social Studies knowledge is worth knowing, and how those in power use their position to legitimize and standardize their version of what knowledge is worth knowing.

State Selection

Rather than analyzing the entirety of the United States, this research will focus on the states within the Deep South region of the United States. The states included within the Deep South region are: Georgia, South Carolina, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana (Merriam Webster, n.d.).

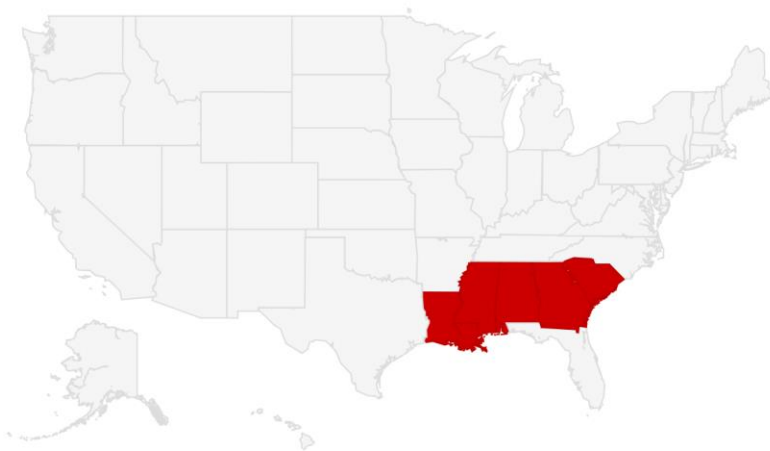


Figure 3 - Map of the U.S. Highlighting the Deep South

The Deep South was chosen as the focus for this research for several reasons. The first reason is that I reside and teach within a Southern state, and therefore, I am familiar with the history of the region. I have a vested interest in researching the region due to personal and professional ties to the South. Secondly, in the current political climate, analyzing these specific states is poignant (PEN America, 2023). These states, historically, have resisted federal and nation-wide education initiatives (Ollove, 2013). There was Southern resistance to the Supreme

Court decision of *Brown v. Board of Education* (Legal Defense Fund, n.d.), and then further resistance to the passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) (NY State Archives, 2009). This history of resistance to integration, promises of equity, and efforts toward educational justice creates an interesting edu-political climate, particularly as it relates to the teaching of Social Studies. Therefore, this research into how the curricular landscape has changed is timely to the current debates and discussions about the role of Social Studies education across the Deep South.

Data Collection

The collection of documents was done through thorough online research; all documents were publicly available and accessible. The search began with standards. The goal was to find iterations of all the states' iterations of the standards going back to at least 2000 so that the project would begin with standards pre-NCLB and cover the entire time that NCLB was in effect. Online research was successful in finding most standards. The state department for each state was contacted with an email requesting any previous iterations of standards, as well as any suggested legislation to analyze. Responses were varied, and the only new content received was the draft of Alabama's proposed standards for 2026. In addition to the standards, legislative documents were procured for analysis and comparison. Those documents included any legislation related to standards, accountability, educational materials, educational content, and Social Studies content. A similar list was compiled of all related proposed bills going back to the 2000 sessions. Table 3.1 contains a summary of what was accessed and analyzed.

Table 1 - Summary of Analyzed Documents

	Standard Iterations	Title / Chapter of Laws	Number of Bills
SC	2000 2005 2011 2019	Title: 59 Chapters: 1, 18, 25, 28, 29, 31, 141	80
GA	2008 2016 2023	Title: 20 Chapters: 1, 2, 3, 5, 14	55
AL	1998 2004 2010 Proposed 2026	Title: 16 Chapters: 1, 6, 21, 32, 35, 36, 40, 42, 43, 44	97
MS	1998 2004 2011 2018 2022	Title: 37 Chapters: 3, 12, 13, 17, 43	207 total 90 unique bills analyzed
LA	1997 2011 2022	Title: 17 Chapters: 10, 24, 261, 262, 265, 268, 277, 282, 2115, 2119 Title: 24 Chapters: 971, 973	85

Data Analysis

There were a multitude of documents gathered for this research. These documents included state standards for secondary Social Studies (both current and previous iterations), as well as legislation both proposed and passed in each state related to Social Studies education. House and Senate Resolutions were included as they applied, as well as Executive Orders from various governors.

Social Studies Standards

Once all the documents were collected, four rounds of analysis occurred. The first round of analysis was a read-through of all iterations of the standards. This read-through was meant to

familiarize me with the content of the standards. Once the first round was completed, I was able to identify possible patterns and categories of topics that could be used as codes in later rounds of analysis. The second round of analysis was to analyze the specific standards for their Depth of Knowledge (DOK) requirements. The purpose of identifying the DOK levels for the standards was to be able to track changes over time of expectations of students and to see the rigor expected of students across various states. Specifically, the standards were analyzed for the verbiage related to tasks - what are students expected to do with the content covered in the standard. For example, if students are expected to identify the causes and effects of an event, that is a DOK Level 1. Comparatively, if students are expected to analyze the causes and effects of an event and then debate which cause was the most significant, that is a DOK Level 3, since students must use information to prove their perspective. Task verbs alone did not determine DOK level but were significant when determining what DOK level the indicator was requiring of students. The third round of analysis was focused on the four components of textual analysis as defined by Fairclough (1992). These four components are: vocabulary, grammar, cohesion, and text structure (Fairclough, 1992). The goal of this round of analysis was to analyze the larger discourse(s) found within these documents.

Rather than just focusing on what the documents say at face value, this third round of analysis was meant to analyze all the documents for their connections to each other through language, stated goals, and the intertextuality found between the documents. Additionally, standards and indicators were open coded using the overarching categories determined after the first round of analysis. The documents were color coded for the following topics: content coverage, narration focus, and controversial topics. Each coded datum also had a corresponding analytic memo detailing the reasoning behind the code association and analysis for later

discussion. An overarching pattern that emerged from this third round of analysis is that each set of standards clearly used targeted language to push particular narratives, and that the times where the “controversial topics” code was applied was often when content was missing, rather than discussed.

The fourth round of analysis consisted of a review of the analytic memos and open coding generated during the second round of analysis. Through this review of the analytic memos, I pulled common ideas across them to create a larger list of commonalities across the iterations of standards and across states. These ideas were then cross-referenced with the open codes completed to create the overarching themes dealing with representation, the concept of “American,” capitalism, and religion. After I identified these major themes, I compared them with the fourth round of analysis of legislation. I broke down the major themes into subcategories to inform the findings in Chapter 4 and the discussion in Chapter 5.

Legislation – Enacted and Proposed

Similar to the rounds of analysis of the standards, the first round of analysis of the other documents was a read-through of the documents to familiarize myself with the contents, as well as provide some basic categories to begin open coding in the second round of analysis. However, the second round of analysis of the legislation documents differs from the second round of analysis of the standards. While the second round of analysis for the standards was focused upon the DOK levels, the legislative documents collected were analyzed and open coded for purpose - both stated and unstated. Apple (2019) identifies purpose as the underlying, often hidden intentions and goals embedded within language use. This is typically tied to power dynamics and serves to maintain or challenge existing social structures.

Therefore, the second round of analysis began with identifying the stated purpose of the various pieces of legislation and proposed bills. Then, the unstated purpose was addressed by color coding the documents for whether the document was either (1) creating or protecting an identity; (2) addressing or fixing a (perceived) issue; or (3) reacting to a situation. Additionally, for each coded datum analytic memos were created that outlined further the reasoning for the assigned code and further analysis of the unstated purpose. The third round of analysis utilized Gee's seven building tasks of language to answer discourse analysis questions (Gee, 2017). Each document was color coded again, depending on which question(s) could be answered through the document. Analytic memos were also created for this round of analysis, detailing how the document represented one of the building tasks of language. The list of the building blocks and the corresponding questions that were answered by analysis can be found in Appendix A.

Similar to the fourth round of analysis of the standards, the last round of analysis of legislation was conducted by reviewing the analytic memos and open coding completed during the first three rounds of analysis. Beginning with the analytic memos, common ideas (e.g., racial representation, religion, capitalism, etc.) were pulled and then cross-referenced with the results of the open coding. I compared these ideas with those generated during the fourth round of analysis of the standards to identify the larger themes of representation, the concept of "American," capitalism, and religion. I then broke these themes into subcategories to inform the findings in Chapter 4 and the discussion in Chapter 5.

Trustworthiness

Qualitative research, due to its nature, tends to be subjective and dependent upon the researcher. Therefore, developing trustworthiness and credibility is crucial for the success of the research. In Lincoln, Guba, and Pilotta's (1985) work, they define four criteria for

trustworthiness in qualitative research - credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability (Lincoln et al., 1985; Stahl & King, 2020).

Credibility

In order to promote credibility within this research study, data triangulation was utilized. Since there were multiple types of documents collected - standards, enacted legislation, proposed legislation, etc. - data triangulation was important in order to examine larger patterns within and across standards across the Deep South. Rather than only analyzing the standards themselves, by utilizing data found within legislation pieces and policies, the larger patterns of the curricular landscape can be found and analyzed. Connections between policies and legislation (both proposed and enacted) can be made with how the standards are created, showing an alignment between the legislature and the respective Departments of Education that work to create the standards. It also allows for the patterns regarding political ideology and their representation in the standards to be seen. Additionally, by having multiple rounds of analysis, this created a time of prolonged engagement with data. This time allowed me to become more familiar with the content in the documents and be able to examine the patterns of change related to the narratives of the standards and the impact of the legislature on the teaching of Social Studies. While completing multiple rounds of analysis, I completed self-reflection and documenting in reflective memos my thoughts, perspectives, questions, and connections made. I also inductively coded these memos to create more meaningful engagement with my perspectives on analysis.

Transferability

Since this research study is being done for a particular region of the country, it stands to be reasoned that this study could be conducted in a different region of the country, particularly given the in-depth descriptions of the research design, data collection, and analysis methods. As

part of the written results thick description will be utilized. Geertz (1973) described thick description as “the detailed account of field experiences in which the researcher makes explicit the patterns of cultural and social relationships and puts them in context” (p. 5). The use of thick description of procedures in data collection, data analysis, findings, and interpretations allowed me the time to reflect and examine biases and assumptions and helped to create a careful and systematic observation of the findings for readers. Additionally, this research project does not involve interviews, observations, or other unique experiences. This research project is based upon documents that are open to the public and therefore similar studies to this project could be completed across different regions of the country.

Dependability

This research project is being completed for a dissertation. Therefore, the results found within are not solely published by the researcher - but are reviewed and checked by the dissertation major professor. Additionally, the use of reflective memos by the researcher allowed for self-reflection and analysis examination during the research. These memos were done regularly throughout the process of analysis, completed at the end of each round of analysis for each type of document by state. Reflective memos were handwritten in the research notebooks of the researcher, and were a summary of what was discovered, thoughts on connections to other states, and overall reflection on what was found. This reflexive auditing provides sincerity and transparency.

Confirmability

As stated previously, this research project includes data that is primarily publicly available (or made so through FOIA requests and communication with respective state departments of education). This availability of data allows readers to draw their own conclusions

about standards, policies, and court cases. However, I continued to utilize reflective memos, examining how I engaged with the data and analysis processes, ensuring the findings and conclusions stem from what exists in the data. With the auditing of the dissertation committee, and the reflexive auditing that comes from the reflective memos, this research study meets the qualifications for confirmability. The strategies and practices outlined above were chosen to establish trust, credibility, and accuracy in this research project.

Limitations

One key limitation of this research is the time constraint of the project. Since this research project is being completed as my dissertation project, this creates a limit on the length of the project. Another limitation of the study is the availability of documents. Some documents were difficult to access or were not available without a Freedom of Information (FOIA) request. All five states for this research project have laws that give the public the right to access information by public bodies, but they do vary by state (State Freedom of Information Laws – National Freedom of Information Coalition, n.d.). When a FOIA request was filed with South Carolina, the cost required to complete the request was higher than anticipated, and not practical (especially if needed from other states as well) for this project. The project then is based on documents accessible by the internet and basic communication with state departments of education, which helped focus the project.

Delimitations

One delimitation of this research project is the scope of the project. This research project is focused on the Deep South instead of the entire United States in order to maximize the time spent on analyzing the five states of the Deep South. This also allows the researcher to focus on one region of the country instead of attempting to analyze documents from all fifty states.

Another delimitation of this research project is the time period analyzed. This project analyzes the time period between the passing of the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) in 2001 and July 1, 2024. NCLB was a significant piece of legislation in the field of education, particularly in relation to the adoption of standards. This creates a clear beginning point, and June 30, 2024 marks the end of the 2023-2024 school year. This end point was chosen to allow for the most up-to-date policies to be included, since this research project is being conducted during the 2024-2025 school year. By analyzing a time period of almost twenty-five years, long-term impacts and patterns can be observed more clearly.

Summary

This research study intended to analyze the curricular landscape of the Deep South in Social Studies education since the adoption of the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB). This qualitative study is rooted in Fairclough's (1992) ideas of critical discourse analysis in order to examine larger patterns within changes in the education system and to help find connections between legislation, policies, and standards and the larger education curricula. This research study is based in the Deep South United States, and at the high school level. Documents collected for this study include educational standards and relevant legislation (both proposed and enacted). All of these were analyzed through several rounds of analysis to find the meanings behind the documents, and larger patterns of influence from those who work to legislate education and the teaching of Social Studies.

Chapter 4 - Findings

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to complete a comprehensive, critical discourse and textual analysis of the Social Studies curricular landscape in the South and the changes that have occurred since the rise of standardization and accountability - most notably, since the passage of No Child Left Behind (NCLB) in 2001. Focused on five states in the Deep South, this study examined standards and legislation in Alabama (AL), South Carolina (SC), Georgia (GA), Mississippi (MS), and Louisiana (LA). Specifically, the following research questions guided this study:

1. How has the Social Studies curricular landscape evolved in the United States Deep South since 2001?
 - a. How have Social Studies standards evolved in the United States Deep South since the rise of standardization and accountability?
 - b. How has the educational legislative landscape shaped Social Studies education in the United States Deep South since the rise of standardization and accountability?

This chapter is to present the findings of the research. The chapter begins with the enacted legislation from across the states sorted into five categories (1) Continued Socialization; (2) Textbooks and Instructional Materials; (3) Education Related Committees; (4) Religious Inclusions; and (5) Civil Rights, Black History, and “Divisive Concepts.” Following enacted legislation will be the relevant bills proposed in each state. This section also has five subsections: (1) Changing Education Committees; (2) The Importance of Civics; (3) Instructional Topics in Social Studies; (4) Religious Inclusions; and (5) Civil Rights, Black History, and “Divisive

Concepts.” The next section will be presenting information found regarding the standards of each state. Beginning with standards adopted before No Child Left Behind (NCLB), the findings related to Depth of Knowledge (DOK) analysis will be presented first, followed by specific findings related to U.S. History standards and then Government Standards. This information will be delineated by state. This format is repeated for standards adopted between 2001-2009, 2010-2015, and 2016-present.

Legislation

Education is a reserved power in the United States - resulting in individual education systems within each state. Therefore, each state has legislation that both creates and controls their respective education system. The following section is an outline of relevant legislative sections that are either related specifically to Social Studies education or impact how Social Studies is taught in classrooms across the state. Table 5, found in Appendix B showcases common sections of legislation across all five states of the Deep South along with the respective year of codification. The following subsections include legislation related to the continued socialization of students, textbooks and instruction, educational committees, religious inclusions, and Civil Rights, Black history, and “Divisive Concepts.” The subsections are divided into the respective states. Table 2 outlines the themes found through the analysis of each state in regard to legislation.

Table 2 - Themes of Legislation Analysis

SC	GA	AL	MS	LA
- Accountability System - Patriotism and Civics - Religion in Schools	- Structure of education system - Patriotism and Civics	- Content coverage - Instructional materials - Patriotism and civics	- Study of Civil Rights - Religion in schools - Textbooks	- Content taught - Patriotism and civics

In the 1980s, the standards-reform movement began picking up steam, and pushing for changes in education. Correspondingly, the states began in the 1980s and 1990s codifying “accountability systems” that provided more structure and accountability in their respective education systems. Additionally, this time period also provided laws regarding content standards and their implementation in schools. The five states of the Deep South each took their own approach to improving their education systems, however the cultural and historic similarities between these states did create some continuity across their actions.

Continued Socialization

South Carolina

Passed in 1993, and amended in 1998, South Carolina (SC) established a state implementation plan to accomplish national education goals. These goals included items such as a graduation rate, competency over certain subjects (including history and geography), literacy rates, and freedom from violence. This set expectations for the education system in SC that are still working to be achieved. Along with other states, South Carolina sought more rigorous education in the 1980s. An emphasis on high order thinking and problem-solving skills was created with legislation in both 1984 and 1989. This legislation required the development of materials that could be used to teach higher order thinking and problem-solving skills and the assistance of the State Department of Education to the school districts in implementing these materials.

In 1998, SC passed legislation creating an accountability system for public schools in SC and establishing the need for state-wide academic standards. While there have been updates and amendments, this legislation is still the basis for the current education system in South Carolina. Recent amendments have added the requirements for students to meet the “Profile of a South

Carolina Graduate” that was codified in 2016. This accountability system requires the use of academic standards, an annual report card, and more. The Profile was established in 2016 and was an attempt to set an expectation for what high school graduates of SC would be able to accomplish. It lists what students can be expected to learn, what world class skills they should be equipped with, and what life and career characteristics they should possess. This profile is what guides the current academic standards and expectations of the State Department of Education. In §59-18-100 the legislature identifies what the expectation is for students when they graduate - that they are ready to succeed in entry-level college courses or in on-the-job training (hence the rebranding of the latest standards as College-and-Career-Ready standards). This creation of the expectations for students does not just extend to the knowledge gained in the classroom, but also in regard to their citizenship.

SC law supports an engaged citizenry through education related to patriotism and an understanding of civics. One such support is through the allowance of youth patriotic societies to meet with students. In creating “Patriot Day,” “Patriot Week,” and “Constitution Day,” the SC legislature encourages schools to promote patriotism and “kindred virtues.” Establishing a list of “approved” associations, the legislature requires principals to allow members of the associations to talk with and present to students during the special weeks created. While it does create some limitations, it is a requirement of all schools. If no associations express interest in coming to the school, the school can still meet the requirements of the section if they incorporate extra instruction on civics and patriotism into the lesson plans of the week. An additional way that the state is encouraging patriotism and civics is through the required civics test. Codified in 2015, all high school students must take the one hundred question test that applicants for citizenship take.

While there is not a required passing score, schools are required to report the percentage of students who passed - and that data will be added to the school's annual report card.

Another addition of a special day and instruction to support students gaining knowledge related to what it means to be an active citizen is in reference to Veteran's Day. §59-29-120 is multifaceted - focusing both on the requirement of Constitution education and activities related to veterans. The portion related to veterans includes the requirement of a honoring of veterans for at least one hour. The law specifies that this can be done in classroom instruction or in an assembly. As an additional way to encourage students to honor veterans, students who miss school for an activity that honors and commemorates veterans can count the activity as a part of the instructional day. This support allows for students to understand societal expectations in regard to not only veterans, but also patriotic expression and what it means to be an engaged citizen.

Georgia

Originally passed in 1981, Georgia's foundation for the education system is the Quality Basic Education Act. This act outlines the objectives of the education system, as well as the purpose of education in Georgia. Most of the legislation regarding education in Georgia can be organized into one of two categories - the structure of education in Georgia, and the representation of patriotism and civics in schools. The Quality Basic Education Act (§20-2-131) outlines the "needs" in Georgia's education system. The "needs" within the law highlight the need for a rigorous curriculum and content standards.

Students in Georgia are expected to take Social Studies courses in both elementary and secondary schools in the study of government, U.S. History, and Georgia history (§20-2-142). Passed in 1981 with the most recent amendment passed in 2015, Georgia also requires

instruction in the “founding philosophy and founding principles” of the U.S. Government, as shown in the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution, the Federalist Papers, and the writings of the Founders (§20-2-142.1). There are four aspects of founding philosophies expected of students and fourteen founding principles. Additionally, five “transformational movements” are added at the end of the section that students are expected to know. Later legislation creates a list of “historically significant documents” that schools are “strongly encouraged” to display (§20-2-1021). These documents are to be displayed in order to “increase student understanding of, and familiarity with, American historical documents.” The emphasis on historical documents helps to make sure that students are engaged citizens, and understand what is expected of them as they leave the K-12 system.

Another instance of the legislation making sure that students are prepared to be engaged citizens is in how patriotism is included in the legislation. §20-2-147 is in regard to Veterans Day and its celebrations. This law highlights the inclusion of instruction regarding “the contributions of veterans and the importance of the armed forces” on or around Veteran’s Day. It also provides legislative support for schools taking Veteran’s Day as a holiday - highlighting the importance of recognizing the holiday in schools. Similarly, §20-2-1020 creates “Celebrate Freedom Week” - a week dedicated to educating students about the history of the United States. This week is around Constitution Day, and the legislation details what is expected of instruction during that week - going into detail regarding what topics must be instructed upon and even which documents should be recited by students. Similarly, §20-2-310 promotes active citizenship of students while still in the K-12 system, to prepare them for after they graduate. This particular section of legislation is threefold: (1) allowing military recruitment in high schools; (2) allowing for

students to register to vote at school; and (3) the recitation of the pledge of allegiance and the display of the flag at each school.

While GA schools are explicitly including learning patriotism, partisanship is supposed to be kept out of the school. An example of this is in §20-2-1011, regarding instructional materials and content. The final sentence of the section reads, “None of the instructional materials so purchased shall contain anything of a partisan or sectarian nature.” These apolitical sentiments extend to envisioning post-K-12 life through including character education. In the last sentence of the section of §20-2-131, it is marked that students are expected to be responsible citizens of “high character.” §20-2-145 helps to fulfill this requirement by creating the requirements for a comprehensive character education program. A list of twenty-seven “character traits” make up the “character curriculum” that also denounces bullying and violence. This law was implemented beginning with the 2000-2001 school year.

Alabama

Alabama passed a law in 1984 to address the needs within the education system. §16-6A-3 outlines the intent of the legislature to support an improvement to the education system, and the following section codifies the governor’s program for improving education (§-16-6A-4). The governor outlined eleven steps in the program, including addressing critical needs areas. This plan for improvement was followed in 1995 with §16-6B-1, which outlines the goals for the public education system in Alabama. This section outlines the “two basic things” that can be expected from public schools - high achievement for students, and a safe and orderly environment in which to learn. Alabama legislation provides both required subjects for students to be proficient in before they graduate and optional electives for students. §16-6B-2 outlines the “core curriculum” expected of every Alabama student (beginning with the 1996-1997 school

year), including four credits of English, four credits of mathematics, four credits of science, and four credits of Social Studies. One topic in Social Studies missing from this particular section of the legislature is that of civics or government, which was added with §16-40-10 in 2017. This section of law not only makes a government credit required to graduate but adds in a civics test requirement. In Alabama, students must take and pass (60/100) the naturalization test that immigration officers use, to be posted on the student's transcript. This emphasis on making sure that students are knowledgeable about what is expected of them once they leave the K-12 system can be seen through the various pieces of legislation related to civics in the education system.

Patriotism and civics are two topics that the Alabama legislature codified into laws outlining the expression and instruction of patriotism and civics in schools. The Pledge of Allegiance, for example, is a required portion of the daily character education that schools are supposed to provide to students (§16-6B-2). Additionally, in that same section of the law regarding character traits, the following traits are specifically named: courage, patriotism, citizenship, school pride, and loyalty. All of these add to the representation of patriotism and civics in schools (§16-6B-2-h). There are several sections of Alabama law related to patriotic displays in schools. For example, §16-43-1 outlines the display of flags at each school, while §16-43-5 outlines the proper process for reciting the Pledge of Allegiance at the start of school each day. These laws discuss the displays of patriotic symbols and practices.

Schools in Alabama are venues for students to become more knowledgeable about active citizenship and engagement. §16-44A-1 explains the legislative intent to increase citizenship and leadership programs to support “southern economic development and progress.” §16-44A-2 follows this intent by creating the “Alabama Compact for Leadership and Citizenship Education.” This compact had three goals: (1) increase leadership and citizenship programs; (2)

make sure rural and under-served areas had community and leadership programs; (3) create a network to increase communications between programs and other interested parties. Another aspect of the compact was developing “supplementary instructional materials” for classroom use. This compact also became known as the Citizenship Trust. The legislature determined that citizenship and character education are “essential to the civic, political, economic, security, and social well-being of our society...” (Citizenship Trust, 1995, 16.44.A-30-b) and therefore made sure that the compact/trust had legislative backing for its mission of improving patriotism and civic awareness.

Mississippi

Mississippi first passed their performance-based accreditation systems in 1982. There have been many amendments throughout the years, with the most recent amendment being passed in 2024. §37-17-6 outlines the requirements for accreditation, along with the grading system for schools and school districts. This helps to create the basis for the school system in Mississippi. Other sections of the Mississippi Code relate to the overall structure of the education system as well, such as §37-3-49 regarding the adoption of instructional programs by the school districts or the sections that create specified schools - such as §37-139-1 - 37-139-13 that creates the Mississippi School for Math and Science or §37-140-1 - 37-140-17 that creates the Mississippi School of the Arts. Other than the occasional law that is in regard to the instructional structure of Mississippi’s education system, the remainder of the education legislation falls into one of three categories: the study of Civil Rights, religion within schools, and textbooks.

Louisiana

Passed in 1997, the accountability system created by §17:10.1 creates the structure of the education system in Louisiana. The purpose of the section is fourfold - focusing on the purpose

of the accountability system and creating a system that is focused on student academic achievement. The rest of §17:10.1 outlines what that accountability system looks like and creates the foundation of the education system. There are many laws regarding content taught in Louisiana schools. The main piece of legislation regarding the content (and standards) in school is §17:24.4 - the “Competency-Based Education Program.” This law creates the statewide content standards. It defines those standards as the “knowledge and skills needed for students to successfully transition to postsecondary education and the workplace.” Standards are created for the content areas of “English language arts, mathematics, science, and Social Studies” and then assessments are created based on those standards. These sections of the law help to create the expectations of students as they pass through and leave the K-12 system.

One way that the Louisiana legislature has made sure students are ready to be engaged citizens after high school is through several laws regarding patriotic displays in schools. Similar to most other states, there are laws concerning the display of flags and the national motto (§17:262) and the reciting of the Pledge of Allegiance (§17:2115). Both of these sections make sure that schools are a place where patriotism is encouraged and expected. §17:262 added the requirement of displaying the motto at the school in 2018, and then followed that with specific display requirements of every classroom in 2023. Beyond just patriotic displays, the legislature has codified requirements for education regarding patriotic knowledge.

The laws related to patriotic knowledge include content covered in both U.S. History and Government. For example, §17:265 requires instruction in the “Founding Principles” of the U.S. The law identifies ten concepts that should be included in this instruction and that the principles should be included in both government and U.S. history courses. One phrase in this law is that the rights of the people are identified as “Creator-endowed”. Similarly, §17:261 requires “regular

courses” on the Constitution beginning with eighth grade, and §17:268 requires the Declaration of Independence be taught in elementary schools and the Federalist Papers to be taught in high schools. §17:274.1 creates a requirement for additional civics instruction, including the topic of “Free Enterprise.” Additionally, §17:2119 creates “Freedom Week” in September. This week requires that all students be taught about “topics related to freedom” - specifically the “nation’s founding and the intent, meaning, and importance of the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States of America, including the Bill of Rights.” Both of these sections of law highlight how the Louisiana legislature has emphasized the representation of patriotism and civics in schools. All of these patriotic displays are furthered by the work of the Louisiana Commission on Civic Education.

In 2004, the Louisiana legislature passed §24:971 creating the “Louisiana Commission on Civic Education.” The goals of this commission are twofold - (1) to educate students about “the importance of citizen involvement” and (2) “promote communication and collaboration” among those that “conduct civic education programs.” §24:973 outlines what the commission shall do and what they should be educating citizens about. One of the topics that they should make sure citizens are aware of is that “individual involvement is a critical factor in community success.” By making sure that students are aware of the expectation of them once they graduate, the Louisiana legislature is engaging in the socialization of students and using the school system to make sure that students are ready to be citizens. There is no requirement for a current educator to be involved in the commission. Various organizations have representatives and could choose an educator, but it is not required.

Textbooks and Instructional Materials

While teachers are resilient and have proven throughout history that they are capable of teaching in extreme situations, having reliable textbooks and instructional materials makes the job of an educator easier. However, those textbooks are provided by the respective departments of education in each state, and therefore there are legislative requirements and procedures in regard to textbooks. Similarly, most of the states also include guidelines for textbooks and instructional materials. These align to or extend their stated requirements and structures for instructional materials to support education across the state.

South Carolina

Regular revisions of standards are beneficial for making sure that the official content taught is up to date and relevant to students. §59-18-350 officially requires that standards be reviewed and updated every seven years. Recommended revisions are given by the reviewing task force to the Education Oversight Committee and the State Board of Education (SBE) for consideration. The General Assembly must then pass a joint resolution approving of the new standards before they are officially adopted. These standards are then used to officially adopt instructional materials for the state. All instructional materials are reviewed by the SBE for their connection with the state academic standards before approval. The state academic standards are also the basis for the establishment of a statewide assessment program. This program is designed to measure student performance and promote student learning. Specifically, Social Studies is tested in fifth grade, seventh grade, and then as an End-of-Course (EOC) exam for the U.S. History and Constitution course at the high school level.

Georgia

To support Social Studies courses, and specifically U.S. History teachers, §20-2-1022 creates a database of online instructional resources related to U.S. History for teachers. This database is to specifically cover the documents listed for display in §20-2-1021, in order to make sure that those documents are understood by all - both teachers and students. Georgia's code of laws does address textbooks, but not instructional materials.

Alabama

Alabama's legislature has codified many requirements and procedures regarding instructional materials. The following sections just relate to textbooks and their procurement: §16-36-60, 16-36-60.1, 16-36-61, 16-36-63, 16-36-64, 16-36-66, 16-36-69, and 16-36-70. Eight different sections of law that just relate to the acquiring of textbooks and their use in the classroom. §16-36-60, the criteria for analysis by the State Textbook Committee is outlined, stating that publishers will need to "provide specific evidence of how and where the standards are addressed in the textbook." Additionally, the section allows the committee members to complete the analysis, looking for "content, accuracy, bias, price, or other concerns..." which permits committee members to review textbooks. Order §16-36-64 (b) also explains forbidden ideological orientations from educational materials used by the state, explicitly naming the "Communist Party" and resources that "advocate [for] communism or Marxist socialism."

While textbooks go through an approval process with the textbook committees, §16-36-73 creates similar review committees for other instructional materials. These "instructional materials" can qualify for a statewide master service agreement, so that teachers and schools across the state can access the materials approved by the State Department of Education. In some cases, instructional materials are actually reviewed by the State Textbook Committee, such as the

review of periodicals as provided in §16-36-74. The legislature has codified the need for transparency beyond the normal requirements of the Freedom of Information Act (FOIA). §16-1-57 outlines the requirement that every school must provide updated curricula on their school website within thirty days of a curriculum being adopted and at the beginning of each school year. Additionally, the section requires that classroom teachers provide (upon request) parents/guardians of students with summaries of any materials used in the classroom, including books that are available for students. Parents can file complaints if a teacher refuses, and the complaints can escalate to the State Superintendent of Education. This particular law allows parents to be informed about what is happening in a teacher's classroom, and requires teachers and schools to be transparent about any instructional materials being used.

Mississippi

There are several sections of law in Mississippi that are solely focused on textbooks. §37-43-21 is an overview of all things textbooks - the committees to select textbooks, textbook allotments, and even prices for textbook purchases. The following sections also address textbooks in specific ways:

§37-43-23: Purchasing and distribution of textbooks

§37-43-27: Textbooks cannot be purchased from trusts

§37-43-31: The selection of books by local districts

The specifications regarding textbooks have less to do with control over what content is in the textbooks, and rather the financial aspects of textbooks. While there is acknowledgement that textbooks may be rejected for content, the content of textbooks is not the primary focus of the textbook legislation in Mississippi.

Education Related Committees

South Carolina

Some states also included explicit language focused on the establishment of educational committees meant to oversee and approve educational materials. The only committee addressed in the South Carolina code of laws was the Education Oversight Committee. This committee is multifaceted, but one of its key roles is in regard to reviewing the standards. Revisions of the standards are given to the Education Oversight Committee and the State Board of Education (SBE) for consideration.

Alabama

Alabama's code of laws creates an individual committee for each course of study as created by §16-6B-2. §16-35-1 creates these committees that are made up of twenty-eight members, half of which must be current teachers. The other half is made up of governor appointees, business leaders, and parents. These committees are to conduct studies and evaluate the courses taught and prepare the contents of the "courses of study". They are to prepare a report of recommendations at least once every two years, and then further updates/adoptions are left up to the State Board of Education.

Louisiana

The main committee created within the Louisiana code of laws is in regard to the standards committee. This committee is made up of "content experts, elementary and secondary educators and school leaders, postsecondary education leaders, and business and industry leaders." The requirements for this committee and their responsibilities are found within §17:24.4 - the "Competency-Based Education Program."

Religious Inclusions

South Carolina, Georgia, and Alabama

All states include standards related to religion. For example, SC enacted in 2010 the Religious Viewpoints Antidiscrimination Act which prohibits discrimination against students for their religious viewpoints. This also protects religious groups as they meet on campus, requiring that they be given the same access as any secular, non-curricular groups. While not mentioning a single religion, the specified use of “see you at the pole” gatherings is a specific reference to Christian gatherings on school campuses.

SC codified in 2007 an authorization of Bible-related courses. The two electives of the Old and New Testaments would focus on the history and literature of the respective testaments. There are clarifications in the law that it is not meant to influence students, but instead be an objective course and one that has academic standards created by the State Board of Education. In Georgia, §20-2-148 outlines the requirements for an elective course regarding the Old and New Testaments of the Bible. It does espouse religious neutrality, and does not require the course, but there is notably no legislative backing for similar courses focusing on other religions. Interestingly, this legislation was originally proposed in 2001, as a course in the “history, literature, and culture of the Ancient Middle East” but was finally made law in 2006. Another example of this support for religion in schools is found within §20-2-145 regarding character education. One of the character traits in the list of twenty-seven is “respect for the creator.” While the “c” in “creator” is not capitalized, this clearly recognizes the belief in creationism and denounces other theories such as the big bang theory or evolution. Similar to both South Carolina and Georgia, Alabama has codified elective courses regarding the study of the Bible. §16-40-20

and §16-40-21 create legislative backing for elective courses in the study of the Bible/religious history.

Mississippi and Louisiana

As “Bible Belt” states, Mississippi and Louisiana have several laws that import the place of religion (namely, Christianity) in schools. One such law is the “Student Religious Liberties Act” (passed in Mississippi in 2013). The act has multiple sections:

§37-12-3 - Student expression

§37-12-5 - Religion expression in class assignments

§37-12-7 - Freedom to organize religious groups and activities

While the law does recognize that students cannot be forced to participate in religious activities (§37-12-11), it still supports the place of religion in schools. While this act takes a broad stance on religion, language within the law, such as “see you at the pole gatherings” references Christianity. This creates a legislative backing for Christian beliefs to be expressed in schools across Mississippi. The law also creates a model policy for districts to use in regard to students using their right to religious expression in public forums, such as graduation or other speeches. §37-13-161 of the Mississippi Code allows for religion to be brought into the classroom not just by the students. According to the law, references to religion or using religious literature/history/art/music/etc. are acceptable for use in a course of study. Similarly, § 37-13-163 prohibits “content-based censorship... based on any religious references contained” within any classroom. This section also requires the display of the national motto (“IN GOD WE TRUST”) in every classroom, school auditorium, and school cafeteria. Originally passed in 1997 with an amendment in 2001, both of these sections carve out a presence for Christianity in state schools and various content areas.

Mississippi code also requires character education for all grades. Passed in 1997, character traits must “reflect and be in keeping with both the spirit and the letter of the following founding documents: The Mississippi Constitution of 1890; the Constitution of the United States of America; the Declaration of Independence; and state and federal law” (§37-13-181). The following section (§37-13-183) clarifies that students cannot be evaluated based on whether they show the character traits taught in their lives, but instead can be assessed on whether they understand the character trait. While not specific in what character traits must be explicitly taught, it remained unclear from where these traits emerge, and how or whether they are connected to particular morality belief systems. Similar to the other states, Louisiana has codified an elective course regarding the study of the Bible. §17:282 creates an elective course regarding the “history and literature of the Bible.” This legislative support for a Bible course is consistent with a state in the “Bible Belt” and is corroborated by the other states.

Civil Rights, Black History, and “Divisive Concepts”

South Carolina, Louisiana, and Mississippi

While all standards contain content related to Black history and Civil Rights, only three states contain legislation requiring their inclusion. Social Studies education required by law in SC must include Black history as a “regular part of its history and Social Studies courses.” While there is a specification that for grades 1-6 there should be a focus on the relationship of agriculture, other industries, and the South Carolina economy, that specification is removed for the secondary courses. Louisiana adds a requirement for instruction on black history and the “historical contributions of all nationalities” (§17:277). This law requires the curricula to be created with contributions from the Louisiana Black Culture Commission. Mississippi does not require specific requirement on Black history, but instead adds requirements regarding Civil

Rights. Mississippi codified in 2006 a requirement for the topic of Civil Rights to be included in school curricula. The legislative intent for this law reads,

Understanding the important role the Civil Rights Movement had on the State of Mississippi and understanding the importance of teaching Mississippi's children all of our history, it is the goal of this Legislature to provide meaningful support to this most important endeavor. Mississippi's central role in the civil rights struggle needs to be formalized and taught as a beacon of hope for all of our citizens. (§37-13-191)

While §37-13-193 outlines the five guidelines for implementing civil rights and human rights education as a part of the K-12 curriculum, §37-13-195 creates the "Mississippi Civil Rights Education Commission" to support the implementation of the guidelines.

Georgia and Alabama

The legislatures of both Georgia and Alabama have taken a different approach regarding the teaching of race or a history of racism in the state or country. The legislature of Georgia instead has chosen to codify O.C.G.A. §20-1-11 which addresses "divisive concepts." This law does a few things: (1) provides a list of examples of "divisive concepts"; (2) prohibits discrimination based on race; (3) encourages tolerance while prohibiting any advocacy of divisive concepts; (4) acknowledging limitations of the law; and (5) establishing a complaint policy regarding the use of divisive concepts. This blatant response to fears regarding Critical Race Theory (CRT) in K-12 schools creates a system where the discussion of race, racism, or discrimination is potentially prohibited and therefore a cause of concern. Alabama, also, does not address race or racism – instead establishing the "Stonewall Jackson Memorial Fund" to "memorialize that great American and Confederate general ... through a program of education ... including both essay contests and scholarships" (§16-32-1). The next two sections go on to

create the Board of Trustees for the scholarship fund, as well as providing the sum of \$20,000 to begin the scholarship. The scholarship, established in 1955, still exists, although it is more of a loan than a scholarship, as recipients are required to pay it back (sans interest). All five states of the Deep South have chosen to codify different approaches to Social Studies education, but the similarities between the states of the region become clearer when comparing the bills proposed in each state.

Proposed Bills

Since education is controlled by each state, the legislatures attempt every year to adjust the system and make changes to what is taught in classrooms across the state. The following section is an outline of relevant proposed bills put forth in the various legislatures since 2000. The following subsections include bills related to changing economic committees, the importance of civics, adjusting instructional topics in Social Studies, religious inclusions, and Civil Rights, Black history, and “Divisive Concepts.” The subsections are then divided into the respective states. Table 3 outlines the themes found through analysis of each state in regard to the relevant bills proposed since 2000.

Table 3 - Themes of Proposed Bills Analysis

SC	GA	AL	MS	LA
- Additions to instruction - Instructional materials - Partisanship and civics - Minimization of Social Studies - Racism and Critical Race Theory	- U.S. History instruction - Civics instruction - <i>Religion in schools</i> - Issues of race or racism	- <i>Religion in schools</i> - Civics education and patriotism - Education system structure	- Patriotism and civics - Instructional materials / standards - Topics within Social Studies	- <i>Religion in schools</i> - Implementation of standards - Patriotism and civics

Changing Education Committees

Some states have sought to revise their existing educational committees. There are various committees within the education system in Alabama: committees regarding textbooks, committees that create and evaluate the standards, and more. These committees have requirements for membership, and there are several proposed bills regarding the adjustment of those requirements. One such bill is Senate Bill 125 (2000) that would have adjusted requirements for various positions. In the legislation regarding the State Tenure Committee and the State Courses of Study Committees, at least one member appointed by the governor is prohibited from being affiliated with education. This bill would remove that prohibition, and instead allow for those appointees to be teachers or at least affiliated with education. The bill would also change the legislation regarding the State Textbook Committee, to require at least two members be on their local board of education.

While Louisiana still would have required educator members, Mississippi would have removed that. Proposed in 2004, House Bill 251 attempted to create a “task force” to “study the core curriculum” and find ways to improve it. This task force would have been made of eighteen members, with no requirements that teachers be involved. Various educator-related organizations would have had a representative spot upon the committee, but the bill did not require that current educators be involved. Louisiana House Bill 381 (2014) would have created a “Student Standards Commission” to develop and adopt the state standards. This commission would have a set of requirements for how members would have been chosen, and several of the committee members would have to be current teachers. This commission would have allowed for a larger group of representatives to decide what students are being taught, rather than just the elected officials. Not only were there numerous bills to adjust how education is regulated in each state,

each state also proposed numerous bills attempting to make sure that the education in the state prepared students for post-K12 life as citizens of the United States.

The Importance of Civics

South Carolina

While schools have many purposes, standards across the Deep South sought to establish one of political neutrality. This was emphasized by a bill proposed in 2006 to prohibit schools from conveying or delivering material related to a variety of political issues. A clarification in Part C of the bill does allow for the inclusion of political or issue-related materials in classroom instruction or projects. This was reaffirmed in 2021 with the “Keep Partisanship Out of Civics Act.” This act allows teachers to avoid certain topics related to current events or controversial topics in teaching government and civic courses.

While SC law does encourage civic participation, there have been multiple bills throughout the last twenty-five years regarding the encouragement of civic participation through the action of voting. Senate Bill 254 in 2007 would allow high school students to complete their voter registration form during the school day, and be given extra instruction regarding the importance of voting. A similar bill was also introduced in the House in the same year, in 2015, and in 2017.

SC Law Section 59-29-120 outlines the importance of Veteran’s Day and how it should be included in schools. There have been several attempts by the legislature to amend this section - adding specific topics that students should be instructed on and highlighting the connection between veterans and democracy. These bills would also remove the requirement of the Section regarding instruction about the Constitution and the Declaration of Independence. These bills were introduced in 2015, 2017, 2019, 2021, and 2023.

Georgia

Many bills related to Civics in GA focused on adding civics requirements. Similar to the bill proposed in 2015 that would have codified the requirements for U.S. History courses, House Bill 132 in the same session attempted to add a civics requirement to §20-2-149. The bill included the following statement, highlighting the importance of civics education:

The General Assembly finds that:

Americans have become increasingly disengaged from our civic and political institutions.

...

Our schools must provide students with the knowledge they need to become good citizens, including instruction in American government, history, law, and democracy. (p.

1)

This bill then outlined what topics would need to be included in dedicated civics education.

When the bill did not pass, it was modified into a passing house resolution encouraging the state board of education to “develop and implement comprehensive civics education curricula to improve students’ civic knowledge, skills, and attitudes.” To that end, 2015’s proposed bill would have added a required civics test, mandating students to get at least 60 of the 100 questions correct on the naturalization test used by the United States Citizenship and Immigration Services.

In 2024, a bill was proposed to require the State Board of Education to develop a comprehensive civics education program. This program would be for students from kindergarten to grade 12, and was intended to “prepare students to be civically knowledgeable and responsible adults and to understand the importance of civic involvement in a constitutional republic.” The bill goes on to describe the specifics of the program. One aspect of the program would be oral

histories called “Portraits of Patriotism” that would showcase “stories of diverse individuals who demonstrate civic minded qualities...” to help students understand the importance of civic mindedness. However, while GA attempted to pass legislation related to civics requirements, civic mindedness and civic knowledge were not specified in these proposals.

Alabama

Alabama legislators support citizenship education and patriotism through proposed bills regarding civics in the classroom. For example, the Citizenship Trust was established to support civics education and increase patriotism in students. While the Citizenship Trust is multifaceted, there have been some proposed modifications. House Bill 786 (2001), for example, was proposed to adjust the appropriates for the Trust and amend the mission. This bill aimed to add a requirement that the Trust would “provide educational programs and classroom support in the critical academic areas of history, civics, government, citizenship, and related subjects...”. House Bill 129 from 2001 proposed additions to schools that would show patriotism and encourage patriotic expressions. HB129 acknowledged the need for displaying the national motto in schools - displaying them in each classroom, school auditorium, and cafeteria. Another example is Senate Bill 86 (2004), that would require students to recite the pledge of allegiance daily; as opposed to the current law that gives them the opportunity to say the pledge. A third example of this can be found more recently in Senate Bill 13 (2019) requiring each K-12 school to play the Star-Spangled Banner at least once per week and at the end of every sporting event. This bill (proposed a total of six times since 2019) is another attempt to increase patriotic expression within schools.

While some bills tried to include patriotic expression in schools, others tried to include patriotic content. For example, House Bill 775 (2001) would have required schools to dedicate at

least one day to instruction regarding specific historical documents - the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution, and the Federalist Papers. The bill explained that HB775 asked students to demonstrate their understanding of the document as a graduation requirement, in addition to extra instruction. Additional bills attempted to adjust which specific documents are taught in history classes, all of which are crucial documents to understanding the civil rights and responsibilities of citizens. These bills were labeled as the “Historic Documents Act” and were proposed a total of nine times. Similarly, the “Civic Literacy Act” (proposed three separate times) would increase dedicated instruction to certain “founding documents,” such as the Constitution, Declaration of Independence, the Emancipation Proclamation, and more. Another example of this content addition is House Bill 259, proposed in 2022. This bill proposed adding the “life skills” of “personal rights and good citizenship” to grades six through twelve. These skills could be added as an elective course or in the health education course. Another such example is House Bill 66 from 2003 that proposed a study of “patriotic songs” within the character education program. The bill listed five songs that should be taught: The Star-Spangled Banner, God Bless America, America the Beautiful, My Country Tis of Thee, and the Alabama State Song. The emphasis on citizenship and the rights of people remains a value for the legislature.

In order to address increased civics requirements, a recent Senate Bill attempted to add an extra endorsement for teachers (SB349, 2024). By completing an online course, teachers would have been able to receive the “American History and Civics Seal of Excellence Endorsement” and a one-time stipend. This course would make sure that teachers are knowledgeable regarding civics and American history, which would make them more effective in the classroom. Other bills proposed were just an attempt to require civic education. 2015’s Senate Bill 54 tried to

make civics an addition to current course content in grades seven to twelve. While adding a few topics that would be covered, it wouldn't have created an entirely new course. Another bill from 2015 that would have simply added an additional requirement was Senate Bill 105. This bill would take the civics test that students already were required to take and require that they pass it in order to graduate.

An additional topic addressed by the legislature is in regard to civil rights. House Bill 202 from 2007 attempted to create an "Alabama Civil Rights Education Commission." The purpose of this commission would have been to inventory exhibits and resources in order to coordinate civil rights awareness and education within Alabama schools. This desire to educate all citizens and make sure they understand the history of both the nation and the country falls in line with the legislature's attempts to instill patriotic values or civic knowledge, which is a crucial aspect of civic understanding. In 2020, House Bill 7 attempted to create a more targeted Social Studies class in the same vein, attempting to create a course on Black American history. The idea of equality and fair and equal treatment is a crucial discussion in the idea of civil rights, which falls under the larger topic and study of civics.

Mississippi

In Mississippi, there have been many bills proposed that would increase the importance of civic education within K-12 schools. 2003 was the first year (studied) that a bill was put forth to increase the teaching of civics within schools. The "Civic Literacy Act" proposed in Senate Bill 2822 went on to require additional instruction in the "nation's founding and related documents" and that students must pass a test about their knowledge of the documents. Teachers would have received extra training, and there would be annual reports for accountability. This bill would have increased the civic understanding of students, as well as provide a way for

teachers to include more patriotic education in the Social Studies curriculum. In total, the bill was proposed thirteen different years, most recently in 2021. More recently, additional bills were proposed to require civics to be a part of the U.S. Government curriculum. House Bill 569 (2017) attempted to add this requirement, and it similarly was re-proposed for multiple years.

There have been seventeen bills put forth since the year 2015 attempting to require some sort of a citizenship test before graduation. Some bills require a passing score, some don't. The first one proposed in 2015 would have required students to get at least sixty of the one hundred questions correct in order to graduate. A similar bill from 2016 would have required a score of at least eighty percent. All of the bills, however, have the same goal: that students are prepared to be citizens once they graduate.

Documents, in general, are a theme throughout the proposed bills in Mississippi. Some bills added the requirement for students to study the bills, others required the display of documents. House Bill 1380 from 2006 would have required schools to prominently display the U.S. Constitution or a specified summary. The summary would have to include the Preamble, the Bill of Rights, and six specified amendments - XI (non-citizens cannot sue individual states), XIII (abolishment of slavery), XV (all men can vote), XIX (women can vote), XXIV (abolishment of poll taxes), and XXVI (voting age is lowered to 18). These specified amendments focus on the right to vote. Other than XI (potentially picked as the first example of a true "amendment" since the amendments that make up the Bill of Rights were already under discussion when the Constitution was written), the amendments focus on voting rights and how suffrage has changed over time. Another instance of the push for historical documents is in House Bill 1356 from 2022. The "Mississippi Founding Principal Act" would have required that standards would require the incorporation of instruction on the "founding principles and

documents” of the United States. By highlighting important historical documents, the legislature is making sure that students are aware of the country’s history.

Throughout Mississippi’s legislative proposals since 2000, there were many bills proposed to increase these verbal expressions of patriotism. One such requirement was originally proposed in 2000 through Senate Bill 2784 to add daily recitation of an excerpt from the Declaration of Independence. This recitation would also be accompanied “from time to time” with explanations of words from the document. Another attempt to reinforce the recitation of patriotism was put forth in 2016 in regard to the Pledge of Allegiance (§ 37-13-7). House Bill 224 would have a \$1,500 fine if schools did not require the recitation of the pledge. This bill placed such an emphasis on the recitation of the Pledge as a form of patriotic expression that it was willing to fine schools if they didn’t force children to recite the pledge. The legislation does acknowledge that people who object can be excused without penalty, and that was not removed with this bill.

The Mississippi Legislature has also attempted to create other ways for patriotic displays to occur in schools and have students show support for the United States. House Bill 517 (2006) would have authorized schools to teach and perform “Hail to the Chief” - a song that is considered to be the president’s anthem. Another way the legislature has attempted this is through voter education and registration drives. House Bill 748 from 2010 introduced this concept, attempting to require at least a half hour of instruction in the high school government course. A version of a bill regarding voter education was proposed thirteen different times between the years 2004 and 2019. Prior to 2010, the bills were focused on creating videos for voter education, but 2010 began the push to add dedicated instruction regarding voter education. House Bill 1417 (2022) would allow students to be excused from school for a civic engagement

activity or political event. All of these opportunities would have allowed students to be more engaged with the “civic responsibility” in regard to voting.

There have also been several bills proposed since 2019 to allow for “patriotic groups” to be allowed into schools to talk with students. The first instance of this was House Bill 398, and detailed that “patriotic societies” be allowed to talk to students “about the civic involvement of the society, as well as explain how students may participate or join the society.” In that particular bill, a patriotic society is defined as “a group or organization listed in Title 36 of the United States Code that is intended to serve young people under twenty-one (21) years of age.” Similar bills were proposed later on that included the Boy and Girl Scouts as patriotic societies and allowed them these same permissions. Finally, House Bill 1070 (2023) attempted to create the “Patriotic Education Grant Program.” This would help promote education that teaches American history and opened the grant funds up to a list of potential activities that would earn the grant money. This bill did pass the House, but this died in committee in the Senate.

Louisiana

There have been many bills related to the outward expression of patriotism and civics in schools proposed within the state of Louisiana. For example, House Bill 1933 (2001) would require that the national motto be displayed in each classroom, auditorium, and cafeteria. Similar to the bible elective course, technically there is a section of the law regarding the display of the motto - however, this attempt in 2001 shows the dedication of the legislature to this action. §17:262 has been amended over the years through bills such as HB1933, such as the 2023 addition of the display in every classroom - similar to HB1933 - rather than just being displayed in the schools. Another example is House Bill 660 (2013) that would have required schools to

display the Declaration of Independence, Gettysburg Address, and other documents “the local board deems significant” in each classroom.

There have also been bills proposed that would encourage active participation by students as citizens. For example, House Bill 108 from 2020 would excuse a school absence (of “up to two hours”), if the student missed school to vote. Another example is House Bill 781 (2022) that would have created “Louisiana High School Seniors Voter Registration Day.” While the governor had already signed into law that schools can include voter registration and education, this bill would have taken it a step further in encouraging students to be active voters.

Another way that the proposed bills have tried to legislate the outward expression of patriotism in schools is through recitation. Senate Bill 6 from 2001 would have students recite daily sections from both the Louisiana Constitution and the preamble to the U.S. Constitution. This equation of recitation with importance and loyalty is common in schools - as seen through the daily recitation of the pledge of allegiance. House Bill 145 (2020) would have required schools to give students the opportunity to say the Pledge of Allegiance - as opposed the law at the time that “allowed” schools to give the opportunity. This emphasis on the importance of giving students the opportunity to recite the pledge shows the legislature’s desire for student participation in the outward display of loyalty to the country.

The idea of having students take an exam that is reflective of the naturalization test is not unique to Louisiana. However, in 2015, Senate Bill 34 was proposed to add a test before graduation to “ensure that every citizen can, at a minimum, demonstrate the same knowledge and understanding of the fundamentals of the history, principles, and form of the United States government required of naturalized citizens...”. This particular bill would have students take the one hundred questions “identical to the civics portion of the naturalization test used by the

United States Citizenship and Immigration Services” and that they get a score of at least 60%. Students would be allowed to take it as many times as necessary to pass, but it was to be documented on the transcript. In addition to the many bills that attempted to solely adjust civic education in the Deep South, there were also many bills that were proposed to adjust other Social Studies related topics in the educational standards of the Deep South.

Instructional Topics in Social Studies

South Carolina

Many bills proposed that would have adjusted Social Studies content in the Deep South were meant to add content to what is already being taught. There have been several bills that have introduced certain focuses within Social Studies classrooms in South Carolina. In 2000, a bill was proposed to add expectations and requirements of history education regarding Southern history and the history of the Southern people. It created a requirement that both would be included in the history classes being taught in SC. Similarly, in 2018 a bill was introduced that would create a focus on SC history - specifically, “South Carolina Independence Day” (from Great Britain - not related to the Confederacy). This bill proposed an addition of SC history to all grades, and included a list of specific topics to be discussed. Another focus created by a proposed bill is on international human rights and relations. This bill was proposed in 2022, and would require instruction regarding these topics as a graduation requirement.

Multiple efforts have been made to educate students regarding crimes and their respective punishments. In 2003, a bill was introduced to the senate to require instruction regarding the crime of lynching. This bill created a two-hour requirement of instruction regarding both lynching and the penalties for the crime. In 2011, a bill was introduced to require three hours of instruction regarding commonly committed criminal conduct that results in incarceration. This

bill listed examples of crimes that students could be taught about, with a focus on the consequences of the crimes if they are committed.

While SC legislation identifies “government” as a part of the Social Studies academic subject, there has been an emphasis in proposed bills on the importance of adding civics as a separate topic inclusion in various Social Studies courses. One such bill was in 2009, proposing that there would be an addition of a semester course related to civics that fifth, eighth, and eleventh graders would take. This was also addressed in 2017, in a follow-up bill to both the “Founding Principles Act” and the Profile of a SC graduate (both codified in 2016). This bill emphasized that students should be expected to “assume their role as citizens” after they graduate, and therefore the bill attempted to add additional achievement goals for students regarding the founding principles and values of the United States. SC has attempted multiple times to pass the “Reinforcing College Education and America’s Constitutional Heritage (REACH) Act.” While this bill is heavily focused on higher education and their requirements regarding the Constitution and its principles, it does attempt to amend Section 59-29-120 to add the Emancipation Proclamation as a required document. There also was a bill proposed in 2021 entitled the “Restore America’s Foundation Act.” This bill was multifaceted - but focused on creating instruction regarding the “foundational history” of the United States. It outlines four “sections” of content, requiring at least five hours of instruction per section. The bill also requires the 1776 Commission be included and aligned with the materials created and adopted for the twenty-hour added instruction.

In 2015, there was a bill proposed that would create another “day” to celebrate as a state, that would also require additional instruction. The creation of a “Second Amendment Awareness

Day” was prefaced by a long explanation of why this bill was considered necessary. Part of this explanation included the following section,

Whereas, the right to bear arms has been increasingly and unjustly made the target of criticism when acts of violence involving gun use occur, rather than focusing on the underlying causes that led to the violent act; and

Whereas, one result of hostility toward the second amendment has been an absolute intolerance for any discussion of guns or depiction of guns in writing or in assignment in public schools, which is an affront to First Amendment rights and harshly inhibits creative expression and academic freedom...” (p. 2)

Poster and essay contests would be created, and the requirement of three weeks of instruction regarding the Second Amendment would be included in the first grading period of a school year. This bill also stipulated that the curriculum used for the required instruction would be a curriculum approved by the National Rifle Association, and include scholarly analysis of the Second Amendment. Similarly, a 2022 bill would celebrate “Freedom Week” and add instruction regarding founding documents, intent, and other aspects of American history. This bill also would require recitations of the Preamble to the Constitution.

Another addition that was proposed was instruction regarding diversity awareness. This program would have worked to create an understanding of diversity, break down stereotypes, create acceptance of others, and both respect differences and celebrate similarities. This bill would have the State Board of Education develop or adopt the curricula schools would use, for all grades from kindergarten to twelfth. This focus on diversity would also be added to the academic standards of the state.

In 2022, a bill was introduced that would require the Social Studies standards include standards related to the Civil Rights Movement. Specifically, this would add instruction on the events of the Civil Rights Movement, the work of Dr. Martin Luther King Jr., and the nonviolent methods of the Civil Rights Movement. The bill identifies a “universal lesson” from the Civil Rights Era, that “hatred on the basis of immutable characteristics... can overtake any nation.” This bill then goes on to require other standards regarding discriminatory justice, such as the Holocaust, Rwanda and Armenian Genocides, and others. This bill was meant to reinforce the rejection of bigotry and act for justice. While there is legislation in SC regarding the inclusion of high order thinking and problem-solving skills, a proposed bill from 2019 introduced the concepts of media literacy and critical thinking skills. This added requirements for both instruction and instructional materials in all grades from kindergarten to twelfth grade.

Georgia

Georgia’s legislature has a desire to maintain a conservative, traditional approach to Social Studies instruction. A proposed Senate Resolution from 2004 highlights this desire of some legislators to take a “traditional” approach to U.S. History. The resolution calls for an appreciation of “western civilization” and an understanding of its importance to the world. This resolution also proposed a list of “accomplishments” of western civilization that should be taught in U.S. History courses.

In 2012, a bill was proposed that would have enacted “The Teach Freedom Act.” This act would have modified the requirements for Social Studies courses - by codifying the “requirements” for the courses instead of just having the standards developed by the state department of education. The sixteen-page bill would have created a “checklist” of topics for both U.S. History and Government courses, as well as the high school economics course. A bill

proposed in 2015 also attempted to adjust and codify the expectations of U.S. History courses. This particular bill (House Bill 481) outlined twelve topics that should be included in American history courses. The bill never made it out of committee. A proposed house resolution from 2015 also attempted to add to the U.S. History curriculum, but in the form of a film. House Resolution 418 tried to have annual screenings of the film “America: Imagine the World Without Her” in grades eight and eleven. This film takes a “traditional” approach to history, claiming to analyze “common critiques of the country’s past” and find the truth within. This resolution showcases a desire to teach a conservative take on America’s history.

Another proposed House resolution from 2015 involved the College Board’s AP U.S. History (APUSH) curriculum. The bill accused the redesign of the APUSH framework of being a “radically revisionist view of American history that emphasizes aspects of our nation’s history while omitting or minimizing positive aspects;” and a usurpation of the Georgia Performance Standards. The resolution tried to make the State Board of Education instruct the College Board to “fix” the APUSH framework and encourage the governor to get other states on board with pushing the College Board to “return” to a “traditional” approach to U.S. history. While a bill in 2023 proposed adding more resources to support U.S. History instruction through online learning modules, the majority of bills focused on establishing common requirements for learning and teaching of U.S. History.

Mississippi

There have been many bills proposed in Mississippi to adjust topics within Social Studies education in the K-12 system. For example, House Bill 589 (2011) would have changed the textbook requirements for Social Studies classes to include “greater instruction, thorough discussions, and partial- and full-text excerpts of the nation’s founding documents.” This bill

also highlighted the desire of the legislature for a more “traditional” view of history - clearly stating that curricula must “avoid inclusion of historical revisionism and evidence of bias.” They defined “historical revisionism” as “the reinterpretation of orthodox views on evidence, motivations, and decision-making processes surrounding a historical event.” This bill is very similar to House Bill 1103 from 2011, which prohibited “historical revisionism.” Written in response to Texas gaining new standards that were “a sharp departure from widely accepted historical teachings which are driven by an inappropriate ideological desire to influence academic content standards,” the bill reiterates the same language as HB 589 in regard to the goals of education and the needed focus of the standards. House Bill 435 from 2014 reiterates all of the same language

There have been several bills proposed to adapt the topics covered in the Social Studies curriculum of Mississippi. One such bill was from 2000, which would have required school districts to teach a course related to African-American history. House Bill 173 also proposed the increase of education regarding drug and alcohol abuse - why the two were combined into a singular bill is not clear. But the addition of a course related to Black history is important for the study of Social Studies. The topic was revived in 2019 with House Bill 1213. This bill proposed the State Board of Education “develop a comprehensive curriculum and implement courses in African-American Studies and Racial Diversity.” The bill goes on to list six competencies that the course would be based upon and six specific topics that should be “infused” with American History.

Another topic that has been proposed over and over is in regard to Mississippi History. This bill has been proposed every single year since 2001, and reads as follows:

In addition to the curriculum otherwise required by law or the State Board of Education to be taught in the public schools of this state, a comprehensive course in Mississippi History shall be required for all ninth grade students. The objective of the Mississippi History course shall be to provide students with an examination of the history of the State of Mississippi from the age of discovery and colonization to the present with particular emphasis on the significant political, social, economic, and cultural issues of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries which have impacted the diverse ethnic and racial population of the state. (p. 1)

This bill showcases not only the fact that legislators want students to know Mississippi History, but also the narrative they want taught within the class. The acknowledgement of the “diverse ethnic and racial population” of Mississippi provides a framework for the course. Additionally, a similar bill was proposed in 2020 (as well as every year since) that would require comprehensive courses in both Mississippi History and United States Government for all students.

Out of place with the other proposed bills, House Bill 1294 (proposed in 2021) would have created an additional required course for high schools regarding socialism. The curriculum was outlined to be an interdisciplinary course that would have students compare capitalism and socialism and be taught from multiple perspectives. This is a unique inclusion in MS, especially with multiple other bills focused on banning “historical revisionism.”

Louisiana

The Louisiana legislature has attempted to pass many bills that would adjust what is included in Social Studies education. House Bill 660 (2013) that would have required additional “programs of instruction” regarding both the pilgrim fathers and the flag of the United States. Another example of this is House Bill 252 from 2020, that would have added required instruction

in “certain aspects of American history and civics.” This bill edited the “Founding Principles Act” by adding more content to be covered, including the “contributions and achievements of ordinary Americans.” House Bill 352 (2021) attempted this again, adding slightly different content than HB 252, but still adding to the topics covered rather than taking away. One interesting addition of HB 352 was the added topics to civics education - including the topic of “Creator-endowed unalienable rights of the people.” This bill was re-proposed in 2022 as House Bill 401. Another bill from 2020 (House Bill 253) would have required instruction on the Holocaust. The bill outlined eleven topics that would be included in the instruction. Similarly, House Bill 416 from 2021 would have created added requirements for instruction regarding World War II and the Holocaust. More specific than the 2020 bill, both bills were an attempt to add a specific focus to history courses and include a topic that is important to specific legislators. This bill was re-proposed in 2022 as House Bill 16 and again in 2024 as House Bill 928. House Bill 779 (2022) would have added instruction regarding certain historical figures in U.S. History. Those chosen for this addition are not “typical” U.S. History figures, showcasing the legislator’s desire to expand the scope of U.S. History. In addition to trying to increase the scope of history across the Deep South, there were also many proposed bills across the region to increase the place of religion in schools.

Religious Inclusion

Georgia

Georgia’s legislature makes it clear through various proposed bills that it supports religion in schools - specifically Christianity. One such bill is House Bill 158 from 2005. This bill attempted to add a section to §20-2-308 that would prohibit the “censoring” or removal of historical documents in reference to religious expressions. While not an encouragement of

religion in schools, this bill would have made sure that documents that include vocabulary such as “God” or “Creator” are not removed from instruction. A similar bill was proposed in 2020 regarding the use of religious texts in connection with the Constitution and the Bill of Rights. The bill would have added to §20-2-142.1. This addition would also not count as an “encouragement” of religion in schools, but does continue the regular inclusion of the Christian and Jewish religions without the inclusion of other religions.

A bill proposed in 2014 was in regard to “winter celebrations” in schools. The bill would allow students to be educated about the history of winter celebrations, and would have provided legislative backing to various “traditional greetings.” This also would have allowed schools to display religious symbols for various “winter celebrations” - including Christian nativity scenes or a Menorah - as long as there was more than one religion represented OR one religion and one secular symbol. Christian and Jewish symbols were explicitly named in the bill and legislation around naming and classification in U.S. History transcended religion.

Alabama

Alabama’s legislature not only has a desire to see religious instruction increased, but also an increase of religious activities in schools. Senate Bill 292, proposed in 2007, attempted to create a “Christian Heritage Week” - a week to highlight the “Christian Heritage” of the nation, in reference to many instances of American history where Christian beliefs were represented in choices made by historic individuals. In total, ten different examples are provided in the bill, and the bill concludes with the establishment of the celebration week and required topics for daily instruction during the week. Another example is 2018’s House Bill 114, which attempted to allow the Bible as “educational material” for grades K-12. While it mentions that teachers could teach about “religion” and allows for “other scriptures” - the Bible is the only explicitly named

document. The bill also allows for the following topics to be included in “secular study”: history of religion, comparative religions, the Bible as literature, the role of religion in history, religious influence on art/music/literature/Social Studies. House Bill 258, also proposed in 2018, similarly proposed adding Christianity and the Bible as instructional topics. That bill would have permitted the teaching of creationism, including the reading of passages from the Bible to support instruction. While adding the caveat, “A teacher in a public K-12 school may not stress any particular denominational religious belief,” this bill advocated for the Christianity’s presence in state schools. Finally, in 2006, House Bill 545 would have created an elective course titled “The Bible,” in which the only textbook would be the King James version of the Bible.

Alabama not only proposed bills to include religion within schools, but also proposed bills to allow outside religious activities in schools. House Bill 568 (2011) allows for students to receive attendance and elective course credit for attending religious instruction. While the bill adds that a student cannot be released from a core class to attend a religious instruction class, this bill would have allowed students to miss instruction time during the school day to attend religious instruction. Alabama legislators also proposed the “Alabama Student Religious Liberties Act” (House Bill 588, 2013). This act would prohibit discrimination based upon religious viewpoints or expression in schools, and allow students to use their religious expression in class assignments. While never stating “Christianity” and instead using the more neutral term “religion,” the bill does use specific terms (such as “see you at the pole gatherings”) that are fairly specific to Christianity.

Louisiana

Louisiana is another state that has attempted to pass several bills that would increase religion (Christianity) in the public K-12 education system. The very first bill analyzed was in

regard to a religious elective in schools. Bill 77 from 2001 would have implemented a bible elective course that “stresses the influence of the bible on history, literature, politics, culture, and the arts.” While eventually this elective course became a reality in the code of laws (2023, §17:282), the push for this class can be traced back to at least 2001. The bill in 2001 was followed with a house resolution that argued that, “the study of the Bible can demonstrate the world views of America’s founding fathers and the Biblical influence on their beliefs about human rights” and that a course in the Bible would “promote academic excellence and cultural literacy.” This then supports the many attempts of the legislature over the years to implement this course before they were successful in 2023.

Another aspect of the Louisiana bills that addresses religion is that of prayer. House Bill 660 (2013) would have allowed students to recite the Lord’s Prayer at the end of each day. This prayer was chosen specifically because, “the Lord’s Prayer is the prayer that the pilgrim fathers recited when they came to America in search for freedom” and that it is intended “so that students learn of America’s great freedoms, including the freedom of religion symbolized by the recitation of the Lord’s Prayer.” The bills proposed that would have increased the place of religion in schools is consistent with the region being a conservative-dominant area – as is their attempts to control the teaching of Civil Rights, Black history, or any race-related topics.

Civil Rights, Black History, and “Divisive Concepts”

South Carolina

South Carolina had its first bill regarding Critical Race Theory (CRT) introduced in 2021. This bill defines the tenets of CRT, and prohibits any public school (K-12 or Higher Education) from directing or compelling students to adopt CRT. The “Keep Partisanship Out of Civics Act” introduced in 2021 also prohibits the use of CRT in curriculum or instruction - amidst its

discussion of keeping government classes neutral. A third bill addressing CRT was introduced in 2022. This bill explicitly defined CRT, and prohibited any inclusion of CRT in the state education system. This bill added a clause making school districts pay for its students to attend any other public or private school if they are caught violating any other part of the bill as an enforcement measure. There were other bills also introduced in 2022 and 2023 prohibiting the “tenets” of CRT, without actually naming said tenets of CRT. It additionally was woven into a bill proposed in 2023 that attempts to create a “traditional” approach to history - prohibiting “theoretical perspectives that are critical of society and culture.” As a “sarcastic” response to the CRT bills (Speaks & Falcon, 2023), a bill was introduced in 2023 that would ban the teaching of any person who owned enslaved people. While not naming CRT, a bill introduced in 2023 recognizes the longstanding racial issues in SC. This bill would have established a study of the impact of Jim Crow laws and slavery on the current education system in SC. A report would be provided to the General Assembly of the findings, in order to begin improving the education system of the state.

Georgia

Proposed bills regarding racial representation emerged in GA in the early 2000s. In 2001, House Bill 319 was proposed to add a third requirement to the requirements for Social Studies courses as prescribed in §20-2-142. This third requirement would be a course in “black history in the United States.” A similar bill was proposed in 2002, with an additional “course of study in the history of blacks and Hispanics in the United States” to §20-2-142. Although these never made it out of committee, a 2021 proposed bill attempted to adjust the coursework related to the founding philosophies and principles found in §20-2-142.1 by adding a section regarding the

“history of Black people and their contributions to American society.” The section that would have been added read:

(4) The history of Black Americans, including the history of Black people before the political conflicts that led to the development of slavery, the passage to America, the enslavement experience, the antislavery movement, and the contributions of Black people to American society. (p. 3)

The bill was reintroduced in 2023, but did not pass again. A proposed House Resolution in 2022 followed the bill, encouraging the state department of education to create a textbook and curriculum for “African American studies.” The resolution refers to Georgia as the “civil rights Mecca of the United States” and that therefore the state should be the forerunner on a proper textbook regarding the “contributions of people of color.” The resolution listed topics that should be included, and ends with an encouragement to create a textbook and curriculum.

While that resolution did not pass, a different resolution from 2022 did pass the House. House Resolution 881 was an encouragement to increase teaching of the Civil Rights Era. This resolution called for a curriculum in the study of the Civil Rights Era to educate students about the lesson that “hatred on the basis of immutable characteristics such as race, sex, or ethnicity or other characteristics such as nationality, religious belief, or disability can overtake any nation or society and lead to profound injustice.” The resolution also calls upon the necessity of the school system to build empathy in students and teach them about the pursuit of the “greater good of universal civil rights.” Similarly, House Bill 646 from 2023 addresses racial representation - specifically, representation of indigenous populations. This proposed bill (which did not make it out of committee) would prohibit any public school from using indigenous names, symbols, or images and to help schools that currently use indigenous names, symbols, and/or images to

transition. The bill names this practice as cultural appropriation, and acknowledges that the use of indigenous symbology is a “barrier to equality.”

Mississippi

While Mississippi attempted to prohibit “historical revisionism,” they also put forth a series of bills regarding the prohibition of Critical Race Theory (CRT) and “divisive concepts.” One such bill was proposed in 2021 - Senate Bill 2538, entitled the “Saving American History in Mississippi Schools Act of 2020.” This bill is in direct opposition to the 1619 Project put forth by (as the bill states) an “activist movement.” The bill defines the 1619 Project as a “racially divisive and revisionist account of history that threatens the integrity of the Union by denying the true principles on which it was founded.” The bill goes on to add a financial component to the prohibition - deciding to remove funding for schools if it is shown that the school uses the 1619 Project. A similar bill was put forth in 2022 that added to the prohibition of the 1619 Project by also prohibiting CRT. House Bill 1495 outlines the “tenets” of CRT and prohibits its use in schools. 2022 also saw the various iterations of the “Teaching Racial and Universal Equality (TRUE) Act” that also prohibited CRT.

Louisiana

Louisiana has both proposed bills to increase racial representation and diversity in schools and proposed bills to prohibit “divisive concepts.” A house resolution from 2001 urged and requested that the “public education system of Louisiana, as appropriate in the curriculum, ... address the commonalities of people groups and weaknesses of Darwinian racism.” This resolution supports the addition of §17:277 (the teaching of Black history) and creates legislative backing to amend the standards to make sure that they are teaching accurate history to students. A similar resolution was put forth in 2021 (HCR 28), urging the State Board of Education to look

into the “feasibility and advisability of allowing a course in African American Studies to satisfy certain Social Studies requirements.” Similar ideas were proposed with House Bill 747 in 2022, which would have added instruction regarding Dr. Martin Luther King Jr.’s “I Have a Dream Speech.”

Senate Bill 180 from 2023 (had it passed) would have required Social Studies education to be “fact-based, historically accurate, and inclusive.” Similarly, a bill proposed in 2017 would have amended the Alabama Memorial Preservation Act to remove the prohibition against the renaming of certain schools. The act was created to make sure that historically significant buildings, monuments, or streets are preserved and remain honoring the person they were named for. This bill would have removed schools from this protection - specifically in the area of renaming.

The first “divisive concepts” bill was proposed in 2021. This bill, prohibiting any “divisive concept” from being included in both instruction and teacher training, is in the same time frame as other “anti-divisive concepts” or “anti-CRT” bills proposed in other states. Similar ideas were prohibited into House Bill 747 (proposed in 2022). This distrust of “divisive concepts” in schools (and specifically in teacher training) can be seen in House Bill 787 from 2022. This bill would require all training, instructional, and learning materials to be accessible to parents and students for review. A similar bill was also proposed in 2022, requiring “transparency and equality” in education (House Bill 1013). The bill prohibited “divisive concepts” and required transparency in regard to teacher training materials. Everything provided in this chapter so far has been related to the legislative landscape. The following section begins the findings of the analyses of the Social Studies standards for each state.

Standards

The following sections present the findings of the analysis of the standards. The timeline below (Figure 4) shows when states adopted new iterations of the standards (the timeline begins with 1996 and goes to 2026 - a clearer version can be found in Appendix B).

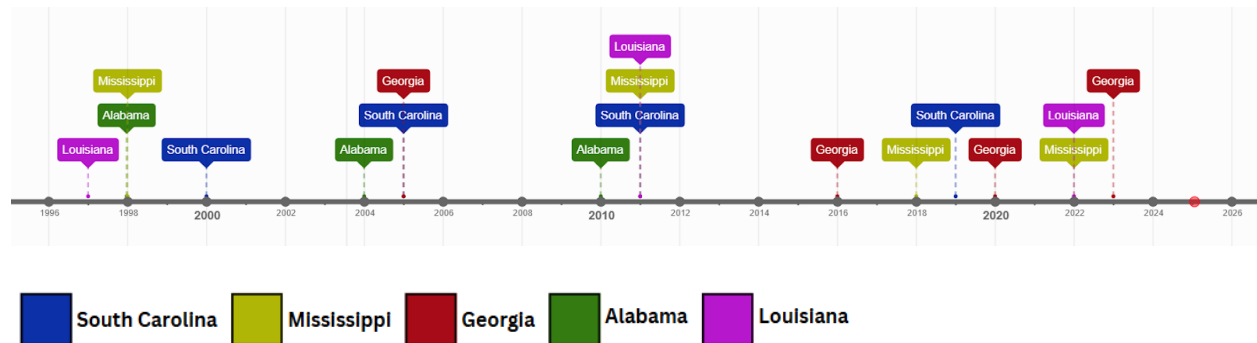


Figure 4 - Timeline of Standard Adoptions

Standard revisions tended to happen close together. For example, every state but Georgia implemented new standards between 2010 and 2011. In regard to federal legislation, NCLB was up for revision in 2007, and 2010 marked the call for a replacement for NCLB. The Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) was eventually signed in 2015, but that initial call for revision and the beginnings of the ESSA was around 2010. This period (post-NCLB revision and pre-ESSA) is when these major revisions happened in those four states - and then Georgia drastically changed their standards in 2016, almost in response to ESSA. While most states have a law that requires standard revisions every so often, those are not always followed. For example, South Carolina published standards in 2011, and even though the legislature requires revision every seven years the next set of standards was published in 2019. Similarly, Georgia has a law requiring standard revisions every four years - but there was a gap from 2005 to 2016 with no revisions. Since then, the standards were “revised” in both 2020 and 2023 but were reapproved with no real changes either time. Alabama is the only state that has not had a recent revision to

the standards but are in the process of gaining new standards. The State Board of Education officially approved the standards in December of 2024, for implementation in the 2026 school year.

This section begins with an overview of the various iterations of the standards across the states, providing background on when they were adopted and some basic differences between the standards. Then, the standards have been sorted into one of four eras - pre-NCLB, 2001-2009, 2010-2015, and 2016 to present. For each era, the findings from the second round of analysis (an analysis of DOK levels) will be presented, followed by specific findings from both U.S. History and Government standards. There is a corresponding appendix for each state that contains the relevant tables and figures for each state. South Carolina can be found in Appendix C., Georgia in Appendix D., Alabama in Appendix E., Mississippi in Appendix F., and Louisiana in Appendix G. Appendix H. contains relevant figures and tables that address cross-state analyses. Table 4 showcases the themes found across the U.S. History and Government standards during analysis.

Table 4 - Themes of Standard Analysis

	U.S. History	Government
SC	Economics Minimization of minority groups “American identity”	“Society” Minimization of events Active citizenship
GA	Minimization of minority groups Economics American Exceptionalism	Civil liberties/civil rights Civic participation
AL	Minimization of minority groups Economic motivation	American exceptionalism Active citizenship

MS	Economics Minimization of minority groups Doubt in the federal government “American Society”	Critical thought Religion Active citizenship
LA	Rights of Americans Inclusion, yet minimization of minority populations Creating checklists	Active citizenship Rights of citizens Creating checklists

Overview

South Carolina’s first iteration of the standards were adopted in 2000. Labeled the “South Carolina Social Studies Curriculum Standards,” the high school standards were split into two sets - one that provided information about geography and world history to be split between ninth and tenth grade, and one that provided information about U.S. History, Government, and Economics to be split between eleventh and twelfth grade (it was up to local boards to decide how to split the content between grades). These were followed with the South Carolina Social Studies Academic Standards - originally adopted in 2005. Standards with the same name were adopted in 2011 to update the Social Studies curriculum in South Carolina. The 2019 South Carolina Social Studies College-and-Career Ready Standards are the most recent adoption of standards in South Carolina.

At first glance, Georgia has had five iterations of standards since they first adopted statewide standards in 1985. However, after a deeper analysis, there are truly three iterations of the Social Studies standards. The 1985 “Quality Core Curriculum” (QCC) are referenced, however, all that is left of the QCC are the “additions” that were not incorporated into the 2005 Georgia Performance Standards (GPS). The GPS stood until 2016, when it was replaced with the Georgia Standards of Excellence (GSE). Georgia requires that its standards be replaced every 4

years, and so there have been iterations of the GSE in 2016, 2020, and most recently, 2023.

However, the 2020 standards are completely identical to the 2016 standards, and the 2023 standards are “different” because they add five indicators to the government standards.

Therefore, analyzed below are the 2005, 2016, and 2023 standards.

Alabama splits U.S. History across tenth and eleventh grade. U.S. History I (tenth grade) covers the first part of American history, which is usually between colonial settlement and late 1800s to early 1900s. U.S. History II (eleventh grade) covers the rest of U.S. history, going through the “present” with no final year specified. Alabama has had three iterations of their Social Studies standards. The first iteration is from 1998, and new iterations were adopted in both 2004 and 2010. In 2024, new standards were proposed and opened for public comment. Officially, the draft standards were released to the public in August 2024, and a copy was provided for this study in October 2024. In the email containing the draft standards, it was noted that there would be further edits before the standards would be introduced to the State Board of Education in November 2024. Those standards were given to the board, and then approved in December of 2024 (Stephenson, 2024). The now-final 2024 standards (which will go into effect for the 2026-2027 school year) were published to the State Board of Education’s website in early January 2025. Due to the limitations and delimitations of this study, I included the draft standards initially provided in October 2024. They will be referred to as the “proposed standards” to reflect that the standards analyzed are the draft edition, and not the final standards.

Finally, Mississippi and Louisiana enacted several rounds of standards. Mississippi has had four iterations of Social Studies standards - 1998, 2011, 2018, and 2022. One interesting change from other states is that the high school requirement for U.S. History only covers from 1877 to the present. Students are taught U.S. History prior to 1877 in two grades prior to high

school. The standards for fifth grade are titled “U.S. History” and eighth grade is specifically “U.S. History to 1877.” Louisiana has had three iterations of Social Studies standards - 1997, 2011, and 2022. One interesting distinction of Louisiana is that their Civics class is recommended for tenth grade, with U.S. History following for eleventh grade (as opposed to other states where government/civics is usually in 12th grade).

Pre-NCLB

DOK

Louisiana (1997)

The 1997 standards contained “Benchmarks” (standards) and “Grade-Level Expectations” (indicators). These are then further divided into subsections, which would be the equivalent of units found in the standards of other states. The 1997 standards were majority DOK Level 1s, but in a marking distinction from other states, contained expectations that were a DOK Level 3. Overall, 72% of the expectations were a Level 1, 23% were a Level 2, and 5% were a Level 3. The standards for the civics course contained twenty benchmarks, divided into fifty-nine expectations. These were divided into four subcategories - structure and purposes of government, foundations of the American political system, international relationships, and roles of the citizen. The U.S. History standards were divided into two groups - historical thinking skills and U.S. History. This analysis is predominantly focused on the U.S. History specific standards, rather than the overarching historical thinking skills. In total, there were eighteen benchmarks, with forty-five expectations. The first five benchmarks are related to U.S. History from beginnings to the end of Reconstruction - and contain no expectations.

Mississippi (1998)

In 1998, the standards in Mississippi had a different format than most standards. The standard document identifies strands, competencies, and suggested objectives. The four “strands” of the standards are civics, history, geography, and economics. On the following pages of the document, the standards create units. In the chart for each unit, there is a list of “suggested teaching strategies” along with which competencies and objectives fit within those suggested teaching strategies. It also provides “suggested assessments” for the suggested teaching strategies. The 1998 standards are more a suggestion of content, with creating a requirement for competencies - a deviation from most standards.

The U.S. History standards are broken into five units, covering five competencies, split into sixteen suggested objectives. The Government standards are broken into four units, covering six competencies, split into eighteen suggested objectives. Since these standards are much more “suggestions” than other standards, for the purposes of this analysis the “suggested objectives” were analyzed for DOK level as the “indicators” that most other standards possess. The “suggested teaching strategies” had much more of a varied range of DOK levels, however, those are much closer to examples of classroom activities, not required standards. In the 1998 standards, 88% of the indicators are DOK Level 1, with the remaining 12% being DOK Level 2.

Alabama (1998)

The 1998 standards were formatted differently than other iterations. Rather than having an overarching standard that then was broken down into indicators, the 1998 standards created units, and then had standards embedded in these units. Some standards included a list of topics to be discussed. In these standards, U.S. History I (tenth grade) covered “Beginnings to 1900” and U.S. History II (eleventh grade) covered “1900 to present.” U.S. History I had six units, with a

total of thirty-seven standards. U.S. History II had four units, with a total of twenty-four standards. Government (twelfth grade) was also divided into four units but only consisted of eighteen standards. The majority of 1998 standards represented DOK Level 1 - between all three sets of standards, 92% of the standards were DOK Level 1. The remaining 8% were DOK Level 2. U.S. History II had a higher percentage of standards at DOK Level 2 than U.S. History I.

South Carolina (2000)

In 2000, the Social Studies standards for U.S. History, Government, and Economics were all lumped together for the eleventh and twelfth grades. These standards were sorted into four strands - (1) Time, Continuity, and Change: History; (2) Power, Authority, and Governance: Government/Political Science; (3) People, Places, and Environments: Geography; (4) Production, Distribution, and Consumption: Economics. It was up to each local school board to decide which standards would be addressed in the eleventh grade and which would be addressed in the twelfth grade. Each category was broken into standards, and each standard had multiple indicators to clarify what students were expected to know. There were two U.S. History standards - the first focusing upon U.S. History from 1877 (the end of Reconstruction) to World War II and the second from WW2 to present day. In total, U.S. History had twenty-five indicators spread between the two standards. There were five Government standards, broken down into fifty-three indicators. When discussing standards, it is important to analyze rigor and the expectations of students. In the 2000 standards, 66% of the indicators are at a DOK Level 1. 25% of the indicators are at a DOK Level 2, and only 9% are at a DOK Level 3. There were no DOK Level 4 indicators in either U.S. History or Government.

US History

Louisiana

The U.S. History standards in 1997 “began” with colonization - however, the reality is that the standards begin with industrialization post-Civil War. There are five “standards” addressing the content between colonization and industrialization, but none are given indicators and they are all very broad. Those five standards can be found in Appendix G. These broad standards help to minimize the realities of U.S. history prior to 1877, and the rest of the indicators continue that minimization. For example, there is a single indicator related to the Civil Rights Movement - and that indicator is broad and doesn’t actually cover anything about the movement. Indicator H-1B-H15.48 reads, “Identify the primary leaders of the Civil Rights Movement and describe major issues and accomplishments.” This indicator is immediately followed with, “Describe the effects of Watergate on the United States and its political system.” Another example is how the Harlem Renaissance is listed as a “cultural change” that occurred because of the “characteristics of the 1920s” (H-1B-H11.34). Another example of minimization is that of women. There is only one woman named in the standards (Jane Addams), and they even spell her name incorrectly - using “Adams” instead of “Addams.”

The idea of a singular America supports a focus on the place of the United States in the world, and is found throughout the standards. For example, H-1B-H10.28 states, “Locate on a world map the territories acquired by the United States during its emergence as an imperial power in the world and explain how these territories were acquired. In the indicators related to World War II (H-1B-H13.38-42), nothing is included regarding the internment of Japanese Americans, no discussion over the choice to use the atomic bomb, and no mention of the atrocities committed other than the Holocaust. Similar omissions occur in H-1B-H14.44 that

states, “Analyze the conflicts that resulted from Cold War tensions.” The examples named include the Korean War and the Vietnam War - but nothing else.

Mississippi

The 1998 “standards” were framed more like guidelines, and there were fewer compared to other states. This first organization of Social Studies for Mississippi utilized positive language when describing the U.S. Government:

- b. Explain the emergence of modern America from a domestic perspective (e.g., frontier experience, Industrial Revolution and organized labor, reform movements of Populism and Progressivism, Women’s Movement, Civil Rights Movement, the New Deal, etc.).
- c. Explain the changing role of the United States in world affairs since 1877 through wars, conflicts, and foreign policy (e.g., Spanish-American War, Korean conflict, containment policy, etc.).
- d. Trace the expansion of the United States and its acquisition of territory from 1877 (e.g., expansionism and imperialism). (p. 105)

Three of the indicators under Standard 1 all use positive vocabulary to describe the actions of the U.S. Government. Additionally, standards utilized first-person pronouns. The second indicator of Standard 2 reads, “Examine the continuing impact of the Industrial Revolution on the development of our nation (e.g., mass production, computer operations, etc.).” The use of the personal pronoun “our” is only used in this indicator in both the 1998 U.S. History and Government standards.

Alabama

The standards of both U.S. History I and U.S. History II had formatting more akin to a list of items than standards of other states. The standards within were often broad and vague, with a bulleted list of items that should be included. These lists create a limited perspective on what could/should be included with the standard, formatted similar to a checklist for teachers to complete. This resulted in a lower rigor expectation for these standards.

Since the standards for U.S. History are broken down into U.S. History I (tenth grade) and U.S. History II (eleventh grade), there is more time for teachers to cover the same information that other states combine into one U.S. History course. This can be seen in the first unit, “Three Worlds and Their Encounters in America: Beginnings to 1607.” The three standards of this unit reference life in the Americas prior to the arrival of the Old World, as well as the actions of the European explorers. While one of the only states to address the indigenous populations prior to European arrival, it still only is looking at their history in relation to actions taken by white colonizers.

The next unit (The Colonial Era: An Emerging American Identity: 1607-1763) contains the following standards:

5. Explain the impact of North American slavery on colonial life.
6. Analyze the roles of free Blacks and women in colonial America
7. Analyze the colonists’ relationship with Native Americans. (p. 101)

The accompanying examples include (in this order): indentured servants, the Atlantic slave trade and Middle Passage, and the Southern plantation system. Similarly, the second indicator relegates entire portions of the population to their “role” within history. While the accompanying bullet points reference the lack of voting rights, property rights, job opportunities, or education

opportunities of both populations, the standard itself uses the term “role” to highlight the overarching narrative that should be taught. The third unit of U.S. History I is “Creating a New Nation: 1763-1815.” Standard 17 is the first time that the country is identified as a “nation” - and has three accompanying examples: “size of nation doubled; use of Elastic Clause; Lewis and Clark expeditions; Zebulon Pike.” Indigenous populations are not mentioned. Standard 19 also uses the language of impact on the “nation” and while it does provide examples to help explain the standard, the examples vary in focus.

The fourth unit created in the 1998 standards was “Expansion and Reform: 1801-1860.” This unit begins with Standard 20: “Analyze the development of economic nationalism during the Era of Good Feelings.” This is followed by Standard 23 that states, “Compare the advantages and disadvantages of the Northern and Southern economics.” The accompanying examples listed are: “labor force; industry and agriculture; geographic factors.” The economic ideas in the above standards are continued in Standard 28: “Trace the factors leading to the growing crisis of sectional divisions.” This unit continues the idea of one “group” with Standard 24: “Discuss the impact of American social reformers on society before the Civil War.” The examples listed to support the standard don’t help to clarify the standard, only providing lists of people to discuss in the categories of “women and women’s rights” “abolitionists” and “other.” The focus on “society” continues in Standard 25: “Discuss the emergence of a distinct American culture.” Another standard with this unit is Standard 27: “Discuss the geographic and political significance of Indian removal and westward expansion.” The examples referenced include the Indian Removal Act and “pre-Civil War expansion beyond the Mississippi River.” Both of these have more examples outlining what would be considered “important” for students to know. However,

these corresponding examples are important to understand the minimization of the Indigenous populations.

The fifth unit of U.S. History I was “The Civil War and Reconstruction: 1860-1877.” It includes standards such as Standard 29, which states: “Evaluate the election of Abraham Lincoln as the nation finally divides.” The next two standards focus on the war itself - Standard 30 in regard to “non-military events” and Standard 31 in regard to the “military defeat” of the CSA. The final standard of the unit is Standard 32: “Explain the failings and accomplishments of the Reconstruction Era and its impact on life in the twentieth century.” The final unit of U.S. History I was “The Development of the Industrial United States: 1877-1900.” Standard 35 addresses the “closing of the frontier.” The overarching topic within this standard is listed as “Native American tribes,” but the accompanying examples are all related to the actions of the (white) U.S. government.

The first unit of U.S. History II was “The Emergence of Modern America: 1900-1930.” Throughout the standards of this unit, checklists of content inclusion can be seen, such as Standard 5 that provides a list of “major aspects of America’s involvement in World War I.” A relevant standard within this unit is Standard 3: “Describe how constitutional amendments reflected the ideals of the Progressive Movement.” Another relevant standard is that of Standard 7: “Analyze major characteristics of American culture during the Roaring Twenties.” The Harlem Renaissance is a part of the example list provided, but only after “American writers.” In this first unit of U.S. History II, Standard 8 states: “Analyze racial and ethnic conflict during the 1920s and 1920s in the state and nation.” Its accompanying list of examples includes:

- Red Scare
- Sacco and Vanzetti case

- Ku Klux Klan activities
- Black migration to northern cities
- Racial violence
 - Examples: riots, lynchings
- Immigration laws of 1920s (p. 114)

This list covers a wide variety of issues from the 1920s and 1930s, and seemingly only addresses how white people impacted those around them.

The second unit of U.S. History II was “The Great Depression and World War II: 1929-1945.” This unit includes standards such as Standard 10, which states, “Describe the impact of the Great Depression on American life.” Similarly, Standard 12 has students “Analyze the impact of World War II on life in America.” Japanese internment is mentioned, but only as an “example” of “racial and ethnic tensions in the country.” The third unit was entitled “Post-war United States: 1945 to the Early 1970s.” A relevant standard of this unit includes Standard 15, which states: “Examine change and conflict in American culture after 1945 (Baby Boom).” The accompanying examples are almost all related to the Civil Rights Movement - a movement that is not named. Instead, the four overarching “categories” that it sorts the related content into are (1) arts and humanities; (2) ethnic and racial; (3) family and social life; and (4) Alabama politics. Further recognition of the Civil Rights Movement shows up in the standards related to the presidencies of JFK and Lyndon B Johnson (Standards 16 and 17 respectively). The final unit of U.S. History in the 1998 standards is relative to “Contemporary United States, 1984 to the Present.” This unit wraps up U.S. History, and continues the narratives found in both U.S. History I and the other units of U.S. History II. For example, Standard 18 states: “Examine the social and cultural upheavals of the 1960s and 1970s and their long lasting complications.”

South Carolina

The 2000 standards cover the least amount of history, since they don't begin until 1877.

It is interesting to compare the number of indicators for U.S. History compared with Government, which highlights the importance the early standards placed on an understanding of the U.S. government. The 2000 U.S. History standards worked to create the one narrative by utilizing "American society" throughout the standards. A specific example of this is from Indicator 12.1.16: "examine changes in everyday life in response to technological and scientific advancement." The 2000 standards also took topics that could be considered contentious, controversial, or difficult and (when included) took an approach of positivity through the language used. For example, Indicator 12.1.2 states: "interpret the immigration patterns from 1870 to ca. 1945." Another example is Indicator 12.2.2: "describe how postwar science augmented the nation's economic strength, transformed daily life, and influenced the world economy."

However, the non-white, non-male portions of the U.S. population are either not mentioned, or only discussed solely in relation to white historical figures. For example, Indigenous peoples are mentioned in Indicator 12.1.5: "evaluate government policies toward Native Americans and their responses." Another example is how women are discussed. Indicator 12.1.6 states: "examine the changing role of women in the political and social context." The only time that Black history is included, is in a vague reference to the Civil Rights Movement in Indicator 12.2.5. That indicator states: "evaluate the struggle for racial and gender equality and the extension of civil liberties."

Government

Louisiana

The 1997 Louisiana government standards were very open-ended. For example, Indicator C-1A-H5.16 states, “Evaluate a specific law or court ruling on given criteria.” There are no further qualifications given - providing extreme freedom to the teacher. The standards work to minimize and amplify particular aspects of history. For example, C-1B-H1-30 states, “Identify and describe examples of freedoms enjoyed today but denied to earlier Americans.” Similarly, C-1B-H4.34 states, “Analyze discrepancies between American ideals and social or political realities of life (e.g., equal protection vs Jim Crow laws).” Another way that the standards minimize the “negative” actions of the U.S. government can be seen in C-1C-H1.45 in reference to how the U.S. government “upholds national security, protects its economic welfare and strategic interests, and attains its foreign policy objectives.” Similarly, C-1C-H3.47-48 creates a dichotomy that supports U.S. involvement, while minimizing the actions of other nations.

Alabama and South Carolina

Alabama and South Carolina similarly discuss the U.S. presence in relation to the global community. Within the 1998 Government standards, there is a positive narrative surrounding the American government and its actions. This can be seen in Standard 18: “Evaluate America’s role in the world community.” When comparing this standard to Standard 16 (“Describe U.S. foreign policy and national security interests.”) both of these standards create a clear focus on the actions of the American government in a positive way. In South Carolina, one aspect of the government standards is the focus on the beginning of the U.S. government and the “founding principles” of the country. A key example of this (beyond the indicator regarding founding documents) is Indicator 12.4.4: “explain important factors that have helped shape American democracy,

including religious freedom, a history of slavery, effects of a frontier and a market economy.”

One omission in the government-related standards of 2000 is in relation to the rights of the people and how those have changed over time. In the government standards and indicators, there is no mention of how people have gained rights throughout U.S. history. However, the standards do address the topic of citizenship. For example, Indicator 12.7.1 has students “explain the important characteristics of citizenship in the United States” and Indicator 12.7.9 has students “identify examples of individual and public goals and explain how participation in civic and political life can help attain them.” Both of these indicators are informing students of the need for involvement, and what being a citizen means.

2001-2009

DOK

Alabama (2004)

The 2004 Alabama standards changed format from the 1998 standards by creating an overarching standard, with a bulleted list of “indicators.” Some “indicators” do have further example lists, but not all. The 2004 standards also adjusted certain content. U.S. History I only covered through the year 1877, with U.S. History II covering 1877 to the present. Another addition to the 2004 standards is the identification of “dominant strands” that would be addressed by the standard/related content. The four “strands” identified by Alabama include: economics, geography, history, or political science. U.S. History I contained eleven standards, broken down into a total of forty-six indicators. U.S. History II contained fourteen standards, broken down into forty-eight. Government contained thirteen standards, broken down into forty-three indicators. Similar to the 1998 standards, the 2004 standards were overwhelmingly DOK Level 1. U.S.

History I continued to be the lowest in regard to DOK level, with Government having the largest number of DOK Level 2s.

Georgia (2005)

The 2005 Georgia standards began with a timeline for teachers - breaking down the standards into different units, with how long the unit should take, and then which themes and concepts/topics should be included in that unit. Following the timeline, each unit is then expanded upon - providing teachers with an elaborated unit focus, the standards and indicators for the unit, and a list of enduring understandings and essential questions for the unit. There were twenty-five U.S. History standards, divided into 118 different indicators. There were twenty-two Government standards, divided into fifty-six different indicators. In 2005, 85% of the indicators were at a DOK Level 1. The remaining 15% of indicators fell at a DOK level 2. There were no DOK Levels 3 or 4 in the 2005 standards.

South Carolina (2005)

An addition to the 2005 standards from the 2000 standards were the sample classroom activities. Each standard identified one to three sample classroom activities related to various indicators that teachers could utilize in their classrooms. These sample activities range in expectations of students - going from a DOK Level 1 all the way to a DOK Level 4. Another change in comparison to the 2000 standards is in regard to the topics covered in U.S. History. The standards in 2005 began pre-European arrival in North America. While only having a single indicator for pre-colonization, this is an adjustment from the 2000 standards that did not address any U.S. history prior to 1877. There were ten total U.S. History standards divided into forty-four indicators. There were five Government standards, with twenty-three indicators. In the 2005

standards, 77% of the indicators are at DOK Level 1. 22% of the indicators are at DOK Level 2.

There were no DOK Level 3 or 4 indicators in either U.S. History or Government.

U.S. History

Alabama

With U.S. History spread over two courses, it allows for the standards to be more in depth. However, the standards focus on the U.S. economy (e.g., enslavement), military involvement in other U.S. states, and U.S. military involvement in other countries, and a minimization of minority populations. For example, within U.S. History I an indicator reads, “Explaining how mercantilism was a motive for colonization.” The Alabama standards discuss Black history predominantly within the context of enslavement across both sets of standards. For example, in the first standard in U.S. History I, the third indicator has students, “Explaining how the institution of slavery developed in the colonies.” The next time in the standards that enslavement is addressed is in the eighth standard (and all six indicators) in U.S. History. The indicators related to enslavement can be found in Appendix E. Similarly, the standards have an entire standard with five indicators dedicated to the Civil Rights Movement (as opposed to that not existing in the 1998 standards). However, the standard does not accurately address the realities of the movement nor why it needed to exist in the first place. The standard and its indicators can be found in Appendix E. for reference.

Other minority groups are less frequently discussed throughout the standards as well. In total, “women” are mentioned a total of four times - twice in U.S. History I and twice in U.S. History II. The four mentions are as follows:

U.S. History 1:

Standard 3, Indicator 3: “Comparing roles in and perspectives of the American Revolution from different regions and groups in society, including men, women, white settlers, free and enslaved African Americans, and Native Americans.”

Standard 7, Indicator 1: “Tracing the development of temperance, women’s, and other reform movements in the United States between 1781 and 1861.”

U.S. History II:

Standard 13: “Describe the Women’s Movement, the Hispanic Movement, and the Native American Movement during the 1950s and 1960s.”

Standard 14, Indicator 3, example 2: “social changes - advancement of women and minorities in the workplace”

Women are not the only minority population that is only explicitly mentioned less than five times. Indigenous populations are also less frequently mentioned. The second standard of U.S. History I states: “Compare various early English settlements and colonies on the basis of economics, geography, culture, government, and Native American relations.” The third indicator under the first standard in U.S. History II states: “Describing the impact of the Indian Removal Act of 1830 and the Dawes Act on the United States between Reconstruction and World War I.”

The standards also highlight U.S. involvement in other nation-states and global politics. For example, in U.S. History II, an indicator has students, “Describing causes and consequences of the Spanish-American War, including yellow journalism.” The following structure is the “addition” to the indicator to help guide which content is under the indicator:

Examples: causes - economic interest of the United States in Cuba, sinking of the Maine;
consequences - Treaty of Paris (1898), insurgency in the Philippines (p. 76)

Another example can be found in U.S. History II, with the mention of the internment of Japanese Americans on the west coast. An indicator under Standard 7 reads, “Describing the changing home front, including wartime economic measures, population shifts, racial and ethnic tensions, industrialization, science, and technology. Additionally, USH.II.11 reduces the conflict to “involvement” of the U.S. in Vietnam, and anti-war sentiment is not addressed at all.

Georgia

The 2005 Georgia standards are broad and generally focused upon white historical figures. For example, enslavement is mentioned in the very first indicator of the very first standard, but only in reference to the development of Virginia specifically. Additionally, the “development of slavery” is at the very end of the list of items regarding Virginia’s development. Georgia is never mentioned, in fact, Virginia is the only southern colony explicitly mentioned. The indicators in Georgia’s standards that reference enslavement use concerning language. The overarching standard reads, “SSUHS2 - The student will trace the ways that the economy and society of British North America developed.” The first indicator under this standard involves mercantilism and trans-Atlantic trades, highlighting an economic focus. The second indicator reads: “Describe the Middle Passage, growth of the African population and African-American culture.” The third indicator under the standard uses Benjamin Franklin as a “symbol of social mobility” and the final indicator refers to the Great Awakening. The next time that enslavement is even mentioned in the standards, is in a list of things that were impacted by westward expansion. The other items included in this list are public education and the addition of new states. Enslavement is brought back into the standards as a “significant issue in American politics” in Indicator (a) of SS.US.H8. Two indicators later, enslavement is once again referred to as an “issue” - this time in reference to the western states and the Missouri Compromise. In

the following standards related to the Civil War, Standard SS.US.H9 reads: “The student will identify key events, issues, and individuals relating to the causes, course, and consequences of the Civil War.” This standard removes enslavement as an issue of the war and instead minimizes it to just another war in history. The specific indicators can be referenced in Appendix D. Nowhere in the indicators does it name slavery as an issue of the war, nor do they mention secession or the Confederate States of America (CSA).

Movements for equal rights are also discussed in broad terms that allow minimization. For example, Standard SS.US.H22 states: “The student will identify dimensions of the Civil Rights Movement, 1945-1970.” The indicators are broad, removing nuanced causes of the movement. Similarly, SS.US.H7, Indicator (d) states: “Explain women’s efforts to gain suffrage, including Elizabeth Cady Stanton and the Seneca Falls Conference.” All of the (exclusively white) women explicitly named in the standards are members or leaders of reform movements. Table 10 in Appendix I. contains a list of all women named in the standards.

Other minority groups are mentioned less throughout the standards. While like enslavement, Indigenous people are referenced in the first indicator (and even in the second indicator). For example, Standard SS.US.H7 states: “The student will explain the process of economic growth, its regional and national impact in the first half of the 19th century, and the different response to it.” This standard begins with an indicator regarding the Industrial Revolution, followed by an indicator regarding westward growth and Manifest Destiny. Instead of discussing Indigenous populations alongside the railroads, they are instead referenced in the standard regarding the “consequences of American industrial growth.” The corresponding indicator reads: (c) Describe the growth of the western population and its impact on Native Americans with reference to Sitting Bull and Wounded Knee.” The immigrant population of the

U.S. is similarly minimized. Indicators referencing Ellis Island and Angel Islands are actually separated into two different standards. Ellis Island and immigrants from Europe are discussed in regard to the impact of industrialization while Angel Island and Asian immigrants are discussed in regard to “America’s evolving relationship with the world.” Additionally, “immigrant restriction” is mentioned in the indicator regarding communism and socialism post-WW1.

Georgia’s standards also create a largely positive discussion around U.S. military involvement across states, territories, and other nations. Using vocabulary such as “expansionism” and government “involvement” are examples of this positive discussion. The standards also name the internment of Japanese-Americans on the west coast, but additionally includes “internment” of German- and Italian-Americans. Students are expected to describe the “scientific, economic, and military implications” of the atomic bomb. In general, the standards only discuss the federal government in a positive fashion – similar to other states.

South Carolina

The 2005 standards cover more history than the 2000 standards, since they go back to the settlement of the colonies. A specific year is not given, but it does state specifically to summarize the characteristics of each “colonial region” - meaning that this course is starting after the establishment of the colonies. As with any standards, how minority groups are (not) discussed is an important feature to analyze. For example, USHC-3.1 states: “Explain the impact and challenges of westward movement, including the major land acquisitions, people’s motivations for moving west, railroad construction, the displacement of Native Americans, and its impact on the developing American character.” In a similar vein, Indicator USHC-3.3 does not include language regarding enslavement, and instead uses the phrase “agriculture in the South.” Other instances describe minority groups in relation to their economic contributions or implications,

such as Indicator USHC-4.1. It states: “Compare the social and cultural characteristics of the North, the South, and the West during the antebellum period, including the lives of African Americans, and social reform movements such as abolition and women’s rights.” In fact, the only time the word “slave” appears in the 2005 standards is in reference to the balance of free and slave states prior to the Civil War. Other instances only describe the “role” of minority groups - such as Indicator USHC-4.3 regarding the “role” of “African American military units” in the Civil War, or USHC-8.3 and the “role” of “minorities in the workforce” during WW2. Another key example of this minimization of issues is the internment of Japanese Americans during WW2. Indicator USHC-8.3 states: “Summarize the impact of World War II and war mobilization on the home front, including ... racial and ethnic tensions such as those caused by the internment of Japanese Americans.” Another example is in Indicator USHC-5.5 and how the “continuation of the women’s suffrage movement” was an “effect” of urbanization.

The 2005 standards also address the rights of citizens. For example, Indicator USHC-4.5 states: “Summarize the progress made by African Americans during Reconstruction.” Similarly, Indicator USHC-7.3 discusses (white) women and their “attainment” of voting rights. Similar to the 2000 standards, the Civil Rights Movement is not given its own indicator (and therefore not given the importance it is due), and is instead combined with “movements for racial and gender equity and civil liberties” (USHC-9.5). There are many instances in the 2005 standards where the perspective is that of the white population. For example, Indicator USHC-4.1 discusses social reform movements such as women’s rights - but in the time period this indicator represents, women’s rights would have only applied to white women.

Another aspect of the 2005 focuses on the U.S.’s image on the global stage. This can be seen in numerous indicators, starting with Indicator USHC-2.2: “Explain the impact of the

Declaration of Independence and the American Revolution on the American colonies and on the world at large.” Another place this is seen is in Indicators USHC-6.1 and USHC-6.2 - the U.S. is described as “emerging” as world power in 6.2, and how the Spanish-American War helped “change worldwide perceptions” of the U.S. Another example is in Indicator USHC-9.3, discussing the Vietnam War. The protests are mentioned but the U.S. actions that caused those protests are not. Instead, there is a focus on the specific presidents and their policies regarding the war.

Government

Alabama

An addition with the 2004 standards is a recognition of geographical political beliefs, as well as more history than the 1998 standards. The 2004 standards introduce the concept that there is political solidarity in certain regions of the country. One example of this is under Standard 7, in the second indicator: “Describing regional differences in public opinion in the United States.” Similarly, the second indicator under Standard 8 reads, “Explaining major characteristics of contemporary political parties in the United States, including the role of conventions, party leadership, formal and informal memberships, and regional strongholds.” Additionally, the 2004 standards have more of an emphasis on the history of politics in the United States. This can be seen through the more detailed standards that outline both the history of politics in the United States and in the increased standards regarding the structure of government. This can also be seen in the final standard and final indicator of the government standards. It reads, “Identifying traditional foreign policy allies of the United States and potential areas of current and future intervention.”

Georgia

An interesting note about the 2005 Government standards is that they are not in numerical order. In total, there are twenty-two standards spread across seven units. Not all standards have indicators, which is different from the U.S. History standards. The seven units are: (1) Foundations of American Government, (2) The United States Constitution, (3) Legislative Branch, (4) Executive Branch, (5) Judicial Branch, (6) State and Local Government, and (7) Civic Responsibility. Most of the standards and indicators are more of a passive language, not using pronouns or vocabulary that creates a personal connection. However, in certain places throughout the standards, this is not the case and instead the writers have utilized personal language. For example, Indicator (b) of SSCG1 states: “Analyze the writings of Hobbes (Leviathan), Locke (Second Treatise on Government), and Montesquieu (The Spirit of Laws) as they affect our concept of government.” The use of “our” is a deviation from the language in other standards. Another example of important language use is in the final indicator of the government standards: “Identify how amendments extend the right to vote.” This language regarding the extension of rights is significant, especially when combined with the U.S. History standards regarding the movements for equal rights.

South Carolina

The 2000 and 2005 government standards were much more similar than the U.S. History standards. SC government standards discussed civilization, its characteristics, and the responsibilities of citizens. For example, Indicator USG-1.3 states:

Compare the characteristics of a limited and an unlimited government, including the idea that a civil society maintains a limited government: how a civil society provides the opportunity for individuals to associate for different purposes, how a civil society allows

people to influence the government by means other than voting, how political and economic freedoms can limit government power, and how the government of a civil society differs from the governments in authoritarian and totalitarian regimes (emphasis added) (p. 97)

Similarly, Standard USG-5 pushes the message of the responsibilities of citizens and what is expected of students after they graduate - specifically naming some character traits that are “important to the preservation and improvement of American democracy.” Another relevant standard from the 2005 Government standards is USG-4.1. It discusses U.S. foreign policy, and “America’s contributions to the world in politics, environmentalism, technology, science, humanitarianism, and culture.”

2010-2015

DOK

Alabama (2010)

The 2010 standards kept the same format as the 2004 standards - numbered standards with bulleted lists of “indicators.” Some standards do not have a bulleted list, but instead have no additional information or have a list of “examples.” Additionally, the dominant strand identification stayed, with the change from “Political Science” to “Civics and Government.” In the 2010 standards, U.S. History I covers “Beginnings to the Industrial Revolution” and U.S. History II covers “The Industrial Revolution to the Present” - a small change in wording from the 2004 standards, but similar in content coverage. U.S. History I contained sixteen standards, broken down into a total of forty-nine indicators. U.S. History II also contained sixteen standards but was broken down into forty-seven indicators. Government contained fifteen standards, broken down into twenty-three indicators. The 2010 standards were mostly DOK Level 1, just

like the 1998 and 2004 standards. The Government standards continued to have the highest portion of DOK Level 2 standards, and U.S. History II fell to the lowest percentage of DOK Level 2s.

Louisiana (2011)

The 2011 standards changed format from the 1997 standards. The 2011 standards remove the overarching topics and instead have standards that are broken up into indicators. The U.S. History standards also had the historical thinking skills before the content-related standards. There were eight standards for Civics, broken down into fifty-four indicators. One difference in the U.S. History standards is that the blanket standards regarding early U.S. History are removed, and the first standard begins with Westward Expansion, yet does not mention the Civil War. There are six U.S. History standards, broken down into thirty-five indicators. Overall, the 2011 standards were 57% DOK Level 1, 37% DOK Level 2, and 6% DOK Level 3. This is a change from the 1997 standards, with less DOK Level 1 indicators in both U.S. History and Government.

Mississippi (2011)

The 2011 standards changed format from the 1998 standards to a more “traditional” format for standards - overarching standards with clear indicators. The document uses similar language to the 1998 standards (strands, competencies, objectives) but the format matches other state standards. The 5 content strands created for the 2011 standards are: domestic affairs, global affairs, civil rights/human rights, economics, and culture. The U.S. History standards identified two competencies with six objectives for the strand “domestic affairs.” There are two competencies with twelve objectives for the strand “global affairs.” There are two competencies with seven objectives for the strand “economics.” There is one competency with five objectives

for the strand “culture.” In total, there are seven competencies (standards) with a total of thirty-one objectives (indicators). The Government standards identified three competencies with nine objectives for the strand “domestic affairs.” There is one competency with three objectives for the strand “global affairs.” There is one competency with three objectives for the strand “civil rights/human rights.” There is one competency with three objectives for the strand “economics.” There is one competency with three objectives for the strand “culture.” In total, there are seven competences (standards) with a total of twenty-one objectives (indicators).

An addition to the 2011 standards was the identification of the DOK Level. For each objective, the document explains that at least fifty percent of the test items on the state assessment match the DOK level assigned to each objective. This was meant to support teachers in making sure that instruction is a certain level of rigor so that students are prepared for the state test. What is interesting is that the DOK levels identified do not typically match the actual DOK of the objective as it is stated. When compared, the DOK expected of students is a majority of Level 3s, but the actual objective as stated is a majority of Level 1 with a sizable portion being Level 2. When analyzed for the DOK level as it is written, 50% of the objectives were a DOK Level 1, 38% Level 2, and 12% Level 3. When compared to the “identified” DOK levels, there is a stark difference. U.S. History does not have a single DOK Level 1 objective, being solely 2 or 3. Similarly, Government has very few DOK Level 1s, with only 24% of the objectives being a DOK Level 1. Instead, the standards identify 52% of the objectives as requiring a DOK Level 3.

South Carolina (2011)

Similar to the sample classroom activities provided with the 2005 standards, the 2011 standards also provide additional activities alongside the standards. However, in the 2011 standards, these are distinguished as “Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty First

Century” and are not specific to indicators like the activities in the 2005 standards. These literacy skills are also not unique to each standard, with the same skill being seen across multiple standards. The 2011 standards also choose to bold key vocabulary terms throughout the indicators, not seen in previous standards. Both sets begin with analyzing the established British colonial regions, and make no mention of the indigenous people or their history pre-European involvement. There were eight total U.S. History standards with forty-three indicators. There were four Government standards, with twenty-one indicators. In the 2011 standards, 66% of the indicators are at DOK Level 1. 34% of the indicators are at DOK Level 2. There were no DOK Level 3 or 4 indicators in either U.S. History or Government.

U.S. History

Alabama

The 2010 standards begin far earlier than any other iteration - going all the way back to the Crusades, Renaissance, and Reformation. While the intention is not for students to take time learning about each of these time periods, the indicator clarifies that students are to describe how those events influenced European exploration. The Alabama standards list the small roles of minority populations, predominantly within larger discussions of economics. Specifically, in regard to Black Americans, Standard 9 states: “Explain dynamics of economic nationalism during the Era of Good Feelings, including transportation systems, Henry Clay’s American System, slavery and the emergence of the plantation system, and the beginning of industrialism in the Northeast.” Similarly, one indicator refers to the “development of slavery” - using language to make it an aspect of trade, rather than the subjugation of an entire race. Additionally, Standard 12 of U.S. History I addresses the abolition movement, but does not address the undergirding moral issue of enslavement. The indicators that outlined what teachers should

include while teaching about the abolition movement can be found in Table 7 in Appendix I. regarding indicators related to enslavement. There are no major changes from the 2004 standard regarding the Civil Rights Movement to the 2010 standards - meaning that the standards being taught regarding the Civil Rights Movement have not changed in over twenty years.

In addition to Black Americans, other groups are narrowly framed within their economic contributions in the 2010 Alabama standards. For example, the fifth indicator under Standard 14 in U.S. History I states, “Describing the role of women in American society during the Civil War, including efforts made by Elizabeth Blackwell and Clara Barton.” In regard to the Indigenous populations, the indicator that discusses the Columbian Exchange, does not mention it in regard to the Indigenous peoples it killed, but instead for “its impact on the global economy.” Similarly, the indicator for Standard 10 states: “Explaining the spoils system, nullification, extension of voting rights, the Indian Removal Act, and the common man ideal” (all in reference to the presidency of Andrew Jackson).

The Alabama standards also narrow the notion of “society”. This can be seen at the beginning of U.S. History I, with the phrase “colonial society.” U.S. History I also uses phrases like “national identity” and “American society.” U.S. History II also uses similar phrases, most commonly using “American society” and “mass culture.” One example of this from U.S. History II is the last indicator under Standard 6 - “Analyzing the Great Depression for its impact on the American family.” An example of the focus on United States only in a positive way can be found in U.S. History II, in regard to the Vietnam War. The war itself is relegated to one standard with two indicators, that omit broader sentiments, debates, and tensions around the war.

Louisiana

Whereas the 1997 standards “contained” U.S. History prior to industrialization, the 2011 standards remove that portion entirely. Instead, the first standard is “Western Expansion to Progressivism” - and it contains an interesting blend of history that is somehow inclusive of content that happened prior to the Civil War and after the Civil War while leaving out the war, its causes, and its results. This continues the narrative of the 2011 standards that ignores minority populations in history, instead relegating them to a narrow “role” or “example” in broader U.S. history. For example, Indicator US.5.4 states, “Describe the role and importance of the Civil Rights movement in the expansion of opportunities for African Americans in the United States.” A similar minimization can be seen in regard to Indigenous populations with Indicator US.2.1: “Evaluate the social, political, and economic antagonism that occurred between ethnic and cultural groups as a result of westward expansion.” The standards instead push a narrative of focus on the U.S. through the standards, such as Indicator US.3.1, which states, “Analyze the causes of U.S. imperialistic policies and describe both the immediate and long term consequences upon newly acquired territories.”

Mississippi

The 2011 standards continued some of the same narratives and emphases from the 1998 standards, but with more detail. However, they still aren’t quite like other Social Studies standards - instead of covering content chronologically, there are five “strands” that the standards are broken down into, and then the standards are broken down into indicators. The 2011 standards include “content” as compared to the 1998 standards, and that content focuses almost exclusively on white male historical figures, while obscuring other groups. For example, in regard to the Civil Rights Movement, the six indicators under Standard 4 never address why the

Civil Rights Movement was necessary, instead focusing on the aspects of the movement that had a positive result. The specific indicators can be referenced in Table 8 in Appendix I. Similarly, the first indicator under Standard 2 states, “Explain how American society has been impacted by the entry of more women, minorities, and immigrant workers into the labor force.” This reduction of minority groups to a “role” or “contribution” can also be seen in the other two times in the standards that immigrants are mentioned. One mention is in regard to how they have “impacted” “American society” by entering the labor force, and the other in regard to how the Civil Rights Movement impacted their “expanding democracy.”

Other relevant standards of the 2011 Mississippi standards are in relation to the economic focus created by the standards and the prioritization of American history. Indicator (a) of Standard 7 has students “examine cultural artifacts ... to contextualize historical developments” - highlighting a commoditization of culture and people. Similarly, the second indicator of Standard 7 has students: “Analyze and evaluate the impact of religion on various social movements, domestic/foreign policies, and political debates.” indicators under Standard 3 are focused on “America’s role” or “America’s involvement” in the world, furthering the amplification of the presence of the U.S.

South Carolina

The standards adopted in 2011 had a very similar perspective to the 2005 standards - a reduction of focus on any part of the population that was not a white male historical figure, a focus on economics, and either a blanket omission or positive spin of what would be considered contentious topics. Once again, the standards begin with the colonial regions and a dive into the development of the U.S. government with no mention of the Indigenous peoples or the enslaved population that was an integral part of the Southern economy by the time of the American

Revolution. Indicator USHC-2.3 hides the issue of slavery in language highlighting an economic perspective by referring to the “ways that economic policy contributed to political controversies.” The next indicator has students compare the “lives of African Americans” across the three regions of the U.S. without mentioning that the majority of the Black population were enslaved. Even in the indicator related to the causes of the Civil War (USHC-3.1) enslavement is not mentioned. Another Civil War related standard that is relevant is Indicator USHC-3.2 (the same indicator as the “defeat” of the CSA) which provides a particular phrasing regarding secession - the “final defeat of the idea” of secession. The Civil Rights Movement is given its own indicator in the 2011 standards, and specifically named the “African American Civil Rights Movement.” Indicator USHC-8.1 provides a list of components of the movement for students to analyze, including: strategies, Supreme Court cases, legislation, civil rights advocates, and the media. Now, there is no specifics given within that list - but the indicator continues. It adds that an additional analysis that students should complete is how the Civil Rights Movement influenced “other groups seeking equality”

Other minority groups are also addressed less frequently. For example, both the 2005 and 2011 standards refer to Indigenous populations only in how they were impacted by the (white) government, and only in positive terms. Both sets of standards refer to the “displacement” of “Native Americans” (in the 2011 standards, that is Indicator USHC-2.1). Similarly, Indicator USHC-4.1 states: “Summarize the impact that government policy and the construction of the transcontinental railroads had on the development of the national market and on the culture of Native American peoples.” Another example can be found in regard to the internment of Japanese Americans. Indicator USHC-7.2 refers to the internment of Japanese Americans during

WW2 as a result of the “limits on individual rights.” All of these examples showcase how the standards reduce the focus on minority populations to a political or economic perspective.

Government

Louisiana

The 2011 standards continue some of the same narratives as the 1997 standards, such as the focus on “society” and the minimization of groups. However, the open-ended indicators are removed and there (surprisingly) is less of an emphasis on patriotism and the “role of the citizen.” Instead, there are three standards added on economics, creating a connection between economics and politics that was not seen in the 1997 standards. One relevant indicator from these standards is Indicator C.5.3, which states, “Describe how civil rights have evolved over time to include diverse groups of citizens.” The standards also address, for the first time, foreign policy. C.3.1 states - “Evaluate the five basic goals of United States foreign policy and explain the role of government in their implementation.” Nowhere are these five goals elaborated upon, and so this indicator is an interesting question into what the Louisiana Board of Education determines to be the “five goals.” Whereas the 1997 standards were almost 20% related to the roles of citizens and topics related to patriotic expressions, the 2011 standards are only 15% related to the “roles of the citizen.” Instead, over 30% of the standards are economics related - the “fundamentals of economics,” “economic systems and structures,” and “financial literacy.”

Mississippi

The 2011 Mississippi government standards are focused on American exceptionalism, economics, and religion. For example, the first indicator under Standard 7 refers to a “civil society” and how beneficial it is - creating a wording that makes it clear that the United States is “correct” in having a civil society. The second indicator under Standard 1 refers to the “realistic

view of human nature” (clearly coming from a Christian perspective) and how the Founding Fathers used that view to create a limited government. The second to last indicator also addresses religion, by having students “explain how religion and religious diversity has characterized the development of American democracy.”

South Carolina

The 2011 government standards also have an emphasis on government structure and the importance of citizenship. Just like in other government standards, the 2011 standards create an “American” identity in an attempt to engage students in civic participation once they graduate. For example, USG-2.1 specifies “core values” of the U.S. government, and USG-2.2 identifies “core political principles” of the U.S. government. Similarly, USG-2.2 has students analyze the “Judeo-Christian heritage” that influences the U.S. government alongside various European philosophers.

2016-Present

DOK

Georgia (2016)

Georgia requires that its standards be replaced every 4 years, and so there have been iterations of the GSE in 2016, 2020, and most recently, 2023. However, the 2020 standards are completely identical to the 2016 standards, and the 2023 standards are “different” because they add five indicators to the government standards. The 2016 standards have less “extra” information for teachers than the 2005 standards. The suggested timeline is gone, as well as the unit focus, and essential questions. Instead, the 2016 (and therefore 2020 and 2023) standards just have the overarching standard and then specific indicators. There were twenty-three U.S. History standards, broken down into ninety-three indicators. There were seventeen Government

standards, broken down into fifty-nine indicators. In 2016, 72% of indicators were DOK Level 1. 27% of indicators were DOK Level 2, with the remaining <1% falling under Level 3. There were no DOK Level 4 indicators.

Mississippi (2018)

The 2018 standards once again change the format of the standards. While the five strands remain (civics, economics, civil rights, geography, and history) and what are commonly known as “indicators” remain being called “objectives”, the language changes from “competencies” to “standards.” U.S. History contained twelve standards, broken down into seventy-four objectives. Government contained seven standards, broken down into seventy-six indicators. The 2018 standards reduced the rigor expected of students. While there were still objectives that would classify as DOK Level 3, the majority of objectives were DOK Level 1. In total, 76% of the objectives of the 2018 standards were DOK Level 1, 18% Level 2, and 8% Level 3. This is a decrease from the 2011 standards.

South Carolina (2019)

An addition in the 2019 standards are the deconstructed skills that identify each indicator. The U.S. History deconstructed skills are: comparison, causation, periodization, context, continuities and changes, and evidence. The Government deconstructed skills are: establish relationships, interpret, communicate and conclude, and informed participation. The 2019 standards also added an explanation of each indicator and into which topics it was designed to spark inquiry. These “explanations” do provide more information than the indicator or standard, and can provide some clarity to an otherwise broad standard. Each explanation begins with the statement “This indicator was developed to encourage inquiry into...” (TIWDTEII). Another inclusion that was not seen in previous iterations of the standards is the “Enduring

Understanding” written for every standard. This short paragraph is meant to inform teachers of what students should take away from each standard. There were five total U.S. History standards with thirty indicators. There were four Government standards, with sixteen indicators. In the 2019 standards, 37% of the indicators are at DOK Level 1. 46% of the indicators are at DOK Level 2. 15% of the indicators are at DOK Level 3, with the remaining 2% of indicators at DOK Level 4.

Louisiana (2022)

In the 2022 standards, the historical thinking skills were added to the Civics course. Similar to the 2011 standards, the 2022 standards have overarching standards broken down into indicators. The Civics standards contained seven overarching standards with forty-nine indicators. U.S. History contained eleven standards with 102 indicators. One major difference in the 2022 standards is that history prior to industrialization is included, with complex standards and indicators - not the broad statements like the 1997 standards possessed. The 2022 standards changed the expectations for students in regard to rigor. Whereas both the 1997 and 2011 iterations contained a noticeable portion of DOK Level 3s, that is missing from the 2022 standards. In this iteration, 86% of the indicators fell under Level 1, with 19% of the indicators being DOK Level 2.

Mississippi (2022)

In the 2022 iteration of the Social Studies standards, the document is again organized into “standards” and “objectives.” The strands are absent in this iteration. There also is great similarity to the 2018 standards. In U.S. History, thirty-eight indicators (47%) were identical to the 2018 standards - with another twenty-two (27%) having minor word changes. There were only seven indicators (9%) that were totally unique to the 2022 standards. The remaining

fourteen indicators (17%) had corresponding indicators in 2018, but there were definitive changes. Appendix C. contains a chart highlighting the similarities and differences in the standards. The government standards had common/identical standards to the 2018 standards as well, but not as many as the U.S. History standards. There are twelve standards for U.S. History, with a total of seventy-two objectives. There are eight standards for Government, with a total of sixty-five objectives. The 2022 standards changed in their expectations of rigor - 88% of the objectives were DOK Level 1, and less than 1% of the objectives were DOK Level 3.

Alabama (2026)

The proposed standards create a new format for Alabama standards. The new standards have a format similar to other states, with numbered standards and then numbered indicators within each standard. The proposed standards also create “Social Studies Practices” that are accompanied by skills that students should achieve. The standard document explains that the skills help answer the question, “What do students do when they engage in disciplinary thinking in Social Studies?” The four practices are: Geographic Thinking, Economic Thinking, Historical Thinking, and Civic Thinking. These skills are similar to the “strands” created by the 2004 standards. Two more practices are identified to help answer the question, “What do students do when they respond to a compelling question?” Those practices are: evaluative evidence and communicating conclusions. All six of these practices contain between three and five bulleted statements that detail what that practice looks like. The proposed standards also adjust which content is covered in which U.S. History course. US History I removes content related to settlement and early colonies. Instead, it begins immediately prior to the American Revolution and through the Progressive Era. The standards do not provide set dates for the start and end of these standards, instead using the generic terms to provide a guide for the course.

The standards also create “Course Topics” that sort the standards. U.S. History I has a total of five topics, U.S. History II is divided into six topics, and Government has five topics. U.S. History I contains twenty standards, with a total of sixty nine indicators. U.S. History II also contains twenty standards, with sixty-four indicators. Government only has fourteen standards, broken down into thirty-three indicators. The proposed standards, while still mostly DOK Level 1, are more varied than previous iterations. Standards that are a Level 3 can be found in both U.S. History courses. All three sets of standards are less than 80% DOK Level 1, which is an improvement from previous iterations.

U.S. History

Georgia

The 2016 U.S. History standards focus on the economy and economic contributions, while amplifying some groups over others. One example of this can be found in Indicator (d) of Standard SS.US.H2 - “Explain the role of the Great Awakening in creating unity in the colonies and challenging traditional authority.” Similarly, SS.US.H7 states: “Explain the influence of the Second Great Awakening on social reform movements including temperance, public education, and women’s efforts to gain suffrage.” Similar to other standards, phrases such as “national identity” or “American culture” are used to create an idea of one culture/identity that is only representative of the white population. Minority groups are usually referenced in regard to their “role” in history - stripping them of their autonomy and individual identity. For example, the first time that “women” as a group are mentioned in the 2016 standards is in relation to their “role” in supporting the war effort of the American Revolution. Women are referred to again in Indicator (b) of Standard SS.US.H13 - but only in their “role” in reform movements. The only other time

that women are mentioned is in SS.US.H22, in reference to the “emergence of the National Organization for Women” as a “social effect” of “major domestic issues.”

The discussion of Indigenous populations in the Georgia 2016 (and subsequently the 2020 and 2023 iterations) iterations remains minimal. “American Indians” are referenced in three of the indicators under SS.US.H1. The indicators include “relations with American Indians” in the list of characteristics students are expected to know about each colonial region. The next time that “American Indians” are referenced is under SS.US.H4, Indicator (e) - “Examine the roles of women, American Indians, and enslaved and free Blacks in supporting the war effort.” They also are not truly acknowledged in regard to Westward Expansion. Standard SS.US.H12 states: “Evaluate how westward expansion impacted the Plains Indians and fulfilled Manifest Destiny.” The indicators address the railroad, the “western population” and the “Plains Indians’ resistance ... and the consequences of their resistance.”

The same is true for Black Americans in the Georgia standards. Within Indicator (d) of SS.US.H7, enslavement is referenced in terms of “significance... in American politics.” It is completely removed as a cause of the Compromise of 1850 (SS.US.H8, Indicator (d)) and not mentioned in the list of events leading to the Civil War (SS.US.H8, Indicator (e)). In the following standard, the “economic disparity” between the North and South is mentioned (similar to the 2005 standards), and yet neither enslavement nor agriculture are mentioned as a part of the growing disparity. SS.US.H2, Indicator (b) - “Describe the Middle Passage, the growth of the African population, and their contributions, including but not limited to architecture, agriculture, and foodways” is the only indicator “dedicated” to the topic of enslavement, and yet the phrase “growth of the African population’ is the most concerning phrasing of any of the standards. Within the 2016 standards in Georgia, another major omission is in regard to a standard

dedicated to the Civil Rights Movement. In fact, there is not even a dedicated indicator to the Civil Rights Movement - instead, recognition of the movement is wrapped in with other “social changes” of the times.

However, the GA standards do include immigration as a discussion point in the standards. The standard, however focuses on how immigrants influenced the “economy, politics, and culture” of the United States. Key differences from the 2005 standards are that Ellis Island and Angel Island are in the same indicator, and that “Anti-Asian sentiment” is removed.

However, in a later standard, immigrant restrictions post-WW1 are blamed on communism and socialism fears, rather than the xenophobia and racism that were the true motivators. Other examples the focus on territory acquisition and U.S. power include the annexation of Texas and Oregon (referred to as the “fulfillment of Manifest Destiny”) and how Indicator (b) of SS.US.H14 references the “involvement” in Latin America by the U.S. government at the turn of the twentieth century.

Mississippi (2018)

The 2018 standards change their format to a more traditional chronological approach like other states. Beginning with the year 1877, the standards start with the expansion of the country westward and go through roughly the year 2016. By not including history prior to 1877, the standards avoid discussing enslavement, and the challenging ways to address the atrocities committed prior to the Civil War. The later start also allows for an avoidance of the topic of both the indigenous people who lived on the continent, and the development of a government that created an unequal system.

The Mississippi 2018 standards continue to highlight the importance of economics when discussing U.S. History. The very first indicator (US.1.1) has students look into the “impact of

Manifest Destiny on the economic and technological development” of the West. A similar example can be found in US4.4 - “Trace the involvement of the United States in the Hawaiian Islands for economic and imperialistic interests.” The following indicator takes the same approach, highlighting “America’s expanded economic and geographic interests. Another place that economics is given a higher priority is found in the Civil Rights standard. Indicator US.11.6 focuses on the economic aspects of the movement - addressing the “growth of the African American middle class, ... and declining rates of African American poverty.” Similarly, U.S. History I - Indicator 3b states: “Analyze the development of economic infrastructure during the Early Republic, including the effects of Alexander Hamilton’s economic policies.” Similar indicators can be found under Standard 10 of U.S. History I, highlighting various economic policies that “contributed to the growth of the American economy.”

The standards address different minority groups in different. For example, Indicator US.3.2 has students trace political, social, and cultural movements that caused reforms prior to the Civil Rights Movement. Similarly, Standard 9. US.9.3 states, “Cite and analyze the impact of other minority groups to those of the Civil Rights Movement led predominantly by African Americans, including AIM, UFW, American Disabilities Act.” This separation of movements for equal rights from the standard dedicated to the African American Civil Rights Movement allows for minimization. Standard 11 and its indicators can be referenced in Appendix F. Women are also reduced to being a “minority” group, and typically only discussed in terms of their “role” within history. The first time that women are even mentioned in the 2018 standards is in US.5.7, which discusses how the 1920s changed the “role of women” in the transition from a “traditional” to “modern” culture. Other places that women are mentioned include US.7.9 (once again within their “role” and how that “role” changed during World War 2) and in US.9.4:

“Describe the changing roles of women in society as reflected in the entry of more women into the labor force and the changing family structure, including Equal Pay Act.” Of the four women named in the standards, two of the three were white women and Dorothea Lange’s name was misspelled (the standards spell it Dorthea). The presence of Indigenous populations in the standards is minimal. Indicator US.1.3 states, “Evaluate the Dawes Act for its effect on tribal identity, land ownership, and assimilation of American Indians.” Immigrant populations are also minimized in the standards - for example, Indicator US.2.2 states, “Compare population percentages, motives, and settlement patterns of immigrants from Asia, Europe, and including: Chinese Exclusion Act regarding immigration quotas.”

The standards also help to create an idea of “society” and use positive language in regard to the federal government. For example, Indicator US.1.4 refers to “American society” and the role of the federal government within. Other terms used to create this idea of unity include:

“public opinion” - US.3.1

“mass culture” - US.5.1, US.5.6

“American family” - US.5.9

“American society” - US.1.4, US.9.3

Indicator US.7.10 is an example of the positive language used in regard to the federal government. The indicator has students “Summarize the discrimination the Japanese Americans faced during WWII. Include the Korematsu v. U.S. supreme court case.” Additionally, the standards omit major conflicts, such as the Vietnam War, while maintaining positive language regarding choices of the federal government.

The 2018 standards also include language that is indicative of the bias of the standard writers. For example, President Theodore Roosevelt is described as having an “iconic status” in

Indicator US.4.2, or it is referred to as the “advent” of Donald Trump in the “unconventional” election in 2016 (US.12.3). Another inclusion that is not found in other standards is US.9.6. It covers a broad range of topics, but includes specifics such as “racial concentrations in the cities,” “increases in out-of-wedlock births” and “drug abuse.” The highlighting of these topics helps to show the conservative nature and values of the Mississippi standard writers.

South Carolina

The 2019 standards create a significant emphasis on economics. Fifteen of the thirty U.S. History indicators are related to economics - either explicitly stated or through economic vocabulary (such as capitalism, industrialization, etc.). Four of the five standards have an economic focus as well. South Carolina legally requires the teaching of Black history; however, the current standards keep the focus on economics and the history of white men. When even mentioned (in the explanations, not the indicators themselves), these groups typically are only discussed in their “roles” or lumped together as “marginalized groups.” For example, for USHC.1.CX, the explanation reads: “This indicator was developed to encourage inquiry into how republican ideals helped some citizens, though marginalized groups still sought better opportunities and treatment.” “Marginalized groups” are mentioned only another three times in the indicator explanations. There is only one time that specific groups are identified - and that is for Indicator USHC.4.CC in discussing the “roles” of African Americans and women and how those roles were “related to the war effort.” Even in the single indicator related to the Civil Rights Movement, specific population subgroups are not named - not even African Americans. The indicator is about “continuities and changes” during the Civil Rights Movement and “other subsequent movements.”

A glaring omission in the current U.S. History Social Studies is in relation to the nation and state relationship with enslavement. Not once do these standards mention the concept of enslavement - referring to the “cotton industry” and the “plantation economy” - but no actual mention of enslavement in any form of the word. In fact, the current standards and indicators seem to gloss over the controversies that led to the Civil War and any role that SC played in the conflict. Technically, there is not a dedicated indicator to the Civil War - and only one of the six indicators attributed to the time period the Civil War falls within even mentions the Civil War. Standard 2 states: “Demonstrate an understanding of the relationship between economic and continental expansion and the evolving disagreements over natural rights and federalism from 1803-1877.” Appendix C contains a table that has each indicator for Standard 2 and the accompanying explanations with emphasis added to highlight relevant phrasing issues or vocabulary choice.

Black history is not the only minimized history within the U.S. History standards. Indigenous peoples are also minimized and only taught about in relation to the actions of the white government - and are never mentioned in the indicator itself, only in the explanations. In total, “Native Americans” are explicitly mentioned in the indicator explanations a paltry three times. The first is in USHC.1.CC regarding the relationship of the U.S. government with both Europe and Native Americans (and adds the caveat “in the west” - not recognizing the Indigenous people that were indigenous to the east coast). The other two mentions are in USHC.3.P and USHC.3.CC. Indicator USHC.3.P states: “Examine the relationship between the expanding corporate economy and American government during the period 1862-1924.” This indicator is clearly focused upon economics, and how the U.S. government played a part post-Civil War during the time of industrialization. However, the accompanying “explanation” is

twofold. It begins discussing the economic transformation, but then adds the following at the end: “This indicator also promotes inquiry into Native American efforts to protect tribal rights and culture as the United States admitted new territories and states in the west.” This is also seen in USHC.3.CC - “Analyze significant developments in the settlement of the frontier between 1862-1924.” It seems as though USHC.3.CC would be the perfect opportunity to discuss settlement issues and how the government treated Indigenous peoples - but instead, the explanation once again begins with the economy. Additionally, the explanation addresses the “diverse population” of the West - and the population is described in the following order: African Americans, Hispanic, Native Americans, and immigrants from Europe and Asia.

Women, as a subgroup, are mentioned twice. Once, in reference to the Women’s Rights Movement prior to the Civil War, and once in regard to their “role” in the war efforts of World War 2. There is no mention of the nineteenth amendment, no mention of the feminist movement, and no mention of their work in any capacity other than the war efforts of World War 2.

A message of a singular United States is seen in the standards through language usage. Using phrases such as “American identity,” “American culture,” and “national identity,” the standards use positive verbiage to create support for the United States. Similarly, USG.3.IN states: “Interpret how American political beliefs are shaped by the founding principles, core values, and changing demographics of America, and how those beliefs led to the creation of ideological trends which affect public policy over time.” This positive language can also be found elsewhere in the standards.

Louisiana

A major change to the Louisiana standards in 2022 regarding U.S. History is the inclusion of content prior to industrialization. The 2022 standards cover U.S. History going back

to the “historical context and the events leading to” the Declaration of Independence.

Interestingly, the standards end their coverage with the 2008 election - which is odd for a set of standards put into place in 2022. This provides a twelve-year gap that is not included in the standards, which will matter more depending on how long Louisiana takes in updating their standards.

Whereas previous iterations of the standards ignored and skipped the atrocities of enslavement, the entirety of Standard 9 in the 2022 standards is dedicated to the “development and abolition of slavery” in the U.S. The corresponding ten indicators cover content beginning with the origins of slavery all the way through the adoption of the thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth amendments. One inclusion in this list is US.9.b: “Describe the experiences of enslaved people on the Middle Passage, at slave auctions, and on plantations.” Another indicator includes the Dred Scott case, even identifying that it was later “called a “self inflicted wound.” A later indicator references changes from Reconstruction - including the violence against Black Americans (US.10.e). Another example of an inclusion that was not in previous iterations is US.11.h - which addresses Booker T. Washington and the Tuskegee Institute. Additionally, Standard 13 contains indicators regarding black history - US.13.a (Harlem Renaissance) and US.13.h (racial and ethnic tensions of the 1920s). US.13.h even directly mentions the “Tulsa Massacre” as an example of racial and ethnic tensions - as well as mentioning the “re-emergence” of the KKK. Another addition to the 2022 standards is that of the Civil Rights Movement. Whereas previous iterations attributed a single indicator to the movement, the 2022 standards attribute an entire standard with seven indicators to movements for civil rights. The first five indicators deal directly with the African American Civil Rights Movement - (a) origins and goals of the movement; (b) the work of Dr. Martin Luther King Jr.; (c) key individuals and

groups; (d) role and importance of key events; and (e) the role of the federal government. All of these indicators contain lists of content to include - while not extensive, each list includes at least five examples - some including as many as ten examples. The other two indicators are relative to other movements - (f) the American Indian Movement and (g) the women's rights movement."

There are also phrases and emphases in the 2022 standards not seen previously. For example, in the second indicator (US.7.b), it refers to the "Patriot's improbable victory" over the British. Another example is Indicator US.7.d that refers to America's founding as "unprecedented in human history." US.10.d addresses "reasons attributed to the Union winning the Civil War" - providing an interesting perspective regarding the end of the war. Organized crime is included in Indicator US.13.g. Another interesting inclusion is that of US.7.j - "Explain and evaluate the concept of American exceptionalism." This naming of the concept, and having students look into this perspective when previous iterations were filled with it is a positive change for the standards. This is a bit of a contrast with Indicator US.17.c that addresses the "strengths of American principles, such as rights, equality of opportunity, liberty and equal protection under the law." This can also be seen in Indicator US.17. L that refers to the "assertion of American principles." Another example of the inclusion of thought-provoking questions not seen in previous iterations can be found in Indicator US.15.i: "Analyze the decision for and effects of dropping atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki." This inclusion allows for students to critically think about the actions of the U.S. government. However, this analysis is not provided for the Vietnam War, which is instead hidden within the list of content under US.17.e. Interestingly, the bias of the standard writers can be seen in the final standard - specifically US.18.f. This indicator provides a detailed list of events and issues regarding the 9/11 attacks and the following military operations. This dichotomy between not addressing the

Korean or Vietnam wars and yet giving 9/11 its own indicator shows where the state wants students to spend their time.

Mississippi (2022)

The 2018 and 2022 standards were very similar, with 47% of the indicators being identical, and another 27% of the indicators being near identical. Chart 1 found in Appendix F. contains a chart that compares all U.S. History standards from 2018 and 2022, and highlights the minor differences between the iterations. There were no unique standards to 2018, and only seven added indicators in 2022. Chart 2 in Appendix F contains the indicators from 2018 and 2022 that cover similar topics, but are significant in their changes. This table also includes comments on what the change was to the 2022 standards. In general, the main changes from 2018 and 2022 were clarifications. Either a focus of an indicator was clarified or the examples were adjusted (moved, added, or removed). With 91% of the indicators corresponding or being identical to the 2018 standards, the same narratives, themes, and minimizations apply from the 2018 analysis. There were seven additions to the 2022 standards. Those indicators are:

- US.1.5: Evaluate Reconstruction Amendments, black codes, Jim Crow, disenfranchisement, sharecropping, Plessy vs. Ferguson (1896), and the rise of early Civil Rights Activists as a response to the injustice such as Booker T. Washington, Ida B. Wells-Barnett, and W.E.B. DuBois.
- US.4.9: Evaluate the domestic impact of World War I (including the war mobilization effort, changes in the workforce, the origins of the Great Migration, and Schenck vs. United States (1919)).

- US.8.12: Explain the social and cultural changes in post war America (including the G.I. Bill, Interstate Highway Act, the Baby Boom, and the impact of television).
- US.9.7: Analyze the international policies and actions taken as a response to the Cold War (including U.S. involvement in Cuba, the escalation of the war in Vietnam as a result of the Gulf of Tonkin Resolution, and de-escalation of Cold War tensions through détente).
- US.10.3: Analyze the response of the Carter administration to environmental issues, the Cold War, and conflicts in the Middle East.
- US.11.7: Evaluate the effectiveness of major non-violent demonstrations and events on the Civil Rights Movement (including Montgomery Bus Boycott, sit-ins, Freedom Rides, the March on Washington, and Selma March).

Each of these indicators adds to the narrative woven throughout the standards and addresses some challenges of the 2018 standards. For example, US.1.5 adds “injustice” to the standards - a term that is not used anywhere else. This acknowledgement also helps students understand that the Civil Rights Movement did not begin in the 1950s, but instead was a long process that began with Reconstruction. This indicator is also significant because it names Ida B. Wells-Barnett - which (including changes made to Indicator US.11.3) raises the number of women named in the standards to six - four of which are black women. Overall, the 2022 standards are similar to the 2018 standards. The 2022 standards do have lower rigor due to stated expectations of students, and there are additions that address the gaps of the 2018 standards - but the two sets of standards remain similar.

Alabama (Proposed)

The proposed standards for U.S. History in Alabama revised their content inclusion from previous iterations but still retain similar orientations and framings to previous standards. Additionally, the standards include a named focus on Alabama in some places, but do not specify Alabama when there are “challenging” topics discussed. This almost “hiding” of Alabama in certain situations tells a story within itself. Another change with the proposed standards is in relation to when the course content begins. These standards begin in the year 1763, completely skipping the Indigenous populations, the original settlements, or developments of the colonies. Instead, the first standard reads, “Trace the events from 1763 to 1783 that led to the independence of the United States of America.” The standards also go further than the current standards, going all the way through the early 2000s (Indicator 20c of U.S. History II).

There is a large list of additions to the proposed standards that have not been included in previous iterations in Alabama. For example, Indicators 8a and 8b of U.S. History I reference the “domestic slave trade” by referring to it also as “forced migration” and using the term “enslaved people.” The second indicator has students “Describe how enslaved people created their own unique culture,” - which is the first time in the Alabama standards that enslaved people are mentioned not in reference to white men, nor just as an “economic” portion of society. Another addition in U.S. History I is Indicator 12c - “Trace the progression of emancipation during and after the Civil War, including the effects of self-emancipation, the Emancipation Proclamation, Juneteenth, and the Thirteenth Amendment.” Similarly, U.S. History I. Indicator 4a states: “Describe the growth of an anti-slavery movement in northern states through the founding of the first abolitionist societies, passage of gradual emancipation laws, court cases, and actions of individuals.” The proposed standards also do a much better job of addressing the Civil Rights

Movement than the previous iterations. The standard and indicators regarding the Civil Rights Movement can be referenced in Appendix I.

In regard to other minority populations, the proposed standards also make changes in representation from previous iterations. The first standard addressing (white) women is Indicator 7a: “Research and report on women reformers in the early to mid-nineteenth century who sought to expand political and educational opportunities for women.” This is a higher level of rigor that has not been seen in other iterations of the standards. Indicator 1c of U.S. History II states, “Describe the changing roles and rights of women in the United States as a result of their contributions to World War I.” A third indicator related to women is Indicator 15b - “Evaluate the impact of Title IX on the lives of women and summarize the debate and political implications regarding the Equal Rights Amendment.” How the standards approach Indigenous people is also different than previous iterations. For example, the standards discuss how the U.S. government interacted with “Native American nations” (Indicator 3c of U.S. History I). Indicator 5b from U.S. History I states: “Summarize the effects of the Indian Removal Act and the Trail of Tears on Native Americans, and describe the efforts by different nations to oppose removal.” Similarly, Indicator 14c states - “Explain the effect of federal policies and military actions on Native Americans after the Civil War and describe Native American resistance to these actions.” All of these do provide more inclusions than previous iterations, but still maintain a narrative related to white male historical figures.

The proposed standards also use verbiage to support singular identities and a centering of the U.S., similar to other states. Terms such as “national identity” “society” and “mass culture” are used frequently in the standards to support the idea of a singular nation. However, one major change in the proposed standards is in regard to the Vietnam war. Indicators 13b, 13c, and 13d

from U.S. History II reflect a willingness to more accurately discuss the realities of the Vietnam War, including the anti-war movement that had not been previously mentioned in any standard iteration. In fact, Indicator 13d refers to the conflict as “America’s war in Vietnam. Indicator 16b goes even further - “Analyze how America’s foreign policy decisions in the Vietnam War shaped Cold War actions in the 1970s, including detente and increased concern for human rights.” The proposed standards showcase a possibility for change - at least in language in isolation - and mark the potential for progress as more states renew their standards in the future.

Government

Georgia (2016 & 2023)

The 2016 government standards put all seventeen standards in numerical order, and removed the pre-assigned units that marked the 2005 standards. However, some standards and indicators remained the same. For example, the 2016 standards also included the odd indicator regarding “our concept of government” created by the writings of Hobbes, Locke, Rousseau, and Montesquieu. Another similarity between the 2005 and 2016 standards is in the perspective on John Marshall - how his opinion is what created judicial review and the power of the Supreme Court. However, there is increased specificity in the 2016 standards. The only change between the 2016 and 2023 standards is in the addition of SSCG18, regarding a comparison of American democracy to totalitarian governments. The five indicators provide specific characteristics for students to compare, and the list of indicators can be referenced in Appendix D.

South Carolina

Similar to the U.S. History standards, the government standards work to create a unified perspective for all students to participate in. These standards also use phrases like “American society” and “fundamental values” to reinforce the unity perspective. An example of this is from

indicator USG.3.IN: “Interpret how American political beliefs are shaped by the founding principles, core values, and changing demographics of America, and how those beliefs led to the creation of ideological trends which affect public policy over time.”

The U.S. Government standards also work to minimize aspects of the country’s history and government that are considered difficult to talk about. For example, Indicator USG.3.IP is: “Explain how the electoral process works in federal elections and the effects those elections have on U.S. government.” The explanation adds to this, by saying the indicator also is meant to prompt inquiry into “historical struggles over the extension of suffrage.” Another example is in USG.4.CC: “Analyze contemporary issues and governmental responses at various levels in terms of how they have provided equal protection under the law and equal access to society’s opportunities and public facilities.” The explanation adds: “Further investigation prompts inquiry into how marginalized Americans have struggled and continue to push for equality and expanded rights.” Once again, the use of “marginalized” allows for the specific population subgroups to remain unnamed, invisible, and indistinguishable.

Mississippi (2018)

The 2018 government standards require more critical thought than the U.S. history standards, and encourage students to critically analyze aspects of government. One such indicator is USG.3.7 - “Assess the scope of presidential power and decision making through examination of case studies such as the Cuban Missile Crisis, passage of Great Society legislation, War Powers Act, Gulf War, and Bosnia.” By having students utilize the case study method to look into presidential power, students are having to use critical thinking skills to apply information - rather than just being taught the information.

Another aspect of the 2018 standards is the hint of religion. For example, the standards begin with the indicator USG.1.1 - “Evaluate the fundamental worth and dignity of the individual” (emphasis added). Similarly, Indicator USG.2.10 referred to the “realistic view of human nature” as to why the Founders created a limited government. These ideas can find their basis in both the Enlightenment and the ideas about humanity provided with Christian beliefs.

The government standards also provide more of a historical background of government than the 2011 standards. Going back to Athens and Rome (USG.2.1), English governing documents, (USG.2.2) and the Enlightenment thinkers (USG.2.3), the government standards provide a thorough historical background to the U.S. Government. The rest of Standard 2 explores both various historical aspects of government and other types of government in comparison to the U.S. government. This is also seen in Indicators (b) and (c) of Standard 5 that outline the importance of “balance” and rights that the federal government helps to maintain.

Similar to other iterations, the standards help to make sure that students are prepared to be active citizens when they graduate. Standard 7 is related to the “role, rights, and responsibility” of citizens. The accompanying eleven indicators highlight what is expected of students, including both “legal obligations” (USG.7.8) and “obligations of civic-mindedness” (USG.7.9). The second to last indicator under Standard 7 also adds an expectation of students to be empathetic. Indicator USG.7.10 states: “Describe the reciprocity between rights and obligations, that is, why enjoyment of one’s rights entails respect for the rights of others.” This idea of reciprocity and empathy is not found in other iterations or in other states - and in fact, the second portion explaining reciprocity is removed from the 2022 standards.

Mississippi (2022)

The 2022 government standards are similar to the 2018 standards, but nowhere near as similar as the U.S. History standards. Chart 3, found in Appendix F, contains the list of standards that are similar between the 2018 and 2022 standards. In total, there were eighteen identical indicators. There were more indicators that were similar, but there was much more variety than U.S. History had - and the 2022 standards also created an entirely new standard, not just added indicators. The 2022 standards begin the same way as the 2018 standards, by having students look into the “fundamental worth and dignity of the individual” (USG.1.1). This indicator (found under the standard related to the “basic concepts of democracy”) helps to continue the same focus of the 2018 standards related to individuality and the responsibility of all citizens. The 2022 standards also refer to the “realistic view of human nature” of the Founding Fathers just like both the 2011 and 2018 iterations. The 2022 iteration of standards, however, helps to minimize discriminatory policies. Indicator USG.8.4 states, “Investigate the causes and effects of reapportionment and redistricting, including spatial districting and the rights of minorities.” Minorities are mentioned, as well as “redistricting” - but the negative terms usually associated with this concept (such as gerrymandering, redlining, blockbusting, etc.) are not mentioned.

Alabama (Proposed)

The proposed government standards do continue the narrative from the 2010 (and 2004) standards that students should be active citizens when they graduate high school. Standard 12 is dedicated to this idea - it states, “Describe the rights and duties of citizens in American democracy, including participation in the election process.” In fact, the standards almost go so far as to tell students that they don’t matter as an individual, but instead majority rule is what matters more (Indicator 12a). One perspective taught to students in the proposed government

standards is that of “extending” rights. When the phrase “extending rights” is used, it creates a connotation of something being offered - when in the reality of voting rights as discussed in Indicator 3b - those rights are inherent and should never have been kept back in the first place. The proposed standards also provide for more critical thought for students as they study politics. For example, students are required to “assess the influence of political parties on citizens and elected officials.” These new standards increase the rigor expected of students but maintains the traditional narrative that students are to be informed citizens once they leave the public K-12 education system.

Summary of Findings

This chapter has presented the findings from all four rounds of analysis. Beginning with the relevant codified legislation from each state, followed by the proposed bills from each state, the legislative landscape was laid out for how each state (doesn’t) support Social Studies education. In regard to enacted legislation, relevant laws regarding continued socialization of students was presented first, followed by legislation specific to textbooks and other instructional materials. Then specific education related committees were presented, and laws related to religion in the K-12 education system. The final discussion point of enacted legislation was in regards to Civil Rights, Black history, and the topic of “divisive concepts.” The next section was about proposed legislation, and also discussed education committees, but was more specific about civic education than the socialization portion of the first section. Following civics, the next subsection was about other topics that potentially would be added to Social Studies instruction, which was followed by the bills that would increase the place of religion in the K-12 system. The final subsection of proposed legislation was also in regard to Civil Rights, Black history, and “divisive concepts.” The findings from the analysis of the various iterations of state Social

Studies standards were presented next. Summarized into four eras (pre-NCLB, 2001-2009, 2010-2015, 2016-present), each era also provided more specific analysis based on the DOK analysis, U.S. History standards, and Government standards. Within those subsections, states were discussed individually, presenting specific findings from the iterations of the standards. The following chapter will provide a discussion on the findings.

Chapter 5 - Discussion

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to complete a comprehensive, critical discourse and textual analysis of the Social Studies curricular landscape in the Deep South and the changes that have occurred since the rise of standardization and accountability - most notably, since the passage of No Child Left Behind (NCLB) in 2001. Focused on five states in the Deep South, this study examined standards and legislation in Alabama (AL), South Carolina (SC), Georgia (GA), Mississippi (MS), and Louisiana (LA). Specifically, the following research questions guided this study:

1. How has the Social Studies curricular landscape evolved in the United States Deep South since 2001?
 - a. How have Social Studies standards evolved in the United States Deep South since the rise of standardization and accountability?
 - b. How has the educational legislative landscape shaped Social Studies education in the United States Deep South since the rise of standardization and accountability?

This chapter is to situate the findings presented in Chapter 4 within relevant literature. This chapter is divided into four sections. The first section, “Racism, Whiteness, and the ‘Other’”, is focused upon the narrative that the standards and the legislative landscape created and entrench the history of, and oriented around, white men. This section begins by discussing how the standards (don’t) teach about enslavement, the attainment of Civil Rights, women, or Indigenous populations. The second section, “The Concept of ‘American’,” outlines how the standards and legislative landscape continue to socialize students and promote an American identity through (1) the use of a singular “society;” (2) language surrounding immigration that promotes nativism;

and (3) the promotion of American Exceptionalism. The third section, “An Emphasis on Capitalism,” highlights the commodification of humans across the standards and legislative landscape, the framing of people as consumers and economic contributors, and the enduring capitalist orientation across the standards and legislative landscape. The final section, “The Prevalence of Religion,” discusses how the states of the Deep South amplify their Bible Belt context by fusing religious ideas in both legislation and in the standards themselves. Throughout, literature is used to situate the findings. Apple (2019) conceptualizes curriculum as a multifaceted concept that includes both overt and hidden knowledge. This perspective is used throughout this discussion as a way to analyze the legitimization of knowledge and how those in power seek to control the official knowledge that is represented in state educational standards.

Racism, Whiteness, and The Other

The standards across the Deep South over the last twenty-five years convey a message focused upon white men throughout history. An early example of this is in Standard 8 of US History II in the 1998 Alabama (AL) standards. This standard provides a list of topics and issues from the 1920s and 1930s - and yet every single list item is focused upon the white men in power. The Red Scare: how white men were afraid of communism. The Sacco and Vanzetti case: how white men used anti-Italian and anti-immigrant sentiment to convict and kill two men who may not have done the crime. KKK activities: how white men killed, intimidated, and discriminated against the black population. Black migration to northern cities: how white men made life so unbearable in the South that they had to move. Racial violence: how white men destroyed black lives for the sake of racism. Immigration laws of 1920s: how the white men in government restricted any non-white population from entering the country. All of these are examples of how white men impacted others - showcasing the narrative that U.S. History is truly

a history of white men and everyone else has a “role” to play within existing structures and systems, no matter how unjust or inequitable.

This narrative is what is legitimized for students to know throughout the standards, through the verbiage used and the avoidance of the region’s fraught past (Ward, 2007). There is a common sentiment that a “return” is needed – a romanticizing of the past that influences conservative values (Apple, 2006). The glorification of the past and the verbiage of the narrative allows for passive language throughout the standards to be used, creating a focus on the white men in charge, rather than the minority groups that they controlled and discriminated against. This focus upon the history of white men allows the standards to obscure, ignore, avoid, and minimize the histories of minority populations in the United States and allows students to leave the K-12 education system with an incomplete historical knowledge of the United States. Schools, while they could be the “great equalizers,” continue to (re)produce inequality through the standards used (Duncan, 2009). The following sections discuss how the standards minimize and avoid topics related to how the standards address enslavement, the topic of Civil Rights, women, and indigenous populations.

[Not] Teaching Enslavement

The easiest way that states have avoided teaching about enslavement is through their selection of years to cover in the U.S. History course. Table 6 found in Appendix I highlights what years are covered in the respective U.S. History courses by states. By not including the years where enslavement was happening in the United States, it allows for a complete avoidance of the topic as seen in several iterations across the states. Mississippi, for example, in every iteration of its standards has not included history prior to 1877. This creates a gap in students’ knowledge, which can also result in a misunderstanding of certain aspects of U.S. History.

Louisiana also, historically, has avoided including the early years of U.S. History in its standards - with only the most recent standards in 2022 addressing the topic of enslavement.

In addition to not including the years where enslavement was a crucial part of U.S. History – but omitted from required standards - states practiced avoidance by not including vocabulary related to the topic of enslavement. Table 7 found in Appendix I. addresses how often vocabulary related to enslavement and the abolition movement can (not) be found in the various standard iterations. By not using language that identifies enslavement, the standards effectively erase the enslaved population from the discussion and instead centers instruction around the white population and their exploitation of the enslaved population. This superficial inclusion and failure to include the systemic issues enslavement created is not limited to just the Deep South (Anderson & Metzger, 2011), but is a common characteristic across all five states. There are several instances across the standards where verbiage is used that references enslavement, without actually naming the practice. For example, the use of “agriculture in the South” (referenced in the 2005 SC standards) re-centers the focus on the economic impact of plantations, rather than the enslaved population that was doing the work. Similarly, the 2019 SC standards refer to both the “plantation economy” and “cotton industry” without ever using any iteration of the word enslavement. South Carolina is one of the states that requires Black history in Social Studies courses - and yet the standards do not actually address Black history. In fact, the law regarding Black history has a concerning phrase - referring to the instruction as “the history of the black people...”. This section also clarifies that a connection between the South Carolina economy, agriculture, and the history of Black people exist - helping to create a narrative focused upon the economic side of slavery instead of the human impact. Louisiana requires the teaching of Black history, and yet historical iterations of the standards in Louisiana

do not include the years of enslavement, thereby avoiding an accurate teaching of Black history. All iterations of the standards in Georgia reference the “Middle Passage” but never use vocabulary related to enslavement. The minimization and erasure of those forced into slavery and subjected to horrible conditions along the Middle Passage only continues misconceptions about the realities of slavery and the damage that it has caused in the country as a whole and within the state. It is difficult to emphasize how concerning this indicator is, especially since this has been the perspective of the Georgia standards for the last twenty years.

States across the Deep South also use their standards to minimize the role of enslavement in the conflict that is known as the Civil War - reducing the importance of ending the horrendous practice of enslavement. Georgia, Alabama, and South Carolina showcase this in their standards. Both in the 2005 and 2016 standards, Georgia does not include enslavement as an issue of the Civil War. In fact, the 2005 standards do not name slavery as an issue of the war, nor do they mention secession or the Confederate States of America (CSA). The indicators completely gloss over the reality of the war - instead highlighting common topics and only asking students to describe or explain those topics instead of critically thinking about what happened and the significance of the war. Since this also continued into the 2016 standards, this erasure of enslavement as a crucial part of the Civil War is concerning, especially since these are the current standards that students are being taught. This adds to the commemoration of the Civil War Era and the Confederacy seen in monuments across the Deep South (O’Connell, 2020). Both the physical landscape and the educational landscape honor and commemorate the Confederacy, rather than the fight to end enslavement. The first iteration of the Alabama standards has a similar perspective as the Georgia standards. Enslavement is not once named as a cause of sectionalism - instead the list of examples begins with Manifest Destiny. The remainder

of the list includes the actions taken to “deal” with the issue of enslavement, but enslavement itself is removed from the issue. Alabama also has the “Stonewall Jackson Memorial Fund” that offers a “scholarship” to students. This “memorialization” of a Confederate General pushes a narrative that glorifies the Confederacy, and does not acknowledge the moral wrong that was committed prior and during the Civil War in regard to slavery. This scholarship, combined with the significant number of Confederate memorials in the state (O’Connell, 2020) continues the focus on the white population related to the Civil War, and not the enslaved population who were fighting for freedom. The current SC standards minimize the conflict to a “disagreement” about “natural rights” (enslavement) and “federalism” (secession). This is an erasure of history and a clear attempt to manipulate students into believing the Civil War was not all that bad. The standards related to the end of the war are similar in their avoidance of the impact of enslavement. By discussing the “defeat” of the Confederacy the language removes any inclination that the Confederacy was wrong and should have lost. This continuation of the “Lost Cause myth” (Maurantonio, 2019; Seger, 2022) minimizes it to just being another conflict, not one fought over the enslavement of an entire population. In fact, only eight percent of high school seniors would identify enslavement as the core cause of the Civil War in a 2017 study (Shuster, 2018). This minimization language can also be seen in an attempt to avoid “difficult” topics or not outright name racism in U.S. History.

The states of the Deep South also avoid teaching the topic of enslavement by removing the issue of morality from the discussion, and instead referring to it as an economic or political issue. Every state that covers the time period where enslavement was an institution in the country has standards that minimize enslavement to a political or economic issue. The 2011 SC standards, the 2005 GA standards, and every iteration of the AL standards use this perspective.

By only focusing on economics, it removes any humanity of enslaved people and avoids addressing enslavement as the horrifying, dehumanizing institution that it was. This only adds to the sinister aspect of these standards and their corresponding indicators. A specific example is GA.SSUSH2 which highlights the economy and society of British North America. The indicators begin with economics (mercantilism), slide in enslavement under the guise of the “growth of the African population”, and end with society (social mobility and the Great Awakening). The issue of enslavement and the racism that allowed it to happen are not given their proper importance and instead are hiding within aspects of white history. This leads to students not understanding the impact of enslavement. Research conducted by the Southern Poverty Law Center in 2017 proved that students are not getting taught the realities of enslavement or the fight to end the institution (Shuster, 2018). Their research showed that 68% of students didn’t know that it took a constitutional amendment to end enslavement – and that the fifteen states whose standards were analyzed failed to address how enslavement occurred because of white supremacy or its role in the justification of enslavement throughout its many years. The standards of the Deep South fail to acknowledge the impact of enslavement – and if they do, it still is only focusing on the white leaders at the time. The passive language used in the standards allows for the focus to be on the (white) colonists rather than the Africans that were enslaved and forced to labor, and removes the responsibility from the colonists for creating such a horrible institution. The standards use language to make it almost an aspect of trade, rather than the subjugation of an entire race. The relegation of the horrific institution of slavery to just a piece of “economic nationalism,” creates a narrative that the plantation economy was just like the factory system that employed people.

Even the abolition movement to end enslavement is not truly discussed throughout the standards. One example of this was in the 2011 SC standards, when the abolition movement is mentioned in the indicator (as a “social reform movement”) - but there is not a clear connection between the realities of slavery and the need for abolition. Georgia’s 2005 standards mention enslavement as an “issue” facing the government. This minimization of enslavement to just another “issue” facing the government is an example of how the standards continued to “hide” the truth of history and avoid “difficult” topics. It is also not just the standards – the books being used in classroom support this focus on the positives of history and avoiding “difficult” topics (Bickford & Rich, 2014). The use of literature in the classroom that supports misconceptions regarding enslavement and enslaved people in conjunction with standards that treat enslavement and abolition with an economic or political focus allows for the entire system to be avoided or minimized to the point of misrepresentation. Abolition is mentioned throughout the standards as a “reform movement,” but typically is only included in a list instead of being given individual importance. In one state, the list of reform movements begins with temperance, and ends with public education - reducing abolition’s importance and value. This is seen in multiple places throughout the standards, tucking an issue into a list to minimize its importance and “hide” it among other topics that are more “acceptable.” Alabama’s current standards (2010) use the topic of abolition to minimize enslavement. In standards that reference the end of enslavement, the focus is on the abolition of enslavement, not on enslavement itself. This failure to acknowledge the moral wrong of enslavement is consistent with both previous iterations of the standards in Alabama and in other states and allows for misconceptions to continue.

More recent standards have made some progress in the discussion of enslavement and show that change can occur. The proposed standards in Alabama are the first time in Alabama

that enslaved people are mentioned not in reference to white men, nor just as an “economic” portion of society. The two indicators (8a and 8b of US History I) make tremendous progress in helping students understand the true horrors of chattel slavery and addressing the realities of history. Similarly, the 2022 Louisiana standards more accurately address the realities of enslavement. Indicator US.9.b creates a perspective that helps to bring humanity to the discussion surrounding the atrocities of slavery, especially with it being placed before the indicators regarding the economics of enslavement. One challenge with these proposed standards is that historically, standards that deviate from “traditional” history are not accepted (Chapin, 1995). People in the Deep South are scared of “revisionist history” and have actively worked to prohibit Social Studies standards from including history from a more modern perspective. The “Lost Cause” myth plays a part of this (Maurantonio, 2019), and with the “Southern” pride that exists in the region (Seger, 2022), those in control do not want to acknowledge the wrongdoings of the past and therefore lose the status quo. However, there are those in the legislatures of the states in the Deep South that are working to adjust this. There have been bills across the states proposed to address this issue of misinformation regarding Black history. Bills proposed in Alabama would have allowed for a more accurate teaching of history in the schools, and yet the laws remain a support for a “traditional” approach to history. Louisiana over the years has tried to make sure that different races are represented in the schools and in instructional materials (2011), has tried to prohibit the limiting of the teaching of Black history (2022), and has tried to make a more diverse group of historical figures required for students to know (2022). A 2021 bill proposed in Georgia would have students learning about the “enslavement experience” - marking the first bill, law, or standard that uses the correct term for enslavement, as opposed to “slavery.” These attempts at making sure history is taught correctly in schools and in a robust way helps to

dispel the “Lost Cause” myth that is pervasive and that is a part of the desire for a “traditional” history taught in the states.

Enslavement is an ugly part of the history of the Deep South - but that does not mean that it should not be taught. Throughout time, what knowledge has been deemed “correct” has changed (Ward, 2007), and yet the conservative-dominant Deep South does not seem to be willing to adjust to this change and properly teach students about the history of the region. While classroom teachers may be including it in their lessons and curricula, the fact that the official state documents of what students are supposed to know by the time they leave this course does not even deign to mention it is a concerning fact. The clear omission and avoidance set a narrative and a precedent that allows for an inaccurate teaching of history within the classrooms of the Deep South.

Civil Rights

The topic of civil rights is a complicated one in the Deep South. Part of this complication is in regard to the African American Civil Rights Movement and how it is (not) discussed in the standards. Even when it is discussed, the movement is often discussed through the lens of the white population/government, rather than the individuals of the movement and what they achieved. Additionally, other movements for Civil Rights are either not mentioned or minimized through a variety of measures. While some Government standards address the topic of civil rights, it is often not an adequate representation of the realities of the fight and necessity of equal rights.

The African American Civil Rights Movement is not named in every iteration of the standards, and in many iterations, it has been minimized or hidden within standards. Table 8 in Appendix I address how often the Civil Rights Movement is addressed in the various iterations

of the standards. While it is officially named in the 2005 SC standards, it is only named when discussing its influence on “other groups seeking ethnic and gender equity.” There are no specifics, which allows for classroom instruction to be broad and vague as well. Similarly, both the 1998 and 2011 LA standards minimize the Civil Rights Movement to a single indicator. By giving the entirety of the Civil Rights Movement the same weight in the indicators as Watergate (1998) and the end of the Cold War (2011), this avoidance is a disservice to all Americans - but specifically Black Americans. This indicator allows for the erasure of the struggle for equality and the diversity found within the Civil Rights Movement. Students are not being taught the realities of the importance of the Civil Rights Movement, and what actually happened across the country (Shuster, 2011). All of the standards do not use the terms “racism” and “discrimination” - instead, there is a surface level overview of the movement that does not actually address why the movement was needed in the first place. Phrases such as “issues that gave rise” and “expanding democracy” neglect to help students understand why democracy was so limited in the first place or what the issues were. Several standard iterations focus on the “contributions” of people/groups, and decrease the equality gained to “increased political power” as an “accomplishment” of the movement. Nowhere is mentioned in these indicators the pushback against the movement - choosing to ignore the realities of the movement to highlight the “positive” aspects of the movement. Even with being the only state that legally requires education regarding Civil Rights, the standards in Mississippi still do not create an accurate picture of the Civil Rights Movement to students. In fact, the Deep South (in 2011) comparatively taught about the Civil Rights Movement more than other states in the country (Shuster, 2011), yet still could not score over a 70% on the rubric used to evaluate content within related standards. The movement is also hidden in places by breaking up the movement across

indicators (and even whole standards). For example, the 2005 GA standards do not include the organizations of the Civil Rights Movement in the standard regarding the Civil Rights Movement, but instead they are tucked into Standard SS.US.H24 regarding the impact of social change movements in the 1960s. This breakup of a topic can seem as though it allows for more discussion of the topic, but instead allows for it to be “hidden” and minimized throughout the unit. The avoidance of the Civil Rights Movement and its realities results in students not having a true understanding of both the importance of the movement and its impact on the country.

When the African American Civil Rights Movement has been included in the iterations of the standards, it often has been discussed from the perspective of the white population. For example, the 2000 SC standards include phrasing regarding the “extension” of civil liberties. This creates a tone of condescension and privilege. Rights were “extended” - not that they were given back after having been stolen and withheld. Also, the phrase “expansion of opportunities” creates almost a positive tone for what the federal government did, instead of acknowledging that those opportunities should never have been taken in the first place, as found in the 2005 GA standards. The 2016 GA standards continued this language, with language used throughout regarding rights that puts all responsibility on the minority group to “achieve” those rights, rather than acknowledging that those rights were kept from them by the white men in power. A 2022 proposed bill in Georgia would have changed this, calling for more Civil Rights education, since Georgia is the “Mecca” for Civil Rights. However, this bill did not pass - allowing for the language of the 2016 standards to stand in the 2023 iteration. Even in the discussion regarding what students are expected to know about the movement, the actions of white individuals in power are emphasized, while the racist actions of white men against those working for equal rights is ignored. The 2005 GA standards highlight this again by having the first indicator refer

to the actions of President Truman integrating the military and government. This focus on the actions of a white man in regard to the discrimination against an entire race adds to a narrative of “white savior” that is not changed by any following indicator. Similarly, the 2018 MS standards begin with the actions of the (white) federal government. This helps to continue the narrative that the history of white men matters most - that the Civil Rights Movement was just another part of history that had to be handled, rather than the fight for equality that it was by an entire portion of the population that had been deemed “lesser than” for the country’s history. Another aspect of this is in the task verb language used by the indicators. An example of this can be found in the 2005 GA standards, where students explain the importance of President Truman’s actions but only identify the impact of Jackie Robinson and the integration of baseball. There is a clear emphasis on the first, which leads to an understanding of importance. Even with GA law requiring that instructional materials cannot be partisan in nature, the standards continue to push a partisan perspective. The 2004 AL standards showcase this as well, by focusing upon the federal government and its involvement - completely erasing the fact that it was part of the problem as well. Additionally, in the 2004 AL standards, the only people included in the list of people in both indicator two and three were advocates for nonviolence. While there is technically an acknowledgement of the violent side of movement in the last indicator, the second and third indicators only highlight those individuals that would support the government’s preference for nonviolent measures. Similarly, by wording the second to last indicator as “a” Black Power movement, it minimizes the perspective of those involved with the Black Power movement, specifically the Black Panthers. It sets those willing to use violence to achieve equality as “other.” Nowhere in any iteration of the standards is a discussion of what racist white individuals were doing during the time period to stop the Civil Rights Movement included, nor do they

address the moral aspect of providing equality and ending discrimination. Therefore, while the standards do address the movement and provide students information about the push for equality that happened with the Civil Rights Movement, students are getting a sanitized version that does not challenge them to think about the realities of either the need for the movement or the events of the movement itself. However, change can occur. In the proposed 2026 AL standards, there is a major narrative shift from previous iterations - it mentions the activists first, and then goes into how the federal government responded. These indicators more accurately reflect the nuances of the Civil Rights Movement, and address those who were a part of the movement, rather than just how the federal government “fixed” things. Even in the current standards, recent adoptions have addressed this issue. The 2022 LA standards put the federal government last, which allows for a focus on the individuals who pushed the movement forward as well as the events that changed the country. In general, students in the Deep South have, and are, being taught about the Civil Rights Movement from the perspective of the white population. They are not being taught about the nuances of the movement, or the importance of the movement to the country’s population - rather than a select minority group.

Movements other than the African American Civil Rights Movement are not always mentioned in the standards, or the standards only list a limited selection of movements for equal rights. When only certain groups are mentioned or are simply listed as “other” groups, it minimizes their own work and fight for equality. For example, the 2011 SC standards market the Civil Rights Movement as the largest and “most important” movement that influenced other groups. Similarly, the 2011 MS standards minimize all other minority groups by truly only discussing their rights for movements in connection with the Civil Rights Movement, rather than independently. While the standard mentions specific minority groups, they are not named within

the indicators and instead are relegated to “other” groups. This is also seen in the 2019 SC standards, which relegates all of the movements for equal rights (including, but not limited to: The Civil Rights Movement, Women’s Liberation Movement, the Red Power Movement, the Latinx and Farm Labor Protections Movement, and the movement for LGBTQIA+ rights) to a single indicator. This creates a focus on a “thematic” look into continuities and changes and is a clear example of minimization and erasure. The 2018 MS standards only name three movements - which allows for the other movements for equality at the time to not be addressed. For the conservative-dominant Deep South, it would seem as though they would want students to be informed about their rights since a part of the conservative movement is about individual rights and freedoms (Philips-Fein, 2011). And yet, any movement that does not align with the conservative movement is left out of the standards - the power in charge uses their subjectivity to sway public knowledge and action towards what they consider “true” and “valuable” (Van Kessel & Crowley, 2017). This results in certain movements not being included, to maintain the conservative status quo. However, more recent adoptions have made a change in regard to other movements for equality. The 2026 AL standards show a more inclusive perspective and a willingness to teach multiple perspectives on history with the inclusion of the American Indian Movement, Chicano Freedom Movement, the Disability Rights Movement, and Second-Wave feminism. Overall, students across the Deep South have not officially been taught about the movements for equal rights beyond the African American Civil Rights Movement. Instead, the other calls for equal rights have been ignored by the standards, resulting in a limited perspective of how the rights that students possess have been fought for throughout history.

While the U.S. History standards do include the time period of movements for equal rights, the representation of the fight for equal rights in the Government standards is also

interesting because it provides a different perspective. The 2019 SC standards provide a perspective that the fight for the right to vote is one that can be taken lightly. By referencing the fight for rights using the verbiage of the “marginalized,” it allows for the specific population subgroups to remain unnamed, invisible, and indistinguishable. It is easier to ignore “marginalized groups” than if specific subgroups of the population were named. Similarly, the 2011 LA standards remove the hard-won fights that groups have gone through to be given the rights that were kept from them. It also treats rights as something that changes over time, minimizing the idea of unalienable rights that is found throughout the founding documents of the nation. The use of the phrase “diverse group of citizens” also minimizes the populations it “represents” by not naming them and allowing teachers and schools the discretion to discuss certain groups (and not others). Similarly, the 2005 GA standards make the right to vote seem like a gift that has been given by the federal government to different groups throughout history - when the reality is the exact opposite. The groups that had to fight for the right to vote when it was kept from them are not mentioned, and this indicator sparks no critical thought into the history behind the amendments, but instead allows for a light coverage of the amendments themselves so that students can “identify” the right to vote. The 2026 AL standards also have this perspective of “extending” rights. This phrase creates a connotation of something being offered - when in the reality of voting rights as discussed in Indicator 3b - those rights are inherent and should never have been kept back in the first place. The government standards across the states have not addressed how rights have changed over time through movements for equal rights - instead crediting the federal government with giving rights (particularly suffrage) to citizens of the country.

Women

Women, as a division of the country's population, are either ignored throughout the iterations of the standards or are minimized to a "role" in the history of the country. This strips them of their autonomy and individual identity, and creates the idea that this "role" is a singular occurrence rather than an enduring contribution and presence. Table 9, in Appendix I, contains the inclusions of women across the standards. Additionally, Table 10 in Appendix I provides a list of all women explicitly named across the standards and indicators. Women are not the only minority group that the standards treat this way, but it is almost the only way that women are referenced. There are even misspellings of women's names in both Louisiana and Mississippi standards. The focus on the history of men maintains the status quo and traditional gender roles that conservatives uphold (Gross, et. al., 2011; Philips-Fein, 2011). Since curriculum legitimizes the continued social order (Apple, 2019), standards that minimize the impact of women and highlight the history of men are preferred in the conservative areas. The standards also use the broad term of "women" to often only mean white women, and even white women of a particular economic or social standing.

When discussing the "role" of women, the standards often only discuss women in regard to the idea of a "contribution" to the larger history of white men. As seen in the 2000 SC standards, the focus is not on women and their value as members of society, but instead the focus is on their "role" in the traditional narrative of history, and how it changed politically. The focus is on politics and the government - not on the people involved. Similarly, the 2005 GA standards only discuss women in regard to their "role" in reform movements for others. Nowhere in the standards is a woman mentioned to address her own history or even the history of "women" generally - it is all in reference to reforms. This perspective is found across the nation (Patrick,

2017). Another example from GA is in the 2016 standards where the National Organization of Women is only mentioned after the creation of the EPA, and then followed by Watergate, Nixon's resignation, and Ford's pardon - so there is technically a reference, but it is not a true recognition of women in history. The 2010 AL standards also reduce women to their "role" - minimizing women to how they can serve (white) men. Similarly, the 2018 MS standards use the "role of women" as a single example of social transition. The standards also relegate women to a role (specifically a role within the "family structure"), which minimizes their experiences and fails to acknowledge the diversity of the population of "women."

The standards use the term "women" instead of the larger phrase "white women" to minimize and erase women of other ethnicities, or to force women to choose between their identity as a woman or a part of their ethnic group. This is common in state standards across the nation (Moore-Hubbard, 2024). Specifically, in the Deep South, an example can be found in the 2019 SC standards which discuss World War 2 and the "role" of women - which typically brings to mind the picture of Rosie the Riveter and the pictures of white women working in factories. Similarly, when discussing the Women's Rights Movement, that was not an inclusive time - the push for women's rights extended to white women. The 2004 AL standards provide yet another example of this, in the four uses of "women" across both U.S. History I and II. All of the mentions only apply to white women - not all women. When analyzed in 2017, 63% of women named in the standards across the nation were white women (Patrick, 2017). This minimization reiterates to students that the "correct" perspective on history is from a white perspective and is a problem because it lumps all women together into one category, forcing women of color to choose between their race and their gender.

The standards also put the responsibility for gaining rights on the women themselves, rather than acknowledging the government's role in keeping women from having rights. The 2005 SC standards showcase this, when discussing (white) women and their "attainment" of voting rights. Most mentions of women in standards across the country are related to activists (Patrick, 2017) which is seen still through the current standards of the Deep South. This language makes it seem as though it was the responsibility of women to gain suffrage, not that it was deliberately being kept from them. The 2005 Georgia standards have similar verbiage, in regard to women's suffrage. Suffrage in this context would have only applied to white women, and it helps to add to the narrative that it is the responsibility of those without suffrage to "gain" it themselves - not the truth that it was being held from them by those in power.

Throughout the standards women are treated as singular "contributors" to the overarching history of white men. The proposed 2026 AL standards do make some changes in this perspective, by creating a standard with a high DOK level regarding those seeking expanded opportunities for women. Now, the phrasing in the standard uses "women" when it should address "white women" and it makes it seem as though women only got the right to vote because they were involved with World War I, but this is an improvement from previous standards where women were not really discussed or were solely discussed in reference to their "role" and rights were not included. For standards that will be updated in the (near) future, hopefully they can reflect a similar change that will highlight women as a vital part of the population that does not exist just to serve (white) men.

Indigenous Populations

The Social Studies standards of the Deep South erase Indigenous peoples from the study of U.S. History. This erasure is primarily done through a lack of inclusion or by using a narrative

that centers on the actions of the white government (Shear, et. al., 2015). Not a single set of standards addresses the Indigenous populations in North America as independent cultures separate from the (white) population of the United States. This binary approach to the teaching of Indigenous populations (the (white) government and the Indigenous tribes) allows for “bad apples” to be discussed without addressing the larger systemic problems that allowed for the mistreatment and discrimination against Indigenous populations (Van Kessel & Crowley, 2017). The current Georgia standards still refer to Indigenous populations as “American Indians” - continuing a discriminatory attitude towards Indigenous populations. Table 11 in Appendix I references how often Indigenous populations are mentioned in each iteration of the standards. Similar to how discussions regarding the enslaved population is avoided in some states by adjusting the years covered in U.S. History, those same states avoid the discussion of the Indigenous populations. Other mentions of the Indigenous populations are only from the perspective of the (white) government and settlers, minimizing the experiences of the Indigenous populations.

While not found in every iteration of the standards, there is an erasure through avoidance that occurs in regard to the Indigenous population in some standards. This avoidance of the Indigenous populations is done through not including or naming the Indigenous populations, who are instead relegated to corresponding lists of examples or the explanations of the indicators. When including Indigenous peoples, the standards across the nation mostly refer to them in the time period pre-1900 (Shear, et. al., 2015). This is seen in the standards of the Deep South as well, with the only mention of Indigenous populations after 1900 occurring in indicators related to movements for rights around the time of the African American Civil Rights Movement. For example, the 2019 SC standards never mention Indigenous populations in the

indicators, just in the explanations. While it is technically added, by only including it in the explanation there is a loophole for it to not be included in classroom instruction. Additionally, the phrasing of the explanations put an emphasis on the economic aspect instead of the people of the west and the impact that the settling of the west had on them. It almost adds the diverse populations of the west as an afterthought. Also, the lists of examples are in interesting orders. Typically, lists are either alphabetical or in a list of importance. These lists are not alphabetical, which therefore creates a sense of importance. Therefore, the placement within the list signifies how important a list item is - and with Indigenous people seemingly down the list, it reduces the expected importance given to them. The 2005 GA standards mention westward growth, but the Indigenous populations that were killed and displaced by this westward growth are not mentioned at all. Additionally, the 2005 AL standards never mention the Indigenous populations or address how different settlements interacted with the Indigenous tribes. The indicators do cover culture, government, and economics, but not Indigenous tribes. It is concerning that iterations of the standards completely erase Indigenous populations (Uyeda, 2022). The idea that an entire portion of the population - the original people of the land - is not officially acknowledged or addressed leaves a gap in student knowledge that damages their perception of the world and the country. While not all standards completely erase the Indigenous peoples of North America, even when they are discussed it is not with their own agency.

More commonly, the standards erase the Indigenous population by creating a narrative that does not include the Indigenous population. That narrative could be one of an economic focus or a focus on the government - in either instance, the Indigenous people are not discussed with autonomy, but instead only as a “piece” of the larger narrative of white history. For example, the 2011 SC standards emphasize the national market as more important than the

Indigenous peoples, and create a focus upon the impact of the railroad on the culture of Indigenous peoples rather than on the physical harm that the government and railroad did. Similarly, the 2019 SC standards add the issue related to the government taking Indigenous land to an economic indicator, and then does not actually address Indigenous land or how they were treated in the “significant developments” - which is a clear avoidance of the topic. Similarly, the 2005 GA standards reference the transcontinental railroad - but Indigenous populations are not discussed at all in the indicators regarding the building of the railroads - instead the indicators focus on the economics of the railroads and the capitalist benefits that accompanied them. This focus on an economic or political narrative helps to erase the Indigenous populations from the teaching of U.S. History, and is present when Indigenous populations are explicitly referenced in the standards.

When Indigenous populations are actually referenced in the standards, it is only done so through the perspective of the (white) government and/or settlers. This issue is seen in every set of current Social Studies standards in the nation (Shear, et. al., 2015). Every single iteration of the standards only refers to Indigenous peoples in relation to actions of the (white) settlers and government. Specifically, in the 2019 SC standards, one indicator explanation mentions the Indian Removal Act, but still does not actually name Indigenous peoples - the focus is instead on how the federal government “protects” natural rights. The 2016 GA standards similarly only mention Indigenous peoples two times, and both are only done in relation to the actions of white men. These standards also reference Indigenous resistance and the “consequences” of the resistance - a word typically used in a negative connotation in regard to wrongdoing. This narrative that the Indigenous population was “wrong” to resist westward expansion provides students with a warped perspective on the Indigenous population of America. The current

Alabama standards (2010) removes the autonomy from Indigenous populations, and instead reduces them to a group impacted by the actions of Jackson - and even then, the corresponding standard does not encourage students to look into the impact of the Indian Removal Act on the Indigenous people, but instead to look at its impact on “political participation, political parties, and constitutional government. The 2022 MS standards mention the Dawes Act, but this mention is not focused on the Indigenous populations impacted by the act, but instead on the act itself and what the (white) government did. By only teaching students about the Indigenous populations in reference to the actions taken by the (white) government it creates a perspective that the individual history of the Indigenous population is not valuable (Shear, et. al., 2015). Even the proposed Alabama standards (2026) still begin with the actions of white men, and only discusses the actions of Indigenous populations in reference to those actions. It is more inclusive than previous standards, but Indigenous populations are still only discussed in reference to the actions of the (white) government. This can also be seen through how the legislatures have not changed the laws in regard to the naming of major infrastructure, schools, or teams. A proposed bill in Georgia would have removed names that use (mock) Indigenous culture - calling those names a “barrier to equality.” However, it not only did not pass, but other states have not chosen to address this issue either (Uyeda, 2022). This lack of acknowledgement of Indigenous populations and their cultures in both the standards and the actions of the legislature is concerning because it keeps systems of inequality and discrimination in place.

The Concept of “American”

There is no singular definition of “American” and yet the standards of the Deep South attempt to create a narrow “American” identity for students to enact and embody. By using the idea of a “national identity,” the standards continue teaching history from a white man’s

perspective. When used throughout the standards, phrases such as “American life” and “American culture” are really referencing the culture/identity of the rich white men of the time. This attempt to create a singular “American identity” that is based upon the white society at the time erases minority populations from history and fails to allow students to understand the diversity of American history. There are many laws across all the states of the Deep South that require patriotic expressions or symbols in schools. While not a new concept - patriotism and “Americanization” were heavily emphasized in the postwar period of the 1950s (Field & Burlbaw, 1995) - the standards over the last twenty-five years have not changed the verbiage used to include the vast diversity of the American people. The following sections discuss how the use of “society” contributes to a misunderstanding of America’s past, along with how the approach in the standards to immigration (both past and present) and nativism impacts student understanding of the country’s reliance on immigrants. The final section discusses American Exceptionalism and the narrative that the students create to ignore critical thought regarding the American government and instead bolster the national identity.

The Use of “Society”

Every single iteration of the standards uses vocabulary to create the fictional idea of “society” and how it has changed throughout U.S. History. Nowhere is this concept of society defined, and instead it is used to continue a narrative that focuses on the (white) population that is/was in control at the time. The use of “society” or other unifying vocabulary creates an idealistic and impossible perspective on history that erases all diversity. Classrooms legitimize social structures (Apple, 2019) and therefore this erasure of diversity in the standards used in the classroom is legitimized as acceptable. In a country as diverse in its population and history as the U.S., there is no one “society” or definition of “American” that can represent the entire country -

thereby limiting the perspective of history education to that of the dominant group. This results in a whitewashed history being taught as the official documents refer to a (white) society that does not actually exist. This legitimization of a white society that all students should identify with/desire to be a part of would have been challenged with the original attempts at national standards that prioritized critical thought (Symcox, 2002) - which is partially why the conservative-dominant states of the Deep South rejected the standards and implemented their own standards that value the status quo. This use of “society” and similar language attempts to create a narrative that is focused on white history - minimizing all others. This narrative is not only seen in the U.S. History standards, but also through the Government standards.

Throughout the U.S. History standards, vocabulary and phrases are used to create a singular identity that erases the vibrant cultural diversity across the United States that exists because of its diverse population. By using phrases like “everyday life,” the standards create an idea that there was one experience for the entire population and erases any subgroup of the population that did not experience that same perspective. Other phrases used across the iterations include “American identity,” “American culture,” “American family,” and “national identity,” which results in an attempt to project one perspective of history for students to adopt and embody. The use of these phrases seems to represent the white, upper-class society at the time under study, which attempts at normalizing one experience for all students to try and identify with, thereby erasing any other portion of the population from the discussion and placing an importance on the white experience. Since schools have long been used to make sure that students help with the improvement of “society” (Jones, 1913), this emphasis on white society that all students should be identifying with is a problematic continuation of systems put in place that discriminated against portions of the population. Schools, and particularly Social Studies,

are used as a way for students to understand their communities and culture (Burroughs, et. al., 2005) and therefore when the narrative of Social Studies is focused upon a singular, national culture and identity rather than the local, diverse culture or identity, students are provided a limited perspective. Using the unifying vocabulary creates a simplistic view of history that removes the nuances of individual groups within history. This then leads to the conception that minority populations have “impacted” society, rather than being a part of society.

The Government standards similarly create a singular identity for students to identify with that removes the vast diversity across the country. Not only are broader terms such as “American society” used, but several iterations of the standards refer to a “civil society.” For example, the 2005 SC standards use “civil society” four times in a single indicator - suggesting importance, and yet the term is never actually defined. When the standards use the phrase “American society,” it once again creates a unified approach to history, and removes the voices of those who were not a part of the majority. This reality where perspectives are written and communicated as normalized, valued, and true impacts students as they consider their places in the world after the K-12 education system (Dunn & Neumann, 2016). Since this idea is found in both the U.S. History and Government standards, it emphasizes how important the states view this idea of a unified “American society.”

Immigration and Nativism

The United States is a country built on immigration. From the colonists from England that set up the thirteen colonies that eventually declared independence to current immigrants, the United States is a diverse country that relies, both past and present, on immigration. Table 11 in Appendix I highlights the inclusion of immigrants throughout the iterations of the standards. Despite the impact that immigration has had on the country, the standards in the Deep South

mostly ignore the topic of immigration. When it is included, they either minimize the impact through discursive obscurity or by removing any discussion of nativist feelings and the racism that accompanied discrimination against immigrants - which both create a skewed perspective on immigration in the U.S.

In many cases where immigration or immigrants are mentioned in the standards, it is obscured in a list or minimized in its scope in order to avoid the topic. For example, the 2011 MS standards include immigrant workers in a list that focuses on how American society has been impacted by their entry into the labor force. The other two named groups of this list include “women” and “minorities” - highlighting the relegation of each of these groups to a “contributing” status to history, rather than participants. Similarly, the verbiage used in discussing immigrants can contribute to a minimization of specific immigrant groups. For example, the 2005 GA standards discuss European immigrants (aka, white immigrants) as having an impact on urban America - while Asian immigrants are discussed in terms of “anti-Asian immigration sentiment.” One is more positive, the other focuses on the negatives. This dichotomy continues the conservative narrative regarding immigration and lets the standards ignore nativist beliefs throughout U.S. History. Another example is in the current LA standards (2022) that refers to the “immigrant experience.” There was no singular immigration experience - and by using that phrase, it minimizes the diversity of immigrants that arrived in the late nineteenth and early twentieth century. This minimization of diversity is not new - it was one of the driving factors that shut down attempts to have national Social Studies standards (Chapin, 1995). However, in attempting to create a singular experience, the diverse immigrant population of the U.S. is erased, allowing for continued ignorance about immigrants in the country and their unique histories.

While the standards routinely ignore the portion of the population that are immigrants or are related to immigrants, the legislatures across the Deep South find it valuable that students are as knowledgeable about their country as newly naturalized citizens are. The requirement of the naturalization test in a Civics/Government course - and the documentation of a passing score - highlights the fact that legislatures have found it important for students to know what immigrants are required to learn about the country, and yet the standards show that students are not required to actually know what the test is used for. In fact, the states market the test as a “civics test” that just happens to be the exact same test as the naturalization test. This dichotomy of using the naturalization test while actively not including immigrants and the immigrant and naturalization processes in the standards showcases the limited perspective that students are taught.

The avoidance of nativist beliefs allows racism and discrimination throughout U.S. History to be ignored and erased from the standards. For example, the 2000 SC standards address the “immigration patterns” of the late nineteenth century, which allows for the nativist choices made by the U.S. government in regard to immigration quotas or the actions of both Ellis Island and Angel Island to be glossed over or skipped entirely. Similarly, the 2005 GA standards do not name the xenophobia post WWI and instead cloak the truth in language designed to minimize the racism and discrimination of the past. When history is taught in a binary state (in this instance immigrants and citizens), it erases multidimensionality and an understanding that there are systemic issues in place, not just singular reactions or decisions (Van Kessel & Crowley, 2017). The 2016 GA standards continue this by blaming immigrant restrictions post-WWI on communism and socialism fears, rather than the xenophobia and racism that were the true motivators. The 2018 MS standards additionally selectively focus on nativist fears, by addressing the Chinese Exclusion Act but not including the immigration quotas of European nations. The

attack on multiculturalism and a focus on “Western tradition” is in line with conservative beliefs (Apple, 2006). The standards fail to accurately address the importance of immigration throughout U.S. History, and how immigration has been a contentious topic throughout the country’s history. The (lack of) standards regarding immigration shows how the states of the Deep South do not truly want their students to know about the immigrants that made this country, or how the attitudes toward immigrants have changed throughout the years.

American Exceptionalism

American Exceptionalism is defined as, “an idea that the United States of America is a unique and even morally superior country for historical, ideological, or religious reasons” (Volle, 2023, p. 1). Statements made throughout the standards of the Deep South encourage the belief of American Exceptionalism through creating a perspective that highlights actions of the American government that could be considered morally good, while minimizing or erasing actions that could be considered morally bad. This positioning of a particular perspective as more valuable than others is a common occurrence when discussing curriculum and the impact of the people who create it (Apple, 2019). However, for the Deep South to value and position American Exceptionalism as the most valuable perspective, it creates a limited perspective for students as they exit the K-12 education system. Examples of this perspective can be seen throughout the standards, particularly in discussion of how the American government (mis)handled enslavement, indigenous populations, and other minority groups - as already discussed in the previous sections. However, there are other instances where American exceptionalism is blatant in regard to topics not already discussed. Within the standards, there is seen both historical and ideological exceptionalism in order to promote a positive viewpoint of American History to students.

The standards across the Deep South promote historical exceptionalism through a minimization or avoidance of certain topics - topics that would raise questions about the American government and their choices. A crucial example of this that is seen across all iterations of the standards is how each state chooses to (not) address the Vietnam War. Most states across their iterations avoid the war entirely, or obscure it by including it as just one example within a list of topics. The 2004 AL standards, for example, mention the war, but the use of the derogatory “Viet Cong” in the standard allows for the content taught to be discriminatory, and ultimately both the standard and the indicators seek to minimize the horrors of the war. The reduction of a traumatizing, horrific war in American history to a minor “involvement” reduces questions into the U.S. government and allows for the continuation of the American exceptionalism narrative. This is common across the states, with standards either omitting references to the war, simplifying it to an example of a larger concept, or avoid the actions of the federal government entirely (e.g., 2020 AL, 1997 LA, 2005 SC). How the standards approach American Imperialism is another example of historical exceptionalism. The 2005 SC standards use “American expansionism” instead of the more negative word of imperialism, which creates a perspective of American exceptionalism. The current GA standards (2016) reference the “involvement” in Latin America by the U.S. government at the turn of the twentieth century, rather than acknowledging the more sinister aspect of the government interfering in the governments of other countries. This use of American exceptionalism is not only found in recent standards, and is consistent with conservative values (Kiely, 2021). For example, the national standards in the 1980s and 1990s were condemned by conservative talk-show hosts for minimizing the impact of the West (Ravitch, 1998), and now it is seen in conservative-dominant states that over the last twenty-five years, the standards place the United

States at the center of world history. Similarly, the 2011 LA standards fail to acknowledge the morality behind the “imperialistic policies” or even how those territories were “acquired.” The use of “consequences” in regard to what happened to the territories creates a perspective that the territories needed something done to “fix” their problems. The 1997 LA standards simplify other nations to “ideas, actions, and problems.” The standards also do not include “problems” in how the U.S. affects the “rest of the world” - and yet other countries have “problems” that “impact the United States.” These two indicators help to add to the narrative that the U.S. is the “savior” of the world, feeding into the idea of American exceptionalism. This idea of America being the “strongman” of the world fuels the idea of American exceptionalism. Once again, the proposed 2026 AL standards showcase that change can occur in the language of the standards, and that future standards might minimize the American Exceptionalism perspective. The standards reflect a willingness to more accurately discuss the realities of the Vietnam War, and acknowledge both the proxy war conflict and the more difficult aspects of the Vietnam War. The new standards would require a more critical perspective of the historical U.S. Government, allowing for students to have a more accurate view of the history of the United States.

In addition to historical exceptionalism, the standards also promote ideological exceptionalism through highlighting and emphasizing patriotic values or through defining citizenship expectations. This ideological exceptionalism was found in both the U.S. History and Government standards, several standards emphasized anti-communist beliefs, such as the entirety of the additional standard to the 2023 GA standards that was not seen in the 2016 standards. Alabama law requires that any educational materials cannot be made by anyone who advocates for communism or Marxist socialism - highlighting the fear of communism that is prevalent sentiment within the conservative tradition (Phillips-Fein, 2011). Most iterations of the

Government standards create a focus on what citizenship looks like, and how students can be informed and active citizens - leaning into the idea of ideological exceptionalism, as students should only be supportive of the American form of government and citizenship. For example, the 2005 SC standards dedicate an entire standard to the character traits that are required for the continuation of American democracy and the 2018 MS standards emphasize the U.S. government's choices as the penultimate example of the balance of government power and individual rights. The standards provide a way for the ideological exceptionalism of the American government to be taught to students, and in a way that does not allow for the questioning of the government; and the overarching fear of other governing structures augments the states' privileging of economic capitalism.

An Emphasis on Capitalism

By definition, economics is a social science that is concerned with goods and services, specifically their production, distribution, and consumption (Merriam-Webster, n.d.). While the term is used broadly, and can be split into microeconomics and macroeconomics, an economic focus is one that is concerned with capital. The standards of the Deep South have an economic focus throughout the iterations - an emphasis on the acquisition and impact of capital. While long supported by researchers (Buckles & Watts, 1998), this emphasis on economics in Social Studies standards removes part of the humanity of history. The following sections discuss this economic focus further, by looking at the commoditization of humans across the standards, how people are viewed as consumers, and specifically how economics is both named and utilized frequently throughout the standards to equate economic contribution to social value.

Commodification of Humans

Across the standards, people are viewed not as individuals, but instead as capital. This aligns with the idea that the education system is designed to create the next generation of workers and to make sure they have the skills and knowledge necessary to be productive members of the workforce (Apple, 2006; Wilson, 2005). For example, South Carolina's "Profile of a South Carolina Graduate" that sets the expectations of the skills and characteristics students should possess when they graduate from the K-12 system. Georgia's Quality Basic Education Act (§20-2-131) also creates an emphasis on students being effective workers. This reduction of students to how they will impact the workforce fits with Wilson's (2005) assessment of the system valuable based on economic participation and contributes to the perspective that frames students as future capital.

Within the education standards across the Deep South, social value is measured on economic productivity and participation. The viewing of people as capital is seen the most clearly through the states' framing of enslaved people through economic terms. Enslaved people are often treated as "labor" and emphasized for the economic impact of their work, which is dehumanizing and removes all morality issues from the topic of enslavement. The omission of enslavement across the standards renders Black Americans as subhuman and frames their value around their capacity to generate capital (e.g., cotton). The current standards of GA (2023) reference the "growth of the African population" which is a strong example of the emphasis on human capital. Even the perceptions of Social Studies teachers add to this commoditization perspective - a common perspective is that Social Studies, as a subject, provides ways for students to become productive members of the workplace (Peters, 2022). Therefore, the teachers' beliefs that students are valuable only as workers, combined with the narrative of the standards

that supports a perspective of humans as capital, results in a continuation of the system that is focused solely on economic impact.

The standards also view expressions of culture as commodities, rather than an expression of individuality and diversity. Standards across all five states of the Deep South reference the “role” of minority populations - once again viewing people only in terms of the capital that they provide to the country. Most discussions of minority groups’ “roles” are purely supplementary “contribu[tions]” to more valuable, or white, structures. This focus on people as capital to exploit for benefit to the government creates a concerning perspective for students because it encourages a mindset that is focused on the economic benefits of people, rather than their humanity. Throughout various iterations of the standards, writers, artists, cultural movements like the Harlem Renaissance, and even athletes are discussed only through their “impact” on society. This reduction of culture and the arts to a temporary, momentary “impact” emphasizes the economic benefits of a decision; and that such social contributions are both finite and economically framed. Additionally, this commodification allows for systems of inequality to continue (Duncan, 2009), as it legitimizes the view of other people as capital, rather than people.

Another way that the standards commodify people is through the expectations of citizens. Students are presented with the viewpoint that their only benefit to society is as active citizens. The desire to have informed and active citizenship has been a priority for leaders since the Progressive Movement (Jones, 1913), which highlights how long the education system in the Deep South has worked to make sure students are seen as citizens that should be a benefit to the country, rather than just as individuals. With every iteration of the standards, specifically the Government standards, having a section of standards and indicators dedicated to outlining the importance of active citizenship, students are given the viewpoint that their worth and value is

tied to their citizenship and how that is represented. This is seen in students' own perceptions of Social Studies - viewing Social Studies as providing them with knowledge that will make them successful in their adult life (Camposano, et.al, 2021) - highlighting once again how Social Studies standards and instruction is commoditizing people by only considering their value to the world, rather than as individual people.

People as Consumers

The standards, in addition to reducing groups of people and actions to economic decisions based on capital, also encourage students to view themselves as consumers who need to economically participate, and to make choices that result in the most economic impact. This applies to how we speak about student decision-making: that decisions made are helping them to be successful in life after K-12 education (Camposano, et. al., 2021). The standards work to make sure that the examples students are taught about from U.S. History have economic justifications, in order to support that idea. This results in students having a skewed perspective on the world, because it encourages them to view everyone around them as commodities, and even themselves in terms of how they can be the largest economic benefit possible. Stripping the humanity from people by reducing their importance to simply how much money they have or how much money they can make for the (white) men in power conveys a larger message of capitalism, consumerism, and how the masses represent agents and forms of capital (Apple, 2006). Students (as consumers) are taught to view all decisions from an economic mindset, to find the best path forward - economically.

Expansion and other Economic “Achievements”

Every iteration of the standards includes economic principles focused on the importance of economics in decision making at the individual, state, and national levels. The standards fuse

wealth and power – as seen through standards related to capital generation and land expansion. For example, the current (2019) SC standards have economic principles featured prominently in four of the five standards, and in half of the indicators. There is an emphasis on capitalist beliefs throughout the iterations, and an omission of approaches other than capitalism. The standards emphasize that the primary decision maker is the economic impact of a decision. Both the current (2010) AL and 2018 MS standards use economic decisions as a justification for both the Spanish-American War and acquisition of Hawaii, as an example. Various land acquisitions are seen as “achievements” of the U.S. government, and the railroads are discussed in terms of the benefits of their expansion rather than the impact they had on the indigenous populations living there. Many lists of examples students are to know begin with an economic focus or include an economic event. The standards across the Deep South make it clear that those in power want students to not only know about the economic history of the nation but also view the history of the nation from an economic perspective - weighing people as capital and viewing themselves as consumers that need to make decisions based on the economic impact.

The Prevalence of Religion

With all five states being situated in the Bible Belt, the topic of (Christian) religion is not uncommon in schools. Since the Bible Belt is considered, by definition, to be a “religiously conservative region” (Brunn, 2011) there is an element to regional life where religion both is expected and encouraged. For example, Louisiana’s law that would require public school classrooms to post the Christian Ten Commandments (HB 71, 2024). While blocked by a federal judge from going into effect, this normalization of religion in schools is seen across the Deep South. Those in power position their perspective as more valuable than others (Apple, 2019) and this is seen in the inclusion and emphasis on religion found across the standards in this region.

The following sections discuss other legislative support behind religious expression and beliefs in schools, along with how religion is expressed in the state standards.

The Legislative Support

The legislatures of the states of the “Bible Belt” have routinely shown support for Christian beliefs and practices within public K-12 schools. Between the Religious Viewpoints Anti-Discrimination Acts and the legislative support for Bible-related elective courses the legislatures of all five states have codified legislation respective to the inclusion of religion in the K-12 system. Proposed bills across the states support the increased place of religion in schools as well. Contention about religion in schools in the South goes back to the 1920s with the Scopes Trial (Hamilton, n.d.). Additionally, a characteristic of the Protestants of the Deep South is their belief they are being persecuted (Apple, 2006) and this leads those in power to legislate religious freedoms and inclusions to “protect” against this persecution.

Another example of how the legislatures have pushed for increased religion in schools is through the idea of character education. For example, Georgia’s requirements for twenty-seven characteristics that students should know about in the character education program (§20-2-145). One of the character traits is “respect for the creator.” While the “c” in “creator” is not capitalized, this clearly recognizes the belief in creationism and denounces other theories such as the big bang theory or evolution. Other states also have character education or have proposed similar bills over the last twenty-five years. This idea of “character” education that is based in a sense of morality is, in the Deep South, aligned with the Christian beliefs that many in the Bible Belt hold. The idea that their morality should be the “law of the land” (Apple, 2006) is a characteristic of many Protestants in the Bible Belt.

Another example of this is found in Mississippi, who codified their “Student Religious Liberties Act” in 2013. This act protects student expression, religious expression in class assignments, a freedom to organize religious groups and activities, and that references to religion (or using religious literature/history/art/music/etc.) are acceptable for use in instruction. Mississippi has also codified §37-13-163 that prohibits “content-based censorship... based on any religious references contained” within any classroom. All of this is not designed to protect all religions - just the expression of Christianity. This fits with the conservative-held belief that the United States was founded as a Christian nation and should therefore still hold its citizens to Christian beliefs and morals (Apple, 2006). However, it still represents legislative support for the expression of religion in schools - a place that is supposed to be nonpartisan.

As Seen in Social Studies Curricula

Not every iteration of the standards address religion, and yet when they do mention religion is solely from the Judeo-Christian perspective - emphasizing once again the prevalence of Protestantism and the religiously conservative nature of the “Bible Belt.” Those in power position their perspective as more valuable than others (Apple, 2019) and this is seen in the inclusion and emphasis on religion found across the Deep South. The 2011 SC standards use the idea that the Founders all held Judeo-Christian beliefs to encourage the idea that the United States is a “Christian” state. The Great Awakenings are referenced across the iterations of the standards in Georgia, and Mississippi highlights the impact of religion on social movements, domestic/foreign policies, and political debates. Mississippi’s Government standards also reference the Founder’s “realistic view of human nature” - coming from the perspective of Christian traditions that people are inherently sinful. By connecting religion with the government

and as a prominent feature of the history of the U.S., the standards create a requirement that religion be included in schools.

Conclusion

This chapter has discussed what was found in the rounds of analysis, supported by scholarship. Beginning with the topic of “Racism, Whiteness, and The Other” the landscape of the Deep South was discussed in how the standards (don’t) teach students about the enslaved population of the early United States, the Civil Rights Movement, women, or indigenous populations. Keeping these populations within a “role” or “contribution” to the larger narrative of the history of white men is a commonality between all iterations of the standards. This allows for the status quo to remain and ensures that schools are a part of the system that maintains the established social order (Apple, 2019). The next topic discussed was “The Concept of ‘American’” and was a look at the use of “society” and a singular identity to control what students believe about the United States. The use of American exceptionalism, nativist fears in the language surrounding immigrants, and verbiage related to an “American Identity” work together to ensure a continued patriotic population that supports the actions of the U.S. Government. The third topic discussed was that of Capitalism and how the standards both present a perspective of the commoditization of humans and that of people as consumers. The emphasis on capitalism and economic principles works to reduce motivations and perspectives to a bottom line based on economic gain. The final topic discussed was that of religion, and how the states in the Deep South have emphasized and continued the social order regarding the “Bible Belt” (Brunn, et. al., 2011) through both legislation and within the Social Studies standards. The following chapter will provide final thoughts and action steps for future research.

Chapter 6 - Conclusions and Implications for Future Research

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to complete a comprehensive, critical discourse and textual analysis of the Social Studies curricular landscape in the South and the changes that have occurred since the rise of standardization and accountability - most notably, since the passage of No Child Left Behind (NCLB) in 2001. Focused on five states in the Deep South, this study examined standards and legislation in Alabama (AL), South Carolina (SC), Georgia (GA), Mississippi (MS), and Louisiana (LA). Specifically, the following research questions guided this study:

1. How has the Social Studies curricular landscape evolved in the United States Deep South since 2001?
 - a. How have Social Studies standards evolved in the United States Deep South since the rise of standardization and accountability?
 - b. How has the educational legislative landscape shaped Social Studies education in the United States Deep South since the rise of standardization and accountability?

This chapter is to conclude what was found and discussed in this research study. The conclusions are outlined into four questions: (1) What is worth knowing? (2) Who decides? (3) How is this knowing demonstrated? and (4) What next? - with this final section providing action steps for both myself and future researchers.

What is worth knowing?

How people have approached the teaching of history has changed over time, as evidenced through the various iterations of educational standards and accompanying policy - as standards

have developed over time in scope, detail, and purpose, the narratives and emphases have also changed. What is deemed “correct” or accurate history has always been up for debate and is usually determined by those in power (Ward, 2007). This can be seen throughout the standards in the Deep South and in the legislative landscape. By proposing bills that would create extra requirements for Social Studies standards - either through adding topics or prohibiting topics - the legislators of each state attempt to determine the “correct” history for students. This can even be seen in codified legislation.

The Deep South is a conservative-dominant region (Bateman, 2023) that is within the “Bible Belt” (Brunn, et. al., 2011). This results in educational standards that are based on a “traditional” narrative of history within Social Studies standards, and a support for Christian expression in both schools and in Social Studies classrooms. Apple (2019) refers to both the hidden and overt curriculum, and how the curriculum legitimizes the current social order. Both the past and present Social Studies standards maintain the current social order created by conservatives across the Deep South through overtly creating a curriculum that focuses on patriotism and citizenship while allowing the hidden curriculum to push a narrative of history where only white men matter, and all minority populations are erased or minimized – or must economically contribute to prove their social worth.

The standards of the Deep South do not allow for a “pedagogy of discomfort” that allows students to critically think and engage with what patriotism in America looks like - or the difference from nationalism (Zembylas & Boler, 2002). Instead, topics from U.S. History that could be considered “difficult” or cause students to question actions taken by the U.S. Government are removed from the standards or are added with a particular emphasis that minimizes morality or humanity - instead using a political or economic focus. Discussions

surrounding “other” histories are often met with backlash from conservatives and accusations of the incorporation of “Critical Race Theory” and “divisive concepts” - as seen in the many bills proposed (and even passed) across the five states to keep those ideologies out of schools. The pushback against the “woke” (e.g., inclusive, diverse, equitable) narrative has been intense in the states of the Deep South and in how students are being taught history. This idea of “wokeness” in schools has sparked many to look at how we teach students about empathy and social justice (Zembylas, 2024) and it is something to consider as standards are continually revised and adopted.

The legislative situation in the South also backs up this limited perspective taught to students, with only three of the five states requiring history taught of minority populations - and even those states are limited in scope. South Carolina and Louisiana both require instruction regarding “black history,” while Mississippi requires instruction regarding “Civil Rights education.” A study of women’s history, Indigenous history, or the history of any other marginalized group (such as the Hispanic, Asian, or immigrant populations) are not required in any state - nor has there been proposed legislation to include them either. The consistent teaching across the Deep South is that of the history of the United States, solely from the perspective of white men. The four most common minority populations that are “discussed” in the standards are that of Black Americans, women, Indigenous populations, and immigrants. However, as looked at throughout the analysis, all of these groups are usually discussed only in relation to their “role” or “contribution” to the history of white men or in how the actions of white men of the time impacted them. Other minority groups, such as Hispanics or Asians, are not mentioned or discussed at all - maybe only slightly included in the discussion of “minorities” or an isolated event. Similarly, the LGBTQIA+ community is erased entirely from these standards.

This minimization or erasure of minority groups results in a limited perspective of students as they are only taught one version of history, rather than the robust and diverse thing that it is. In this minimization of minority groups, the standards instead have a focus on economic principles and the importance of capitalism. In 1998 Buckles and Watters outlined the need for more economic principles throughout standards - which has most definitely been accomplished in both the current standards and in previous iterations (Buckles and Watts, 1998). In the current standards, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi all clearly have an economic focus. Not only do they regularly list economic factors near the beginning of the indicator and/or list, but the examples also chosen often have an economically capitalist focus. Louisiana, while there is not as much of an economic focus in the U.S. History standards, instead adds two standards related to economic principles and personal finance in their Civics course standards - resulting in all five states having a dedicated focus on capitalist economic expansion.

In general, the students in the Deep South are not being taught a well-rounded perspective on U.S. history - instead being taught history from the sole perspective of white men. While some of the more recently adopted standards (i.e., the 2022 Louisiana Standards and the proposed 2026 standards in Alabama) do a better job of including minority populations and addressing the realities of history, in general, the other states do not. This narrative of minimization does students across the region a disservice by not encouraging them to truly analyze both U.S. History and the government structure for how it has (and is) actively manipulated and marginalized groups in history to maintain the status quo and one perspective. The standards might point out a few bad apples acting out, but they never address the systems put in place that were built and sustained by many in policy and practice. No iteration of the

standards allows for a critical analysis of the systems put in place to keep minorities from gaining equality and autonomy.

Who decides?

Standardization is built upon the belief and pursuit of educational control, no matter the conditions. Those in power use their position to make their perspective more valuable than others (Apple, 2019) and this leads to a desire to control what is taught in schools. Since education is a power reserved for the state governments, individual state legislators and the legislatures as a whole use power to create and maintain their respective education systems - including the decision of who decides the education standards. Whether final approval is required by the legislature or not, they are the ones who are responsible for the committees that create the standards or provide support to the respective department of education that creates the standards. Even when it is the State Board of Education that decides, those members are either elected or appointed by the government - representing the influence of the political system on education systems, rather than educational research. This continues at the local level, with local school boards (who are also elected) being the ones who are making decisions for the local education system. The question of who decides what knowledge is the “official” knowledge that students should be required to learn is an important question for all who are concerned with what students are (not) being taught in schools.

With the states of the Deep South being heavily conservative, the approach to history created in both the legislation and the standards is that of a conservative approach. Fordham Institute’s report (2023) outlined the strengths and weaknesses of U.S. History and Civics standards in all fifty states and “graded” them. After comparing their results to what was found in this analysis, it seems that the Fordham Institute is coming from a conservative, “traditional,”

approach to history (Elliott, 2013) that supports the narratives of the legislatures and respective Departments of Education across the Deep South. For example, the report provides Alabama with an “Exemplary” rating - one of only five in the nation (Fordham Institute, 2021). The other four states studied received the following ratings:

Georgia: Good (B+ in both Civics and U.S. History)

Louisiana: Mediocre/Good (C+ in Civics, B+ in U.S. History)

Mississippi: Good (B in Civics, B- in U.S. History)

South Carolina: Good (B in both Civics and U.S. History)

These rankings are astounding in the face of analysis of the standards because there is a disconnect between such high ratings from the Fordham Institute and the lack of representation and critical thought as presented and discussed in Chapters 4 and 5. Reports like the 2021 “State of Social Studies” help to support the narrative created by the legislatures and confirm that the standards that only push a single “traditional” narrative are “correct.” The fact that Alabama, who has the oldest standards in the nation for Social Studies, is supposedly one of the top five sets of standards in the nation should be concerning. When legislatures are told that their standards are “good,” there won’t be further analysis into the standards and their effectiveness - creating the situation in the Deep South that there is today.

Apple (2006) references work from Richard Rorty (1998) that notes the political “Right” rarely, if ever, believe much should be changed. This perspective is one that helps conservatives maintain “traditional” perspectives that they entrench within the Deep South K-12 education systems. Between the bills proposed that would limit the teaching of history and the enacted legislation that makes it clear that “divisive concepts” are not allowed - the legislatures make sure that their position of power is one premised on educational and social control, cementing

their ideological positions discursively, legislatively, and more broadly within and beyond education.

How is this knowing demonstrated?

Each state has its own requirements for standard revisions, approvals, and implementation. Now that Alabama’s proposed standards have been approved, there will be a period of transition with the full standards not required in classrooms until the 2026-2027 school year. Georgia, which just passed the most recent “revisions” in 2023 is not required to update their standards for another four years. South Carolina is close to the required time for revisions. As states continue to move forward and update standards to make sure that students are effectively prepared for life after K-12 education, there must be considerations for how certain narratives are approached within the standards. Making sure that all portions of the population are represented (and not just a narrow, singular, or momentary “role”) will continue to be a challenge against the conservative ideals and perceptions of history that shape and are shaped by the Deep South. Similarly, addressing “difficult” topics of history will be a challenge with those in power not willing to recognize or address systemic issues. Future iterations of the standards can make improvements (at least in the language used) to make sure students are taught a robust view of history that is representative and inclusive of the entire American population.

Each state also emphasizes different subjects in different ways, even within Social Studies. The variations in number of required courses, when courses are taught, varied testing schedules, and even the detail found within the standards highlights how the states value the teaching of Social Studies. There have been multiple attempts across the states to minimize the teaching of history, in a variety of ways. Some states have attempted to remove testing of Social Studies; and an unfortunate, enduring aspect of the K-12 education system is that testing equals

importance (Volger & Virtue, 2010). Consequently, when a subject is not tested, it loses educational importance and significance, its status as “required” coursework, and teachers using their already limited time to teach students the tested subjects. Therefore, when states remove Social Studies as a tested subject, this results in students being taught even less Social Studies (Volger & Virtue, 2010). South Carolina, for example, proposed a bill that would have removed Social Studies as a core content area entirely. This practical and legislative erosion on Social Studies - seen at both the local and federal level - presents a concerning future. History rhymes with itself - and it is more important now than ever that students be prepared for life after the K-12 system with a robust knowledge of the United States - both positive and negative.

What next?

The landscape of Social Studies education in the Deep South is concerning because students are entering the post-K-12 world with what seems to be a partial understanding of the history of the United States. Over the last twenty-five years, standards and legislation reflect a skewed version of history that actively minimizes minority populations, pushes a focus on the economic principles of capitalism, and minimizes the opportunity for students to practice critical thinking skills. Standards and legislation across all five states have contributed to continued loyalty toward a narrow definition of what constitutes the “role” of a citizen of the United States, alongside more recent attempts to work against plurality of thought and perspective in education.

While individual teachers are most likely adding to or enhancing the standards and addressing the realities of history in their individual classrooms, for the “official” and sanctioned knowledge to exclusively center the actions and history of white men reflects an enduring trend that will likely remain, given the recent political turn in the United States. In Executive Orders enacted in January of 2025, the 47th president put forth the idea that schools have been able to

“indoctrinate their children in radical, anti-American ideologies” (Exec. Order No. 14190, 2025). Consequently, the same Executive Order resurrects the 1776 Commission that is to “promote patriotic education” as a response to these egregious allegations. Actions like these at the federal level bolster confidence for local levels to codify their own versions of the anti-CRT or “divisive concepts” bills that undercut academic freedom, teacher autonomy, and accurate teaching of history. Conservatives have created a distrust of both teachers and the education system (Apple, 2006) and this supports the desire of those in power to “take back” the education system and the teaching of history. This obscuration within history education reifies an inequitable, singularly agentive social order - a cycle weaponizing “historical revisionism” (Krasner, 2020) that the legislatures fail to address, and instead, often exacerbate.

The term “historical revisionism” is used by both sides as a way to accuse the other of manipulating history taught to students. Revision is necessary as history is studied. As discoveries are made, revisions adjust perspectives and create a better understanding of the past (Krasner, 2020). However, revisionism can also be used to support a particular agenda or reinterpret facts to support a narrative. The balance between legitimate and illegitimate revisionism is a fine line, one that depends on scholarly work and integrity. The fight over revisionism and how history is interpreted is not unique to the United States (Cattini, 2011) nor something that just the Deep South must contend with. However, in the Deep South – where misconceptions are not only culturally continued (Seger, 2022), but also entrenched through the standards – the enactment of revisionism creates controversy. Conservatives typically want to keep the status quo (Gross, et. al., 2011) and so to be told that history is different than they were taught can cause them to challenge potentially accurate revisions. This results in the idea of historical revisionism to be viewed in the Deep South as problematic and against conservative

values. Therefore, moving forward with this research to highlight the necessity of teaching a more accurate history to students is important to work alongside legitimate historical revisionism and push back against illegitimate revisionism. Bringing awareness to how the standards have contributed and continue to contribute to misconceptions held by the populace can be of assistance in making sure that future iterations of the standards are more representative of the American population and allow for critical thought to be included regarding the history of the country. As a history teacher in the Deep South, this inquiry only confirms the importance of teachers going beyond the sanctioned curriculum or standards to teach their students the realities of history, despite localized skepticism toward efforts to make a difference.

This research sparks many further research questions – for me, and for others seeking to pursue similar lines of inquiry. For example, research exploring standards in other dimensions of Social Studies outside of history and government would be fruitful; as well as research into other content area standards. Extending this research to the middle level and even elementary standards could prove fruitful in order to have a better understanding of the entire history students are taught during their time in the PK-12 system. Another vein of research could be to expand this particular study into more Southern states or other regions across the United States. The states of the Deep South are not immune to political and social trends; so, continued research into new standards, iterations, and education policies (both proposed and enacted) in the Deep South would be necessary to continue scrutinizing how the legislatures are creating “official” knowledge for the K-12 system. Expanding this research into the committees that create the standards and the selection of committee participants would also allow for a study of the creation of “official” knowledge. Connecting what the legislature has done and attempted to do with the sanctioned knowledge of the standards helps to create an understanding of the

legislative landscape and provide a background to help instigate change to educational systems in the Deep South; so that students are more knowledgeable about the world around them and have the critical historical understanding necessary for undergirding future critical thinking beyond physical educational spaces.

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Appendix A

Discourse Analysis Questions

Significance

- How is this piece of language being used to make certain things significant or not and in what ways?

Practices (Activities)

- What practice (activity) or practices (activities) is this piece of language being used to enact?

Identities

- What identity or identities is this piece of language being used to enact?
- What identity or identities is this piece of language attributing to others and how does this help the speaker or writer enact his or her own identity?

Relationships

- What sort of relationship or relationships is this piece of language seeking to enact with others?

Politics

- What perspective on social goods is this piece of language communicating?

Connections

- How does this piece of language connect or disconnect things; how does it make one thing relevant or irrelevant to another?

Sign Systems and Knowledge

- How does this piece of language privilege or

- disprivilege specific sign systems or different ways of knowing and believing or claims to knowledge and belief?

Appendix B

Chapter 4 Figures

Table 5 - Laws Across States

Law	SC	GA	AL	MS	LA
Requiring display of U.S. flag	1962; last update 2022	n/a	1927; last update 2001	2002	1999
Display of national / state mottos	2022	n/a	n/a	1997; last update 2001	2018
Regarding the Pledge of Allegiance	1991	1985; last update 2001	1976; last update 2019	2002	1989; last update 2002
Requiring Civics Test	2015	n/a	2017	n/a	2015
Youth Patriotic Societies / Citizenship Trust	2023	n/a	1994	n/a	2023
Constitution / Founding Documents	2016	2015	2016	n/a	2012
Performance Based Accountability System	1998; last update 2017	1981; last update 2015	1995; last update 2000	1982; last update 2024	1997; last update 2022
Standard Revision Policy	Every 7 years	Every 4 years	Every 2 years?	n/a	n/a
Old / New Testament Elective Courses	2007	2006; last update 2019	2019	n/a	2023
Religious Viewpoints Antidiscrimination	2010	n/a	n/a	2013	n/a
“Divise Concepts” prohibition	n/a	2022	n/a	2022	n/a (Governor’s Order from 2024)

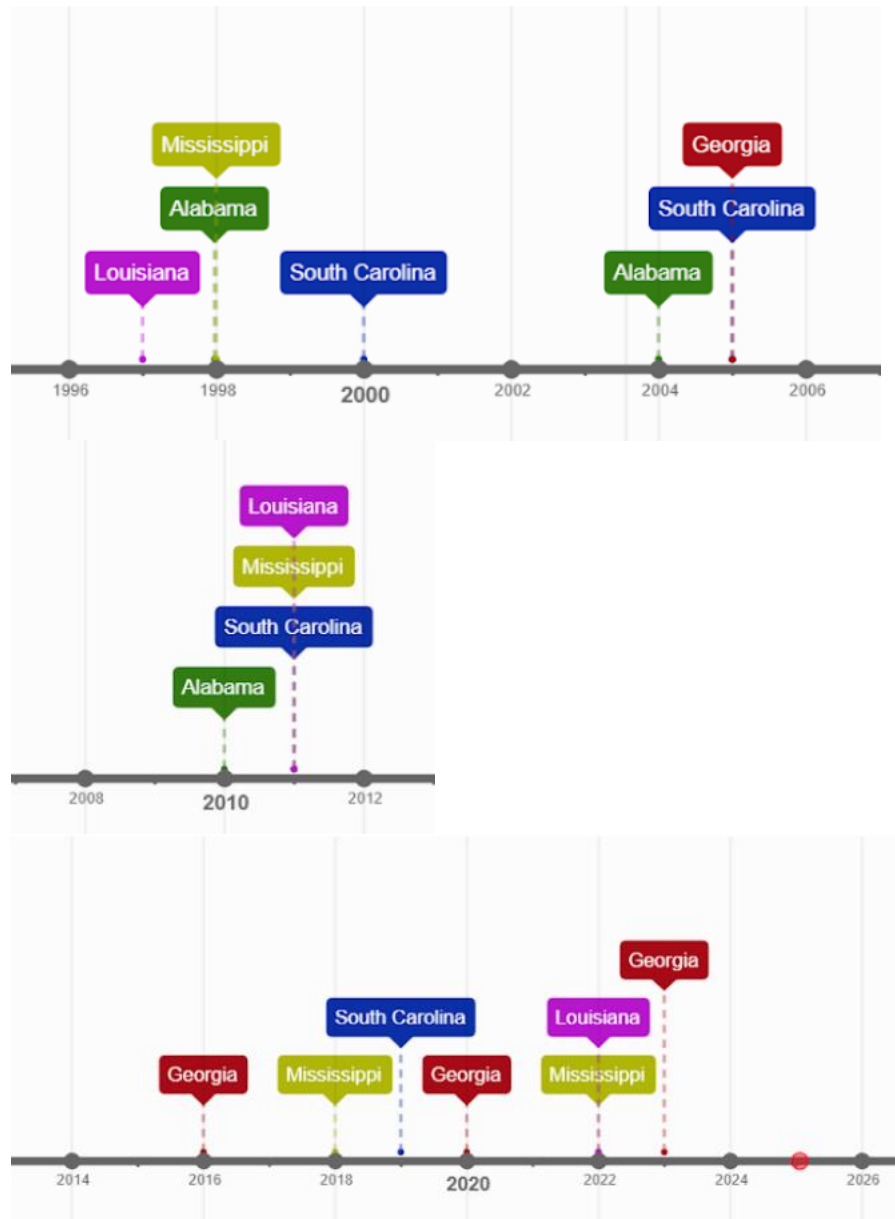
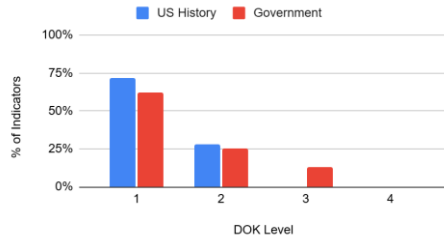


Figure 5 - Timeline Segments

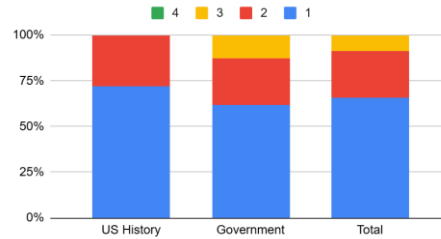
Appendix C

South Carolina

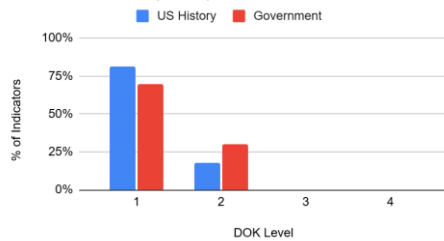
South Carolina (2000)



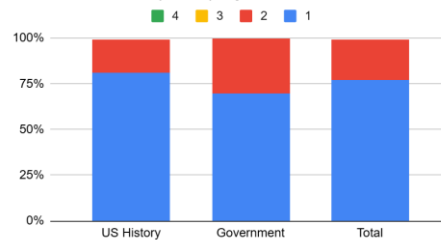
South Carolina (2000) By Course



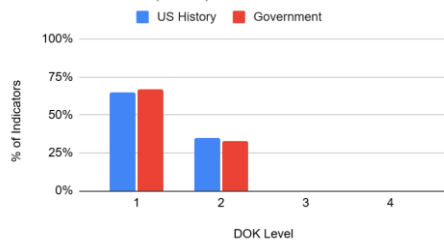
South Carolina (2005)



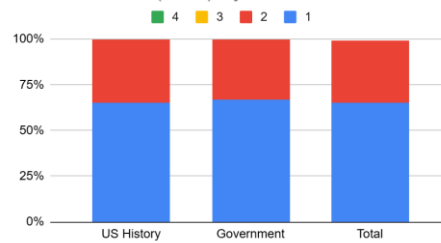
South Carolina (2005) By Course



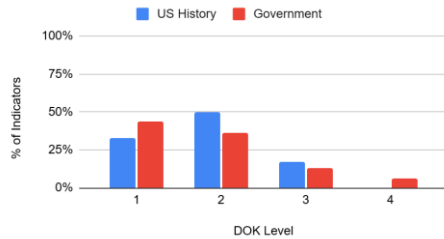
South Carolina (2011)



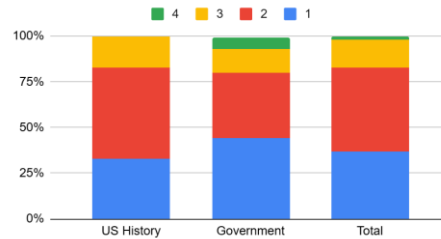
South Carolina (2011) By Course

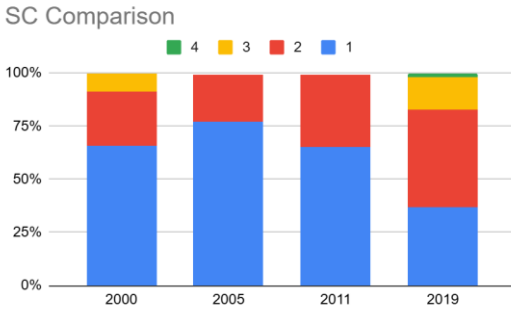


South Carolina (2019)



South Carolina (2019) By Course





USHC.2 - Demonstrate an understanding of the relationship between economic and continental expansion and the evolving disagreements over natural rights and federalism from 1803–1877.

USHC.2.CO: Compare the economic , political, and social, <u>development of the antebellum North and South</u> from 1803-1860 using a comparative analysis.	This indicator was developed to encourage inquiry into sectionalism through an analysis of the emergence of a national market, changes in the two-party system, and effects on marginalized groups. Inquiry into the regional interdependence <u>exemplified by the relationship between the cotton industry in the South and the factory system of the North</u> is also supported by the indicator.
USHC.2.CE: Evaluate the causes and consequences of economic and geographic expansion through <u>significant turning points</u> from 1803–1865.	This indicator was developed to encourage inquiry into the causes of American expansion, such as a growing and diversifying population and the <u>expansion of the plantation economy</u> . This indicator promotes inquiry into the relationship between sectionalism and political compromise , <u>culminating in the Civil War</u> .
USHC.2.P: Summarize the impact of technological changes and social developments on the U.S., <u>including the Civil War</u> , during the period 1815–1865.	This indicator was developed to encourage inquiry into how technology <u>fostered the growth of the cotton industry</u> , the factory system, and urban centers. In addition, this indicator <u>facilitates inquiry into how the Abolitionist Movement and Women’s Rights Movements encouraged reforms</u> .
USHC.2.CX: Contextualize the perspectives on the <u>role of the federal government</u> in securing natural rights during the period 1830– 1877.	This indicator was developed to encourage inquiry into how <u>events such as the Indian Removal Act, the Civil War, and Reconstruction</u> prompted examination of the <u>federal government's role in protecting natural rights</u> . In addition, this indicator supports inquiry into instances where <u>disputes arose over the power of the federal government over state governments</u> .

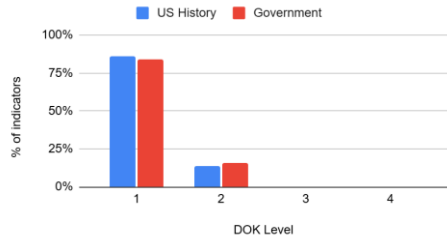
USHC.2.CC: Differentiate the patterns of continuity and change within the <u>development of</u> sectionalism and reunion.	This indicator was developed to encourage inquiry into how the legislative and judicial branches <u>responded to</u> sectionalism, emancipation, westward expansion, and early industrialization. Inquiry into Reconstruction as a <u>significant political and social turning point</u> in United States history is supported by this indicator.
USHC.2.E: Utilize primary and secondary sources to judge the impact of economic and continental expansion on the <u>evolving disagreements</u> over natural rights and federalism.	

(emphasis added)

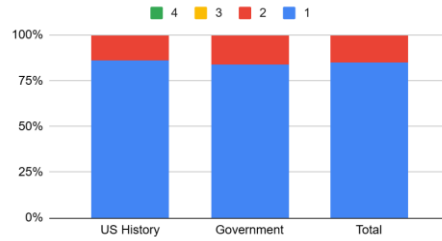
Appendix D

Georgia

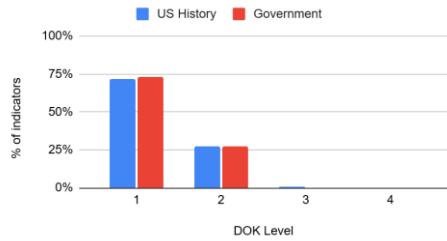
Georgia (2005)



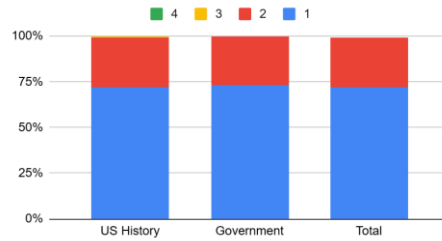
Georgia (2005) By Course



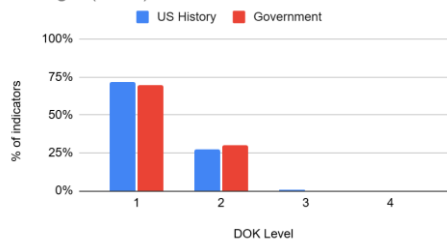
Georgia (2016)



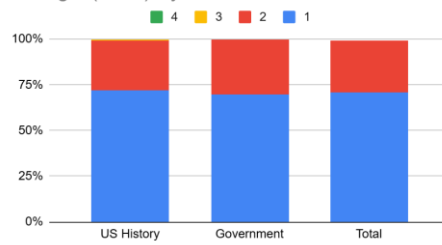
Georgia (2016) By Course



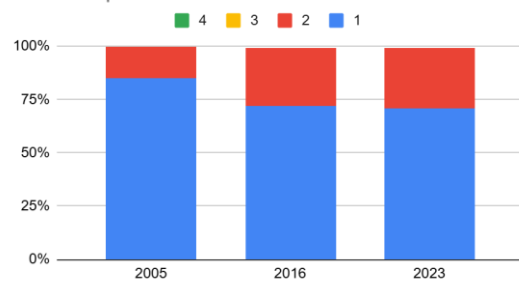
Georgia (2023)



Georgia (2023) By Course



GA Comparison



2005 Iteration - Indicators regarding enslavement and the Civil War:

- Explain the Kansas-Nebraska Act, the failure of popular sovereignty, Dred Scott case, and John Brown's raid.
 - Describe President Lincoln's efforts to preserve the Union as seen in his second inaugural address and the Gettysburg speech and in his use of emergency powers, such as his decision to suspend habeas corpus.
 - Describe the role of Ulysses S. Grant, Robert E. Lee, "Stonewall Jackson," William Tecumseh Sherman, and Jefferson Davis.
 - Explain the importance of Fort Sumter, Antietam, Vicksburg, Gettysburg, and the Battle for Atlanta and the impact of geography on these battles.
 - Describe the significance of the Emancipation Proclamation.
 - Explain the importance of the growing economic disparity between the North and the South through an examination of population, functioning railroads, and industrial output.
- (p. 11)

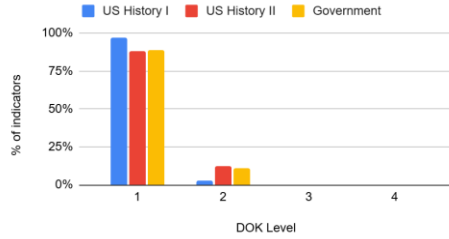
2023 Government Addition:

- Examine how American ideals of freedom and democracy protect against the threats of totalitarian ideology.
 - Describe the role of government in totalitarian systems (e.g., communism and fascism).
 - Compare the structures, power-base, and decision-making processes of American democracy to those of totalitarian governments.
 - Compare the rights and responsibilities of citizens in American democracy to those in totalitarian governments.
 - Explain how the ideals of American democracy conflict with those of totalitarianism.
 - Explain the causes for the growth and decline of totalitarian forms of government and American policies to resist their spread. (p. 7)

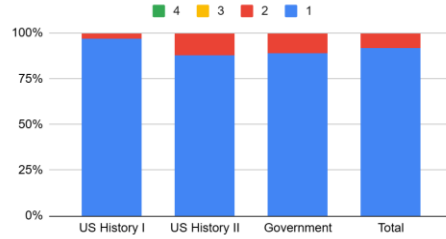
Appendix E

Alabama

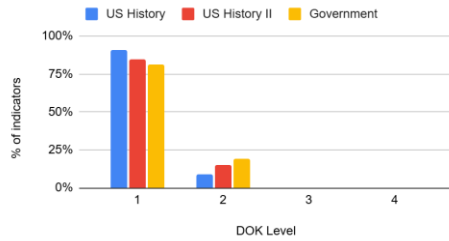
Alabama (1998)



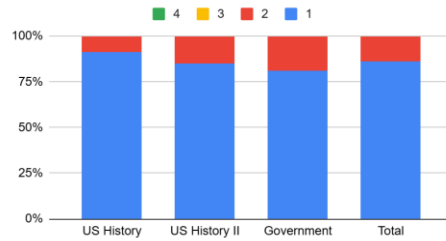
Alabama (1998) By Course



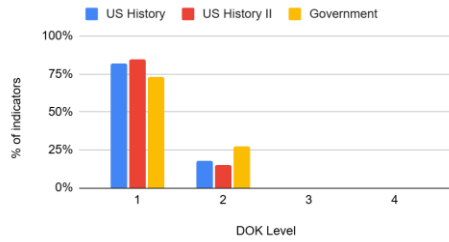
Alabama (2004)



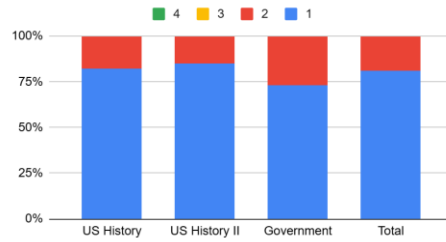
Alabama (2004) By Course



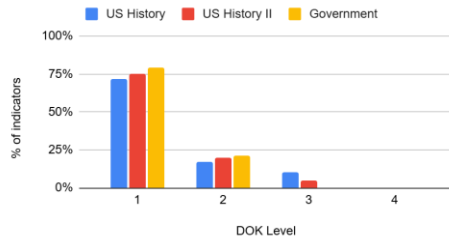
Alabama (2010)



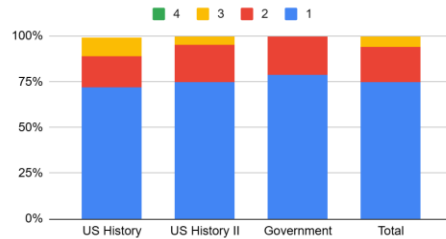
Alabama (2010) By Course

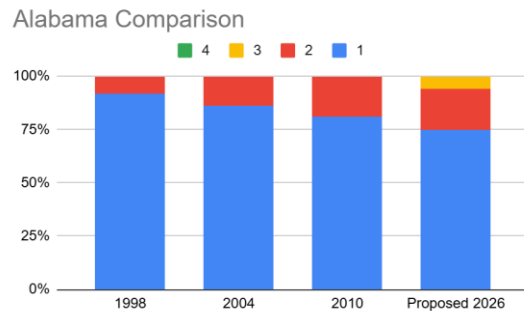


Alabama (Proposed 2026)



Alabama (Proposed 2026) By Course





2004 Iteration: The indicators of Standard 8 of USH1 regarding enslavement:

- Describing the abolition of slavery in most Northern states in the late eighteenth century.
- Describing the rise of religious movements in opposition to slavery, including the objectives of the Quakers.
- Describing the impact of the principles of “inalienable rights” as a motivating factor for movements to oppose slavery.
- Describing the founding of the first abolitionist societies by Benjamin Rush and Benjamin Franklin and the role played by later critics of slavery, including William Lloyd Garrison, Frederick Douglass, Angelina and Sarah Grimke, Henry David Thoreau, and Charles Sumner.
- Explaining the importance of the Northwest Ordinance of 1787 that banned slavery in new states north of the Ohio River.
- Describing the rise of the underground railroad and its leaders, including Harriet Tubman and the impact of Harriet Beecher Stowe’s Uncle Tom’s Cabin. (p. 72)

2004 Iteration: The standard/indicators regarding the Civil Rights Movement:

- Trace events of the modern Civil Rights Movement from post-World War II to 1970 that resulted in social and economic changes, including the Montgomery bus boycott, the desegregation of Little Rock Central High School, the march on Washington, and the Freedom Rides.
- Tracing the federal government’s involvement in the modern Civil Rights Movement, including the abolition of the poll tax, the desegregation of the armed forces, the

nationalization of state militias, Brown versus Board of Education, the Civil Rights Acts of 1957 and 1964, and the Voting Rights Act of 1965.

- Explaining contributions of individuals and groups to the modern Civil Rights Movement, including Martin Luther King Jr., James Meredith, Medgar Evers, the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC), the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC), and the Congress of Racial Equality (CORE).
- Identifying people and events in Alabama that influenced the modern Civil Rights Movement, including Rosa Parks, Autherine Lucey, John Patterson, George C. Wallace, Vivian Malone, Fred Shuttlesworth, the Children's March, the Sixteenth Street Baptist Church bombing, and the Selma to Montgomery march.
- Describing the development of a Black Power movement, including the change in focus of the SNCC, the rise of Malcolm X, and Stokely Carmichael and the Black Panther Movement.
- Describing the impact of African-American entrepreneurs on the modern Civil Rights Movement (examples: S. B. Fuller, A. G. Gaston) (p. 79)

2010 Iteration: The indicators regarding the abolition movement:

- Describe the founding of the first abolitionist societies by Benjamin Rush and Benjamin Franklin and the role played by later critics of slavery, including William Lloyd Garrison, Frederick Douglass, Sojourner Truth, Angelina and Sarah Grimké, Henry David Thoreau, and Charles Sumner.
- Describing the rise of religious movements in opposition to slavery, including objections of the Quakers
- Explaining the importance of the Northwest Ordinance of 1787 that banned slavery in new states north of the Ohio River
- Describing the rise of the Underground Railroad and its leaders, including Harriet Tubman and the impact of Harriet Beecher Stowe's Uncle Tom's Cabin, on the abolitionist movement (p. 65)

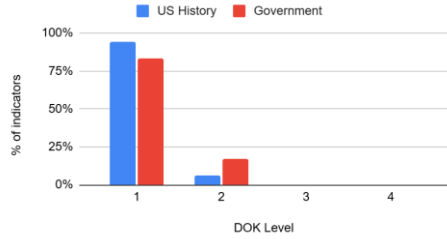
2026 Iteration: Standard/Indicator addressing the Civil Rights Movement:

- Evaluate the impact of events, organizations, and individual actions on expansion of the Civil Rights Movement nationally.
 - Identify and explain key events from 1945 to 1955 that brought about the emergence of a large-scale movement for civil rights.
 - Analyze the extent to which the actions and campaigns of civil rights activists and organizations from 1954 to 1965 prompted federal measures to advance civil and human rights.
 - Compare and contrast the actions and philosophies of key civil rights leaders and organizations, including Reverend Dr. Martin Luther King Jr., and Malcom X.
 - Summarize the political, economic, and physical means by which opponents of the Civil Rights Movement sought to limit its achievements.
 - Identify key Alabamians involved in the Civil Rights Movement, and describe how they provided leadership, generated change, or demonstrated resistance to the Civil Rights Movement. (p. 71)

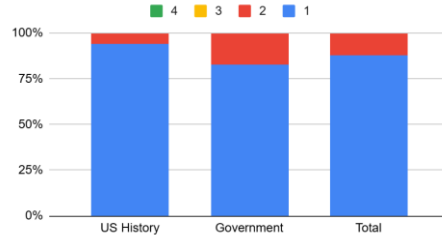
Appendix F

Mississippi

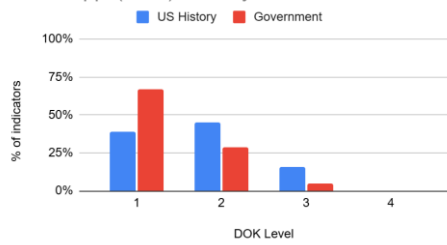
Mississippi (1998)



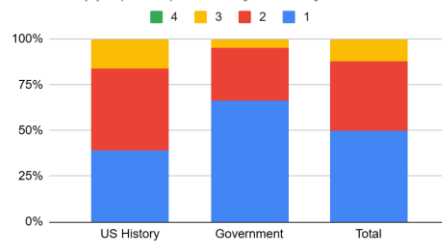
Mississippi (1998) By Course



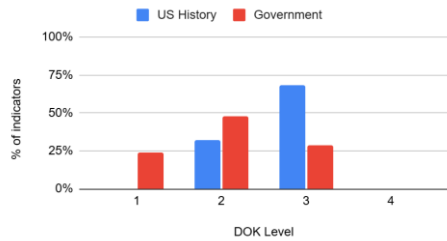
Mississippi (2011) - "Analyzed"



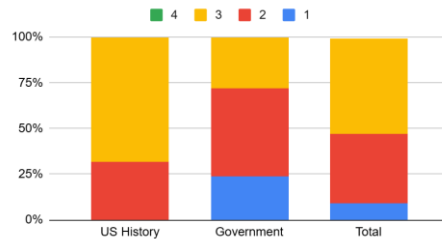
Mississippi (2011) - "Analyzed" By Course



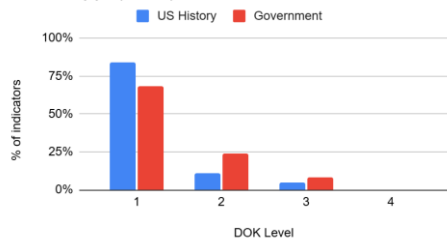
Mississippi (2011) - "Identified"



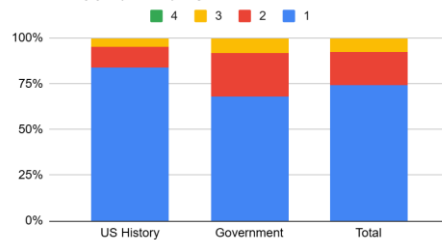
Mississippi (2011) - "Identified" By Course



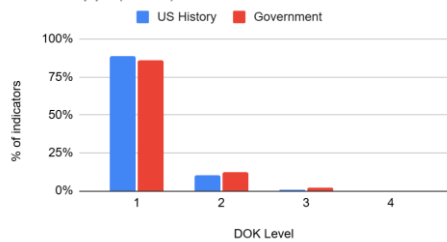
Mississippi (2018)



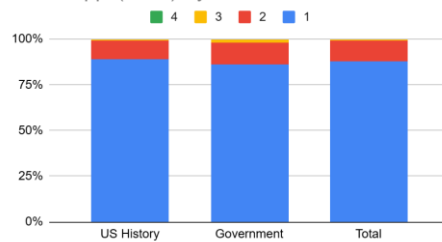
Mississippi (2018) By Course



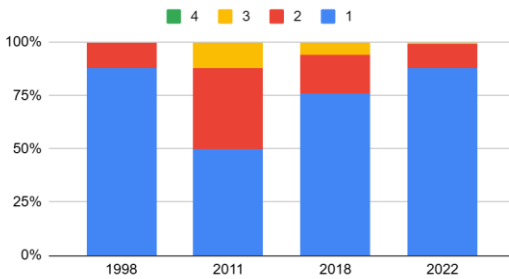
Mississippi (2022)



Mississippi (2022) By Course



Mississippi Comparison



2011 Iteration: Indicators related to the Civil Rights Movement:

- Understand how the Civil Rights Movement achieved social and political change in the United States and the impact of the Civil Rights struggle of African Americans on other groups (including but not limited to feminists, Native Americans, Hispanics, immigrant groups, and individuals with disabilities).
- Analyze the issues that gave rise to the Civil Rights Movement from post-reconstruction to the modern movement.
- Trace the major events of the modern movement and compare and contrast the strategies and tactics for social changes used by leading individuals/groups.
- Analyze the response of federal and state governments to the goals (including but not limited to ending de jure and de facto segregation and economic inequality) of the Civil Rights Movement.
- Evaluate the impact of the Civil Rights Movement in expanding democracy in the United States.
- Compare and contrast the goals and objectives of other minority and immigrant groups to those of the Civil Rights Movement led predominantly by African Americans.
- Cite and analyze evidence of the political, economic, and social changes in the United States that expanded democracy for other minority and immigrant groups. (p. 65)

2018 Iteration: Indicators related to the Civil Rights Movement:

- Civil Rights Movement: Evaluate the impact of the Civil Rights Movement on social and political change in the United States.
- Explain the importance of President Truman's order to integrate the U.S. military and the federal government.

- Trace the federal government's involvement in the modern Civil Rights Movement, including: the abolition of the poll tax, the nationalization of state militias, *Brown v. Board of Education* in 1954, the Civil Rights Act of 1957 and 1964, and the Voting Rights Act of 1965
- Explain contributions of individuals and groups to the modern Civil Rights Movement, including: Martin Luther King, Jr., James Meredith, Medgar Evers, Thurgood Marshall, the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC), the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC), the Congress of Racial Equality (CORE), the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), and the civil rights foot soldiers.
- Describe the development of a Black Power movement, including: the change in focus of the SNCC, the rise of Malcolm X, and Stokely Carmichael and the Black Panther movement.
- Describe the significance of Martin Luther King, Jr.'s Letters from a Birmingham Jail and his I Have a Dream speech.
- Describe the accomplishments of the modern civil rights movement, including: the growth of the African American middle class, increased political power, and declining rates of African American poverty. (p. 73)

Chart 1: Mississippi U.S. History Standard Comparison:

- = Identical
- = Minor changes
- = Unique to 2022

No color = definitive changes

	2018	2022
US.1	Illustrate the impact of Manifest Destiny on the economic and technological development of the post-Civil War West, including: mining, the cattle industry, and the transcontinental railroad.	Illustrate the impact of Manifest Destiny on the economic and technological development of the post-Civil War West (including mining, the cattle industry, and the transcontinental railroad).
	Compare the changing role of the American farmer, including: establishment of the Granger movement and the Populist Party and agrarian rebellion over currency issues.	Trace the changing role of the American farmer (including establishment of the Granger movement, the Populist Party, and agrarian rebellion over currency issues).
	Evaluate the Dawes Act for its effect on tribal identity, land ownership, and assimilation of American Indians.	Evaluate the Dawes Act for its effect on tribal identity, land ownership, and assimilation of American Indians.
	Explain the impact of the Populist movement on the role of the federal government in American society.	Explain the impact of the Populist movement on the role of the federal government in American society.
		Evaluate Reconstruction Amendments, black codes, Jim Crow, disenfranchisement, sharecropping, Plessy vs. Ferguson (1896), and the rise of early Civil Rights Activists as a response to the injustice such as Booker T. Washington, Ida B. Wells-Barnett, and W.E.B. DuBois.
US.2	Interpret the impact of change from workshop to factory on workers' lives, including: The New Industrial Age from 1870 to 1900, the American Federation of Labor of Labor-Congress of Industrial Organizations (AFL-CIO), the	Interpret the changes brought by industrialization to the American economy (including mass production in factories, creation of corporations and monopolies, influence of industrialists like John Rockefeller and

	Industrial Workers of the World (IWW), the Pullman Strike, the Haymarket Square Riot, and impact of John D. Rockefeller, Andrew Carnegie, Samuel Gompers, Eugene V. Debs, A. Philip Randolph, and Thomas Alva Edison.	Andrew Carnegie, the impact of inventions/innovations and inventors).
	Compare population percentages, motives, and settlement patterns of immigrants from Asia, Europe, and including: Chinese Exclusion Act regarding immigration quotas.	Compare population changes caused by industrialization (including settlement patterns of the new immigrants from Europe and China and the nativist reaction evidenced by the Chinese Exclusion Act).
	Interpret the impact of the New Industrial Age on life in urban areas, including: working and living conditions, the Labor Union movement, “New Immigrants,” Knights of Labor, American Federation of Labor, and the Industrial Workers of the World, the Pullman Strike and the Haymarket Square Riot, Samuel Gompers, Eugene V. Debs, Jane Addams and the Social Gospel.	Interpret the impact of industrialization on workers on living conditions linked to urbanization, tenement living, social gospel, Jane Addams, and the lack of city services; the responses of workers to work and life challenges (including the formation of labor unions, the Knights of Labor, the American Federation of Labor, the Industrial Workers of the World, the rise of labor leaders, Eugene V. Debs, Samuel Gompers, the impact of strikes, Haymarket Riot, Homestead Strike, and Pullman Strike).
	Analyze the effects of laissez-faire economics on business practices in the United States and their effects, including: John D. Rockefeller, Andrew Carnegie, JP Morgan, and Bessemer Process, horizontal and vertical integration, Sherman Anti-trust Act.	Analyze the effects of laissez-faire economics on business practices in the United States and their effects (including John D. Rockefeller, Andrew Carnegie, JP Morgan, and Bessemer Process, horizontal, vertical integration, and Sherman Antitrust Act).
	Trace the evolution from the power of the political machines to Civil Service reform, including: Spoils/patronage system, Tweed Ring, Thomas Nast, and Pendleton Civil Service Act.	Trace the evolution from the power of the political machines to Civil Service reform (including Spoils/patronage system, Tweed Ring, Thomas Nast, and Pendleton Civil Service Act).
US.3	Assess the impact of media on public opinion during the Progressive Movement, including:	Assess the impact of media and influence of muckrakers on public opinion during the

	Upton Sinclair, Jacob A. Riis, and Ida M. Tarbell, women's suffrage and Temperance Movement.	Progressive movement (including Upton Sinclair, Jacob Riis, and Ida Tarbell).
	<u>Trace the development of political, social, and cultural movements and subsequent reforms,</u> including: Jim Crow laws, Plessy vs. Ferguson, women's suffrage, temperance movement, Niagara movement, public education, the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), and Marcus Garvey.	<u>Trace the development of political, social, and cultural movements and subsequent reforms</u> (including women's suffrage, Temperance Movement, and compulsory public education). Evaluate the limitation of reform efforts of the voices of the Niagara Movement, the National Association of the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), Ida B. Wells, Booker T. Washington, W.E.B. Du Bois, and Marcus Garvey in response to Jim Crow Laws, Plessy vs. Ferguson (1896).
	Compare and contrast presidential domestic policies, including: Theodore Roosevelt, William Taft, and Woodrow Wilson; Trustbusting, Pure Food and Drug Act, Meat Inspection Act, Federal Reserve, Conservation, the Hepburn Act, and the Federal Trade Commission.	Compare and contrast presidential domestic policies of Theodore Roosevelt, William Taft, and Woodrow Wilson (including trustbusting, Pure Food and Drug Act, Meat Inspection Act, conservation, the Hepburn Act, Federal Reserve, and Federal Trade Commission).
	Trace national legislation resulting from and affecting the Progressive Movement, including: the Sherman Antitrust Act and the Clayton Antitrust Act.	Trace national legislation including the use of Sherman Antitrust Act, the Clayton Antitrust Act, and constitutional amendments (16-19) resulting from and affecting the Progressive Movement.
US.4	Investigate causes of the Spanish-American War, including: yellow journalism, the sinking of the Battleship USS Maine, and economic interest in Cuba.	Assess causes of the Spanish-American War (including yellow journalism, the sinking of the USS Maine, and economic interest in Cuba).
	Evaluate the role of the Rough Riders on the iconic status of President Theodore Roosevelt.	Explain the role of the Rough Riders on the iconic status of President Theodore Roosevelt.
	Analyze consequences of the Spanish-American War, including: The Treaty of Paris of 1898,	Analyze consequences of the Spanish-American War (including territorial expansion in the Pacific and the

	insurgency in the Philippines, and territorial expansion in the Pacific and the Caribbean.	Caribbean (Treaty of Paris 1898), insurgency in the Philippines, and establishment of the Anti-Imperialist League).
	Trace the involvement of the United States in the Hawaiian Islands for economic and imperialistic interests.	Trace the involvement of the United States in the Hawaiian Islands for economic and imperialistic interests.
	Evaluate the role of the Open-Door policy and the Roosevelt Corollary on America's expanded economic and geographic interests.	Evaluate the role of the Open-Door Policy and the Roosevelt Corollary on America's expanded economic and geographic interests.
	Compare the executive leadership represented by William Howard Taft's Dollar Diplomacy, Theodore Roosevelt's Big Stick Diplomacy, and Woodrow Wilson's Moral Diplomacy.	Compare the executive leadership represented by Theodore Roosevelt's Big Stick Diplomacy (the Roosevelt Corollary), William Howard Taft's Dollar Diplomacy, and Woodrow Wilson's Moral Diplomacy.
	Evaluate the factors that led to US involvement in World War I.	Evaluate the factors that led to US involvement in World War I (including the "Lusitania", Zimmerman Telegram, and unrestricted submarine warfare).
	Investigate controversies over the Treaty of Versailles of 1919, Woodrow Wilson's Fourteen points, and the League of Nations.	Investigate controversies over the Woodrow Wilson's Fourteen Points, Treaty of Versailles of 1919, and the League of Nations.
		Evaluate the domestic impact of World War I (including the war mobilization effort, changes in the workforce, the origins of the Great Migration, and Schenck vs. United States (1919)).
US.5	Debate radio, cinema, and print media for their impact on the creation of mass culture.	Analyze the impact of radio, cinema, and print media on the creation of mass culture.
	Analyze works of major American artists and writers, including: F. Scott Fitzgerald, Ernest Hemingway, Langston Hughes, and H.L. Mecken, to characterize the era of the 1920s.	Analyze the impact of the Lost Generation writers on American culture (including F. Scott Fitzgerald, Ernest Hemingway, John Steinbeck, and William Faulkner).

	Examine notable authors of the 1920s, including: John Steinbeck, William Faulkner, and Zora Neale Hurston.	Evaluate the impact of the Harlem Renaissance and Black Nationalism on the social and cultural landscape of America (including Langston Hughes, Zora Neal Hurston, Marcus Garvey, Louis Armstrong, Duke Ellington, and Ella Fitzgerald).
	Determine the relationship between technological innovations and the creation of increased leisure time.	Determine the impact of technological innovations on increased leisure time.
	Assess effects of overproduction, stock market speculation, and restrictive monetary policies on the pending economic crisis.	Assess effects of overproduction, stock market speculation, and restrictive monetary policies on the pending economic crisis.
	Compare and contrast the impact of the Smoot-Hawley Tariff Act on the global economy and the resulting worldwide depression.	Evaluate the impact of the Smoot-Hawley Tariff Act on the global economy and the resulting worldwide depression.
	Analyze the impact of the changes in the 1920s on the economy, society, and culture, including: mass production, the role of credit, the effect of radio in creating a mass culture, and the cultural changes exemplified by the Harlem Renaissance .	Analyze the impact of the changes in the 1920s on the economy, society, and culture (including mass production, the role of credit, and the effect of radio in creating a mass culture).
	Debate the causes and effects of the social change and conflict between traditional and modern culture that took place during the 1920s, including: the role of women, the Red Scare, immigration quotas, Prohibition, and the Scopes trial.	Debate the causes and effects of the social change and conflict between traditional and modern culture that took place during the 1920s, including the role of women, the Red Scare, immigration quotas, Prohibition, and the Scopes trial.
	Analyze the Great Depression for its impact on the American family, including: Bonus Army, Hoovervilles, Dust Bowl, Dorothea Lange.	Analyze the Great Depression for its impact on the American family (including the Bonus Army, Hoovervilles, Dust Bowl, and Dorothea Lange).

	Investigate conditions created by the Dust Bowl for their impact on migration patterns during the Great Depression.	Investigate conditions created by the Dust Bowl for their impact on migration patterns during the Great Depression.
US.6	Compare the causes of the Great Depression, including: the uneven distribution of wealth; rampant stock market speculation; the collapse of the farm economy; policies of the federal government and the Federal Reserve System; overproduction of industry; and the impact of the Smoot-Hawley Tariff Act.	Assess the causes of the Great Depression (including the uneven distribution of wealth, rampant stock market speculation, the collapse of the farm economy, policies of the federal government, the Federal Reserve System, overproduction of industry, and the impact of the Smoot-Hawley Tariff Act).
	Investigate how President Hoover's initial conservative response to the Great Depression failed.	Assess President Herbert Hoover's initial conservative response to the Great Depression (including the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, the Bonus Army, rugged individualism, and trickle-down economics).
	Analyze President Franklin Roosevelt's New Deal as a response to the economic crisis of the Great Depression, including: the effectiveness of New Deal programs in relieving suffering, achieving economic recovery, and promoting organized labor.	Analyze President Franklin Roosevelt's New Deal as a response to the economic crisis of the Great Depression (including Keynesian economics and the effectiveness of New Deal programs in relieving suffering, achieving economic recovery, promoting organized labor, and incorporating reforms).
	Evaluate the impact of Franklin D. Roosevelt on the presidency and the New Deal's impact on the expansion of federal power.	Evaluate the impact of Franklin D. Roosevelt's presidency on the expansion of federal powers.
US.7	Explain the isolationist debate as it evolved from the 1920s to the bombing of Pearl Harbor and the subsequent change in United States' foreign policy.	Explain the isolationist debate as it evolved from the 1920s through the 1930s to the bombing of Pearl Harbor and the subsequent change in United States' foreign policy.
	Examine roles of significant World War II leaders, including: Franklin D. Roosevelt, Harry S Truman, Dwight D. Eisenhower, and George S Patton.	Examine roles of significant World War II leaders (including Franklin D. Roosevelt, Harry S. Truman, Dwight D. Eisenhower, Douglas MacArthur , and George S. Patton).

	Describe military strategies of World War II, including: blitzkrieg, island-hopping, and amphibious landings.	Identify the impact of military strategies of World War II (including blitzkrieg, island-hopping, and amphibious landings).
	Analyze war crimes committed during World War II, including: The Holocaust, the Bataan Death March, the Nuremberg Trials, including: the post-war Universal Declaration of Human Rights, and the Genocide Convention.	Analyze the US response to war crimes committed during World War II like the Holocaust and Bataan Death March (including the Nuremberg Trials, and the postwar Universal Declaration of Human Rights).
	Analyze the reasons for and results of dropping atomic bombs on Japan.	Analyze the reasons for and results of dropping atomic bombs on Japan.
	Describe the mobilization of various industries to meet war needs.	Describe the mobilization of various industries to meet war needs.
	Explain how the US expanded the US military through the use of selective service.	Explain the expansion of the US military through the selective service and the contributions of minority populations (including Native Americans, African Americans, Japanese Americans, and women).
	Trace the way in which the US government took control of the economy through rationing, price controls, limitations on labor unions, the sale of bonds and wage controls.	Trace the way in which the US government took control of the economy through rationing, price controls, limitations on labor unions, prohibition of discrimination in the defense industry , the sale of bonds, and wage controls.
	Identify ways in which the roles of women and minorities changed during the war.	Discuss the impact and challenges faced by women and minorities during the war (including A. Phillip Randolph, Bracero Program, the Zoot Suit Riots, Double V Campaign, and Rosie the Riveter).
	Summarize the discrimination the Japanese Americans faced during WWII. Include the Korematsu v. US supreme court case.	Summarize the discrimination that Japanese Americans faced during WWII including internment and Korematsu vs. United States (1944).
US.8	Distinguish between cold war and a conventional war.	Distinguish between cold war and conventional war.

	Locate areas of conflict during the Cold War from 1945 to 1960, including East and West Germany, Hungary, Poland, Cuba, Korea, and China.	Locate areas of conflict during the Cold War from 1945 to 1960 (including East and West Germany, Hungary, Poland, Cuba, Korea, and China).
	Analyze the breakdown of relations between the US and USSR after WWII.	Analyze the breakdown of relations between the U.S. and U.S.S.R. after WWII.
	Identify and explain the steps the US took to contain communism during the Truman and Eisenhower administration.	Identify and explain the steps the U.S. took to contain communism during the Truman and Eisenhower administrations.
	Describe how the Truman doctrine and the Marshall plan deepened the tensions between the US and USSR.	Describe how the Truman Doctrine and the Marshall Plan deepened the tensions between the U.S. and the U.S.S.R.
	Identify the importance of the following on cold war tensions, including: Berlin Blockade, Berlin Airlift, NATO, Warsaw Pact, and Iron Curtain.	Identify the importance of the following on Cold War tensions: Berlin Blockade, Berlin Airlift, NATO, Warsaw Pact, and Iron Curtain.
	Evaluate the role, function, and purpose of the United Nations (UN).	Evaluate the role, function, and purpose of the United Nations (UN).
	Examine the United States reaction to Communist takeover in China.	Examine the United States' reaction to Communist takeover in China.
	Summarize the Korean War and its impact on the Cold War.	Summarize the Korean War and its impact on the Cold War.
	Describe US government efforts to control the spread of communism within the United States and its impact on individual freedoms.	Describe U.S. government efforts to control the spread of communism within the United States and impact of the Red Scare on individual freedoms.
	Discuss the role of the space race in the cold war taking into account Sputnik, the U-2 incident, and NASA.	Discuss the role of the space race and the arms race in the Cold War (including Sputnik, the U-2 incident, and NASA).
		Explain the social and cultural changes in post war America (including the G.I. Bill, Interstate Highway Act, the Baby Boom, and the impact of television).

US.9	Analyze the domestic policies and events during the presidencies of Presidents Kennedy, Johnson, and Nixon, including: The New Frontier, Great Society, “the silent majority,” the anti-war and counter-cultural movements, the Watergate scandal, including the Supreme Court case, US v. Nixon.	Analyze the domestic events of Presidents Kennedy, Johnson, and Nixon (including The New Frontier, Great Society, the Silent Majority, the anti-war and counter-cultural movements, the Watergate scandal, and the Supreme Court case, U.S. vs. Nixon (1974)).
	Debate the reasons for the nation’s changing immigration policy, with emphasis on how the Immigration Act of 1965 and successor acts have transformed American society.	Debate the reasons for the nation’s changing immigration policy, with emphasis on how the Immigration Act of 1965 and successor actions have transformed American society.
	Cite and analyze the impact of other minority groups to those of the Civil Rights Movement led predominantly by African Americans, including: AIM, UFW, American Disabilities Act.	Analyze the impact of the African American Civil Rights Movement on other movements (including American Indian Movement (AIM), United Farm Workers (UFW), and the Disability Rights Movement).
	Describe the changing roles of women in society as reflected in the entry of more women into the labor force and the changing family structure, including Equal Pay Act.	Describe the changing roles of women in society as reflected in the entry of more women into the labor force and the changing family structure (including the Equal Pay Act, and the modern women’s movement).
	Analyze the impact of the environmental movement and the development of environmental protection laws.	Analyze the impact of the environmental movement and the development of environmental protection laws.
	Explain how the federal, state, and local governments have responded to demographic and social changes, including: population shifts to the suburbs, racial concentrations in the cities, Rustbelt-to-Sunbelt migration, international migration, decline of family farms, increases in out-of-wedlock births , and drug abuse.	Explain how the federal, state, and local governments have responded to demographic and social changes, including population shifts to the suburbs, racial concentrations in the cities, Rustbelt-to-Sunbelt migration, and drug abuse.
		Analyze the international policies and actions taken as a response to the Cold War (including U.S.

		involvement in Cuba, the escalation of the war in Vietnam as a result of the Gulf of Tonkin Resolution, and de-escalation of Cold War tensions through détente).
US.10	Appraise the influence of the conservative movement on social, economic and environmental issues from 1974 to 1992, including: Moral Majority, Roe vs. Wade, Bakke Case, Love Canal, Three Mile Island, Reaganomics, PACTO, etc.	Evaluate the conservative movement as a response to social, economic, and environmental issues from 1974 to 1992 (including Moral Majority, Roe vs. Wade (1973), Regents of the University of California vs. Bakke (1978), and Three Mile Island, Reaganomics).
	Analyze Reagan's and Bush's pro-active international policies, including: Invasion of Granada, Iran-Contra, SDI, End of the Cold War, Invasion of Panama, and Persian Gulf War.	Analyze President Reagan's and President Bush's international policies (including the Strategic Defense Initiative, Reagan Doctrine, Iran-Contra, End of the Cold War, Invasion of Grenada, Invasion of Panama, and Persian Gulf War).
		Analyze the response of the Carter administration to environmental issues, the Cold War, and conflicts in the Middle East.
US.11	Explain the importance of President Truman's order to integrate the US military and the federal government.	Explain the importance of President Truman's order to integrate the U.S. military and the federal government.
	Trace the federal government's involvement in the modern Civil Rights Movement, including: the abolition of the poll tax, the nationalization of state militias, Brown versus Board of Education in 1954, the Civil Rights Acts of 1957 and 1964, and the Voting Rights Act of 1965.	Trace the federal government's involvement in the modern Civil Rights Movement (including the abolition of the poll tax, nationalization of state militias, Brown vs. Board of Education (1954), the Civil Rights Acts of 1957 and 1964, and the Voting Rights Act of 1965).
	Explain contributions of individuals and groups to the modern Civil Rights Movement, including: Martin Luther King, Jr., James Meredith, Medgar Evers, Thurgood Marshall, the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC), the Student Nonviolent Coordinating	Explain contributions of individuals and groups to the modern Civil Rights Movement (including Martin Luther King, Jr., James Meredith, Medgar Evers, Thurgood Marshall, Rosa Parks, Fannie Lou Hamer , the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC), the Student Nonviolent

	Committee (SNCC), the Congress of Racial Equality (CORE), the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), and the civil rights foot soldiers.	Coordinating Committee (SNCC), the Congress of Racial Equality (CORE), the National Association for the Advancement Colored People (NAACP), and the grassroots efforts of the Civil Rights movement (civil rights foot soldiers)).
	Describe the development of a Black Power movement, including: the change in focus of the SNCC, the rise of Malcolm X, and Stokely Carmichael and the Black Panther movement.	Describe the development of the Black Power Movement (including the ideology of self-defense which inspired the change in focus of the SNCC, the rise of Malcolm X, Stokely Carmichael, and the Black Panther Movement).
	Describe the significance of Martin Luther King, Jr.'s Letter from a Birmingham Jail and his I Have a Dream speech.	Describe the significance of Martin Luther King Jr.'s "Letter from a Birmingham Jail" and his "I Have a Dream" speech.
	Describe the accomplishments of the modern civil rights movement, including: the growth of the African American middle class, increased political power, and declining rates of African American poverty.	Describe the accomplishments of the modern civil rights movement (including the growth of the African American middle class, increased political power, and declining rates of African American poverty).
		Evaluate the effectiveness of major non-violent demonstrations and events on the Civil Rights Movement (including Montgomery Bus Boycott, sit-ins, Freedom Rides, the March on Washington, and Selma March).
US.12	Examine the Contract with America, Impeachment Trial of William "Bill" Clinton, Eminent Domain issues, No Child Left Behind, Hurricane Katrina, and Affordable Care Act of 2010.	Examine domestic issues (including Contract with America, Impeachment Trial of William "Bill" Clinton, Eminent Domain, No Child Left Behind, Hurricane Katrina, and Affordable Care Act of 2010).
	Describe global trade agreements, terrorist attack of September 11, 2001, Operation Iraqi Freedom and the War in Afghanistan, and the Patriot Act, global terrorism, global climate	Describe the reactions to domestic and global terrorism (including Oklahoma City bombing, terrorist attack of September 11, 2001, Operation Iraqi Freedom, the War in Afghanistan, the U.S.A.

	concerns, immigration, national debt and technological trends.	P.A.T.R.I.O.T. Act, Transportation Security Administration (TSA), Homeland Security).
	Discuss the Election and 2008 and Barack Obama as the first African-American President and the unconventional Election of 2016 and the advent of Donald Trump.	Discuss the historic Presidential Elections of 2000, 2008, and 2016.
	Describe global trade agreements, Contract with America, impeachment trial of William “Bill” Clinton, terrorist attack of September 11, 2001, Operation Iraqi Freedom, war in Afghanistan, Patriot Act, election of the first African-American President Barack Obama, Affordable Care Act of 2010, domestic and global terrorism, global climate concerns, immigration, election of Donald Trump, national debt and technological trends.	Describe issues surrounding the changing global economy (including North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), immigration, national debt, technological trends, and global climate concerns).

Chart 2: Comparison of Similar 2018 and 2022 Indicators with commentary

2018	2022	Comments on changes in 2022:
US.2.1: Interpret the impact of change from workshop to factory on workers’ lives, including: The New Industrial Age from 1870 to 1900, the American Federation of Labor of Labor-Congress of Industrial Organizations (AFL-CIO), the Industrial Workers of the World (IWW), the Pullman Strike, the Haymarket Square Riot, and impact of John D. Rockefeller, Andrew Carnegie, Samuel Gompers, Eugene V. Debs, A. Philip Randolph, and Thomas Alva Edison.	US.2.1: Interpret the changes brought by industrialization to the American economy (including mass production in factories, creation of corporations and monopolies, influence of industrialists like John Rockefeller and Andrew Carnegie, the impact of inventions/innovations and inventors).	Removes the impact on workers’ lives; several list items from 2018 changed to the US.2.3 in 2022
US.2.3: Interpret the impact of the New Industrial Age on life in urban areas, including: working and living conditions, the Labor Union movement, “New Immigrants,” Knights of Labor, American Federation of Labor, and the Industrial Workers of the World, the Pullman Strike and the Haymarket Square Riot, Samuel Gompers, Eugene V. Debs, Jane Addams and the Social Gospel.	US.2.3: Interpret the impact of industrialization on workers on living conditions linked to urbanization, tenement living, social gospel, Jane Addams, and the lack of city services; the responses of workers to work and life challenges (including the formation of labor unions, the Knights of Labor, the American Federation of Labor the industrial Workers of the World, the rise of labor leaders, Eugene V. Debs, Samuel Gompers, the impact of strikes, Haymarket Riot, Homestead Strike, and Pullman Strike).	Adds tenement housing; includes list items from 2018 US.2.1

US.3.2: Trace the development of political, social, and cultural movements and subsequent reforms, including: Jim Crow laws, Plessy vs. Ferguson, women’s suffrage, temperance movement, Niagara movement, public education, the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), and Marcus Garvey.	US.3.2: Trace the development of political, social, and cultural movements and subsequent reforms (including women’s suffrage, Temperance Movement, and compulsory public education).	Splits US.3.2 (2018) into two indicators
	US.3.3: Evaluate the limitation of reform efforts of the voices of the Niagara Movement, the National Association of the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), Ida B. Wells, Booker T. Washington, W.E.B. Du Bois, and Marcus Garvey in response to Jim Crow Laws, Plessy vs. Ferguson (1896).	
US.5.2: Analyze works of major American artists and writers, including: F. Scott Fitzgerald, Ernest Hemingway, Langston Hughes, and H.L. Mecken, to characterize the era of the 1920s.	US.5.2: Analyze the impact of the Lost Generation writers on American culture (including F. Scott Fitzgerald, Ernest Hemingway, John Steinbeck, and William Faulkner).	Removes black artists to US.5.8, and adds other authors
US.5.8: Examine notable authors of the 1920s, including: John Steinbeck, William Faulkner, and Zora Neale Hurston.	US.5.8: Evaluate the impact of the Harlem Renaissance and Black Nationalism on the social and cultural landscape of America (including Langston Hughes, Zora Neal Hurston, Marcus Garvey, Louis Armstrong, Duke Ellington, and Ella Fitzgerald).	Moves authors to US.5.2 and creates an emphasis on the Harlem Renaissance and Black Nationalism
US.6.2: Investigate how President Hoover’s initial conservative response to the Great Depression failed.	US.6.2: Assess President Herbert Hoover’s initial conservative response to the Great Depression (including the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, the Bonus Army, rugged individualism, and trickle-down economics).	Remove language of “failure”; adds specific actions of Hoover and the government;
US.6.3: Analyze President Franklin Roosevelt’s New Deal as a response to the economic crisis of the Great Depression, including: the effectiveness of New Deal programs in relieving suffering, achieving economic recovery, and promoting organized labor.	US.6.3: Analyze President Franklin Roosevelt’s New Deal as a response to the economic crisis of the Great Depression (including Keynesian economics and the effectiveness of New Deal programs in relieving suffering, achieving economic recovery, promoting organized labor, and incorporating reforms).	Adds Keynesian economics and reforms
US.7.4: Analyze war crimes committed during World War II, including: The Holocaust, the Bataan Death March, the Nuremberg Trials, including: the post-war Universal Declaration of Human Rights, and the Genocide Convention.	US.7.4: Analyze the U.S. response to war crimes committed during World War II like the Holocaust and Bataan Death March (including the Nuremberg Trials, and the postwar Universal Declaration of Human Rights).	Changes focus to “U.S. response”; removes Genocide convention
US.7.7: Explain how the U.S. expanded the U.S. military through the use of selective service.	US.7.7: Explain the expansion of the U.S. military through the selective service and the contributions of minority populations (including Native Americans, African Americans, Japanese Americans, and women).	Adds specific examples of “contributions” of minority populations to WW2
US.7.9: Identify ways in which the roles of women and minorities changed during the war.	US.7.9: Discuss the impact and challenges faced by women and minorities during the war (including A. Phillip Randolph, Bracero Program, the Zoot Suit Riots, Double V Campaign, and Rosie the Riveter).	Changes focus to “impact and challenges faced” by minority populations;

		provides specific examples
US.10.2: Analyze Reagan’s and Bush’s pro-active international policies, including: Invasion of Granada, Iran-Contra, SDI, End of the Cold War, Invasion of Panama, and Persian Gulf War.	US.10.2: Analyze President Reagan’s and President Bush’s international policies (including the Strategic Defense Initiative, Reagan Doctrine, Iran-Contra, End of the Cold War, Invasion of Grenada, Invasion of Panama, and Persian Gulf War).	Removing language of being “pro-active”
US.10.2: Describe global trade agreements, terrorist attack of September 11, 2001, Operation Iraqi Freedom and the War in Afghanistan, and the Patriot Act, global terrorism, global climate concerns, immigration, national debt and technological trends.	US.10.2: Describe the reactions to domestic and global terrorism (including Oklahoma City bombing, terrorist attack of September 11, 2001, Operation Iraqi Freedom, the War in Afghanistan, the U.S.A. P.A.T.R.I.O.T. Act, Transportation Security Administration (TSA), Homeland Security).	Changes focus to “reactions” to terrorism; adds examples
US.10.3: Discuss the Election and 2008 and Barack Obama as the first African-American President and the unconventional Election of 2016 and the advent of Donald Trump.	US.10.3: Discuss the historic Presidential Elections of 2000, 2008, and 2016.	Adds election of 2000; removes explanations of historic elections
US.10.4: Describe global trade agreements, Contract with America, impeachment trial of William “Bill” Clinton, terrorist attack of September 11, 2001, Operation Iraqi Freedom, war in Afghanistan, Patriot Act, election of the first African-American President Barack Obama, Affordable Care Act of 2010, domestic and global terrorism, global climate concerns, immigration, election of Donald Trump, national debt and technological trends.	US.10.4: Describe issues surrounding the changing global economy (including North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), immigration, national debt, technological trends, and global climate concerns).	Removes common examples with US.10.2 and US.10.3; centers focus on economics

Chart 3: Mississippi Government Identical Standards:

Indicator	Identifier (USG._._)	
	2018	2022
Examine the equality of all citizens under the law.	1.2	1.2
Compare and contrast majority rule and minority rights.	1.3	1.3
Compare and contrast the difference between private and civic life.	1.6	1.6
Trace the development of Athenian democracy and the Roman republic.	2.1	2.1

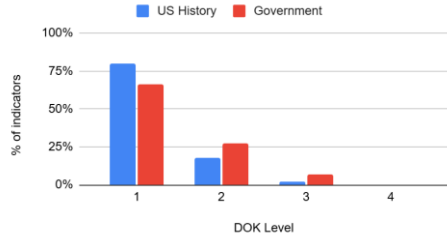
Describe the guarantee of the “rights of Englishmen” that had been violated by the British government through statutory regulation	2.4	2.4
Evaluate the Articles of Confederation as a ruling document.	2.6	2.5
Analyze the natural rights philosophies expressed in the Declaration of Independence.	2.5	2.6
Examine the importance of Shay’s Rebellion in the formation of the Constitution.	2.7	2.7
Identify the organization and jurisdiction of federal, state, and local courts and the interrelationships among them.	3.6	3.2
Evaluate how John Marshall established the Supreme Court as an independent, co-equal branch of government through his opinion in Marbury vs Madison (1803).	3.10	3.5
Investigate how the amendment process protects both the national government and state governments.	4.5	5.5
Evaluate the balance between individual liberties and the public order.	5.4	6.3
Investigate the controversies that have resulted over changing interpretations of civil rights (e.g., Plessy vs Ferguson (1896), Brown vs Board Education (1954), Miranda vs Arizona (1966), Regents of the University of California vs Bakke (1978), Adarand Constructors Inc. vs Pena (1995), United States vs Virginia (VMI) (1996), etc.).	5.9	6.7
Evaluate the decision Citizens United vs Federal Election Commission (2010) on campaign financing.	6.10	7.2
Identify major interest groups and their major agenda messages (e.g., AARP, NRA, ACLU, American Bar Association, American Medical Association, National Chamber of Commerce, Sierra Club, etc.).	6.6	7.4

Evaluate the responsibility of citizens to thoughtfully examine information presented by media and interest groups in forming individual political opinions.	6.7	7.5
Evaluate the effectiveness of citizen efforts to influence decisions of state and local governments by examining events.	7.1	8.1
Discuss the legal obligations to obey the law, serve as a juror, and pay taxes.	7.8	8.8

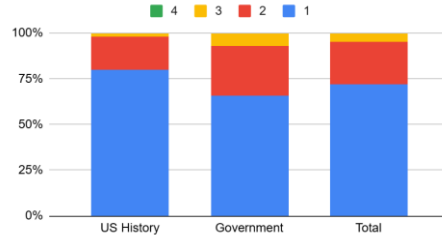
Appendix G

Louisiana

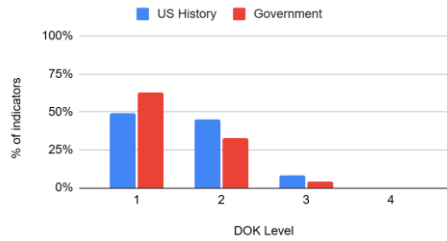
Louisiana (1997)



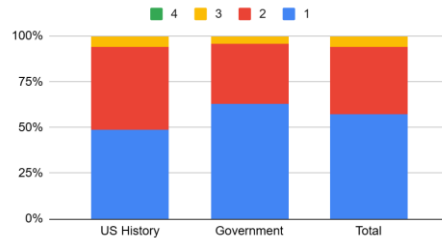
Louisiana (1997) By Course



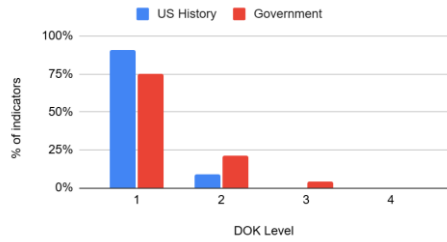
Louisiana (2011)



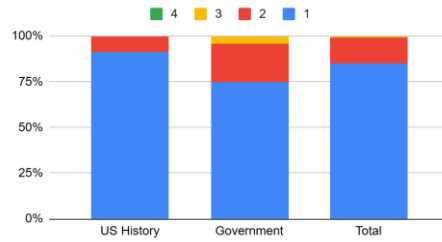
Louisiana (2011) By Course



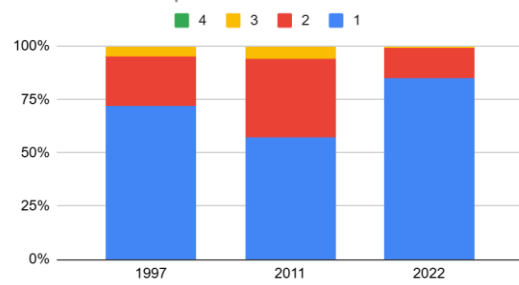
Louisiana (2022)



Louisiana (2022) By Course



Louisiana Comparison



1997 Iteration: The five “standards” addressing the content between colonization and industrialization.

H-1B-H1: analyzing the significant changes that resulted from interactions among the peoples of Europe, Africa, and the Americas.

H-1B-H2: summarizing the process by which the United States was colonized and later became an independent nation.

H-1B-H3: analyzing the development of the American constitutional system.

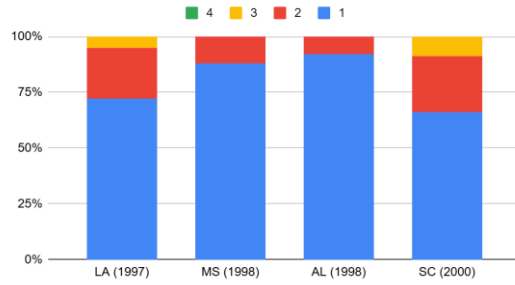
H-1B-H4: tracing territorial expansion and reform movements in the United States.

H-1B-H5: analyzing the origins, major events, and effects of the Civil War and Reconstruction. (p. 40-41)

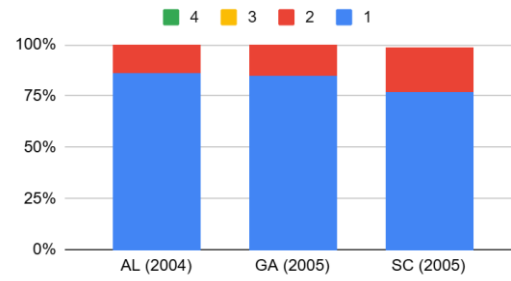
Appendix H

Cross State Analyses

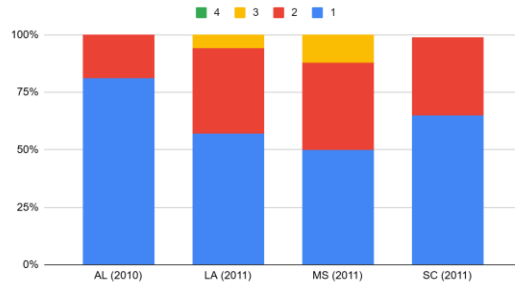
Pre-NCLB Era



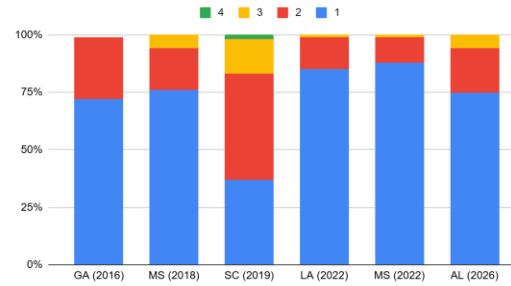
2001-2009



2010-2015



2016-Present



Appendix I

Chapter 5 Tables

Table 6 - Years Covered in U.S. History Courses

State	Iteration	Years Covered in U.S. History
SC	2000	End of Reconstruction to the present
	2005	The settlement of North America to the present
	2011	Colonial Regions to the present
	2019	1607 to the present
GA	2005	17th Century to the Presidency of George W. Bush
	2016	17th Century to the 2008 Election
AL	1998	U.S. History 1: Beginnings to 1900 U.S. History 2: 1900 to the Present
	2004	U.S. History 1: European Exploration to 1877 U.S. History 2: 1887 to the Present
	2010	U.S. History 1: Beginnings to the Industrial Revolution U.S. History 2: The Industrial Revolution to the Present
	2026	U.S. History 1: Revolution to Progressive Era U.S. History 2: World War I to Present
MS	1998	1877 to the Present
	2011	Post-Reconstruction to Present
	2018	1877 to Present
	2022	1887 to Present
LA	1997	European Exploration - Recent Developments <i>True start = Industrialization</i>
	2011	Western Expansion to the Modern Age
	2022	1776-2008

Table 7 - Indicators Regarding Enslavement

State	Iteration	Vocabulary related to Enslavement
SC	2000	N/A
	2005	4.1 - Compare the social and cultural characteristics of the North, the South, and the West during the antebellum period, including the lives of African Americans and social reform movements such as abolition and women's rights. 4.2 Explain how the political events and issues that divided the nation led to civil war, including the compromises reached to maintain the balance of free and slave states, the successes and failures of the abolitionist movement, the conflicting views on states' rights and federal authority, the emergence of the Republican Party and its win in 1860, and the formation of the Confederate States of America.
	2011	2.4 - Compare the social and cultural characteristics of the North, the South, and the West during the antebellum period, including the lives of African Americans and social reform movements such as abolition and women's rights. 3.1 - Evaluate the relative importance of political events and issues that divided the nation and led to civil war, including the compromises reached to maintain the balance of free and slave states, the abolitionist movement, the Dred Scott case, conflicting views on states' rights and federal authority, the emergence of the Republican Party, and the formation of the Confederate States of America.
	2019	N/A
GA	2005	1.a - Explain Virginia's development, including the Virginia Company, tobacco cultivation, relationships with Native Americans such as Powhatan, development of the House of Burgesses, Bacon's Rebellion, and the development of slavery. 2.b - Describe the Middle Passage, growth of the African population and African-American culture 6.a - Explain the Northwest Ordinance's importance in the westward migration of Americans and on slavery, public education, and the addition of new states. 7.b - Describe reform movements, specifically temperance, abolition, and public schools. 8.a - Explain how slavery became a significant issue in American politics, include the slave rebellion of Nat Turner and the rise of abolitionism (William Lloyd Garrison, Frederick Douglass, and the Grimke sisters) 8.b - Explain the Missouri Compromise and the issue of slavery in western states and territories.

	2016	2.b - Describe the Middle Passage, the growth of the African population and their contributions, including but not limited to architecture, agriculture, and foodways. 4.e - Examine the roles of women, American Indians, and enslaved and free Blacks in supporting the war effort. 5.a - Examine the strengths of the Articles of Confederation, including but not limited to the Land Ordinance of 1785, Northwest Ordinance of 1787 and their influence on westward migration, slavery, public education, and the addition of new states 7.d - Explain how the significance of slavery grew in American politics including slave rebellions and the rise of abolitionism. 10.b - Investigate the efforts of the Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands (the Freedmen's Bureau) to support poor whites, former slaves, and American Indians.
AL	1998	1.5 - Explain the impact of North American slavery on colonial life.
	2004	1.1.c - Explaining how the institution of slavery developed in the colonies 1.3.c - Comparing roles in and perspectives of the American Revolution from different regions and groups in society, including men, women, white settlers, free and enslaved African Americans, and Native Americans 1.8 - Trace the development of efforts to abolish slavery prior to the Civil War. 1.8.a - Describing the abolition of slavery in most Northern states in the late eighteenth century 1.8.b - Describing the rise of religious movements in opposition to slavery, including the objections of the Quakers 1.8.c - Describing the impact of the principle of "inalienable rights" as a motivating factor for movements to oppose slavery 1.8.d - Describing the founding of the first abolitionist societies by Benjamin Rush and Benjamin Franklin and the role played by later critics of slavery, including William Lloyd Garrison, Frederick Douglass, Angelina and Sarah Grimké, Henry David Thoreau, and Charles Sumner 1.8.e - Explaining the importance of the Northwest Ordinance of 1787 that banned slavery in new states north of the Ohio River 1.8.f - Describing the rise of the underground railroad and its leaders, including Harriet Tubman and the impact of Harriet Beecher Stowe's Uncle Tom's Cabin
	2010	1.1.d - Explaining triangular trade and the development of slavery in the colonies 1.3.d - Comparing perspectives of differing groups in society and their roles in the American Revolution, including men, women, white settlers, free and enslaved African Americans, and American Indians 1.9 - Explain dynamics of economic nationalism during the Era of Good Feelings, including transportation systems, Henry Clay's American System,

		slavery and the emergence of the plantation system, and the beginning of industrialism in the Northeast. 1.12 - Describe the founding of the first abolitionist societies by Benjamin Rush and Benjamin Franklin and the role played by later critics of slavery, including William Lloyd Garrison, Frederick Douglass, Sojourner Truth, Angelina and Sarah Grimké, Henry David Thoreau, and Charles Sumner. 1.12.a - Describing the rise of religious movements in opposition to slavery, including objections of the Quakers 1.12.b - Explaining the importance of the Northwest Ordinance of 1787 that banned slavery in new states north of the Ohio River 1.12.c - Describing the rise of the Underground Railroad and its leaders, including Harriet Tubman and the impact of Harriet Beecher Stowe's Uncle Tom's Cabin, on the abolitionist movement 1.13.a - Describing Alabama's role in the developing sectionalism of the United States from 1819 to 1861, including participation in slavery, secession, the Indian War, and reliance on cotton
	2026	1.1e - Compare and contrast the contributions of different groups in colonial America to the War for Independence and the effects of the war on these groups, including women, Native Americans, free and enslaved Black Americans, and Loyalists. 1.2c - Describe the major issues debated at the Constitutional Convention and critique the solutions produced, including the distribution of political power among states and within the federal government, the conduct of foreign affairs, commerce with Native Americans, the election of the executive, and support for slavery as a regional and federal issue. 1.4 - Assess the impact of the American Revolution and its rhetoric on the status of slavery in the newly formed United States. 1.4a - Describe the growth of an anti-slavery movement in northern states through the founding of the first abolitionist societies, passage of gradual emancipation laws, court cases, and actions of individuals. 1.4b - Explain why the Northwest Ordinance's ban on slavery in new states north of the Ohio River (1787) was significant. 1.8 - Explain how the acquisition of new land in the South contributed to the growth of the cotton economy and caused an increased demand for enslaved labor. 1.8a - Analyze the domestic slave trade/forced migration, labor, and conditions experienced by enslaved people in the United States. 1.8b - Describe how enslaved people created their own unique culture, including foodways, spiritual beliefs, and ceremonies. 1.9 - Trace the growth and evolution of the abolitionist movement, examining the pivotal contributions of key abolitionist figures and analyzing the reactions of both Southern and Northern communities to this movement. 1.9a - Describe forms of resistance to slavery demonstrated by enslaved and free Black Americans, and assess the impact of resistance on Southern states' slave codes.

		1.9b - Describe the rise of religious opposition to slavery during the Second Great Awakening, including the objections of Quakers, and how this fostered schisms within American churches. 1.9c - Identify leading abolitionists, including Frederick Douglass and William Lloyd Garrison, and summarize the arguments they made in opposition to slavery and in rebuttal to pro-slavery rhetoric. 1.9d - Evaluate the impact of the Underground Railroad and its leaders on the national discussion over slavery, including the passage of the Fugitive Slave Act and publication of Harriet Beecher Stowe's <i>Uncle Tom's Cabin</i>. 1.10 - Explain how slavery increased economic and social divisions that led to heightened sectionalism. 1.10a - Compare the boundaries defining the North and the South, examining their geographical and economic distinctions and the disparities between agrarian and industrial interests, including the South's reliance on enslaved labor. 1.11 - Analyze how government policies and events related to slavery led to increased sectionalism throughout the United States prior to the Civil War. 1.11a - Summarize major legislation and court decisions from 1820 to 1861 that sought to address the issue of slavery, and describe the sectional responses to these government actions. 1.11b - Develop an argument to show how the causes and consequences of the Texas Revolution and Mexican-American War greatly escalated sectional tension in the debate over slavery and expansion. 1.11c - Describe how Alabamians were impacted by growing sectionalism from 1819 to 1861, including the reliance on cotton, participation in slavery, the Second Creek War, and secession. 1.11d - Analyze the effect of sectionalism and debate over slavery on United States political parties in the 1850s and how this led to Abraham Lincoln's 1860 election and the secession of southern states. 1.12 - Explain the progression of the Civil War, analyzing the events, decisions, and figures that led to United States victory and the abolition of slavery. 1.12c - Analyze the social, economic, and political conditions that affected citizens during the Civil War and explain how both citizens and enslaved people contributed to the war effort. 1.12e - Trace the progression of emancipation during and after the Civil War, including the effects of self-emancipation, the Emancipation Proclamation, Juneteenth, and the Thirteenth Amendment.
MS	1998	N/A
	2011	N/A
	2018	N/A

	2022	N/A
LA	1997	N/A
	2011	N/A
	2022	9 - Analyze the development and abolition of slavery in the United States. 9.a - Describe the origins of the transatlantic slave trade, Middle passage, and early spread of slavery in the Americas. 9.b - Describe the experiences of enslaved people on the Middle Passage, at slave auctions, and on plantations. 9.c - Describe the significance of invention of the cotton gin and its effects on slavery and economy. 9.d - Explain how slavery contributed to U.S. industrial and economic growth. 9.e - Explain the effects of abolition efforts by key individuals including Sojourner Truth, William Lloyd Garrison, Frederick Douglass, and Harriet Beecher Stowe. 9.f - Explain how slavery is the antithesis of freedom. 9.g - Analyze the causes and effects of the Missouri Compromise, the Compromise of 1850, and the Kansas Nebraska-Act. 9. H - Explain the outcome of the Dred Scott v. Sandford (1857) decision, including it later being called a “self- inflicted wound.” 9.i - Describe the purpose of the Emancipation Proclamation and its effects. 9.j - Evaluate the significance and extension of citizenship rights to Black Americans included in the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth Amendments to the Constitution of the United States.

Table 8 - Indicators Regarding the Civil Rights Movement

State	Iteration	
SC	2000	12.2.5 - evaluate the struggle for racial and gender equality and the extension of civil liberties
	2005	9.5 - Explain the movements for racial and gender equity and civil liberties, including their initial strategies, landmark court cases and legislation, the roles of key civil rights advocates, and the influence of the civil rights movement on other groups seeking ethnic and gender equity.
	2011	8.1 - Analyze the African American Civil Rights Movement, including initial strategies, landmark court cases and legislation, the roles of key civil rights advocates and the media, and the influence of the Civil Rights Movement on other groups seeking equality.

		8.2 - Compare the social and economic policies of presidents Lyndon Johnson and Richard Nixon, including support for civil rights legislation, programs for the elderly and the poor, environmental protection, and the impact of these policies on politics.
	2019	5.CC - Evaluate continuities and changes during the Civil Rights Movement and other subsequent movements for equal rights.
GA	2005	22 - The student will identify dimensions of the Civil Rights Movement, 1945-1970 22.c - Explain <i>Brown v Board of Education</i> and efforts to resist the decision 22.d - Describe the significance of Martin Luther King Jr.'s <i>Letter from a Birmingham Jail</i> and his <i>I Have a Dream</i> speech. 22.e - Describe the causes and consequences of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the Voting Rights Act of 1965. 24 - The student will analyze the impact of social change movements and organizations of the 1960s. 24.a - Compare and contrast the Student Non-Violent Coordinating Committee (SNCC) and the Southern Leadership Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC) tactics, include sit-ins, freedom rides, and changing composition.
	2016	21.b - Connect major domestic issues to their social effects including the passage of civil rights legislation and Johnson's Great Society, following the assassination of John F. Kennedy. 21.c - Describe the impact of television on American culture including the presidential debates (Kennedy/Nixon, 1960), news coverage of the Civil Rights Movement, the moon landing, and the war in Vietnam. 21.d - Investigate the growth, influence, and tactics of civil rights groups, Martin Luther King, Jr., the Letter from Birmingham Jail, the I Have a Dream Speech, and Cesar Chavez.
AL	1998	N/A
	2004	2.12 - Trace events of the modern Civil Rights Movement from post-World War II to 1970 that resulted in social and economic changes, including the Montgomery bus boycott, the desegregation of Little Rock Central High School, the march on Washington, and the Freedom Rides. 2.12.a - Tracing the federal government's involvement in the modern Civil Rights Movement, including the abolition of the poll tax, the desegregation of the armed forces, the nationalization of state militias, Brown versus Board of Education, the Civil Rights Acts of 1957 and 1964, and the Voting Rights Act of 1965 2.12.b - Explaining contributions of individuals and groups to the modern Civil Rights Movement, including Martin Luther King, Jr., James Meredith, Medgar Evers, the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC), the

		Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC), and the Congress of Racial Equality (CORE) 2.12.c - Identifying people and events in Alabama that influenced the modern Civil Rights Movement, including Rosa Parks, Autherine Lucy, John Patterson, George C. Wallace, Vivian Malone, Fred Shuttlesworth, the Children's March, the Sixteenth Street Baptist Church bombing, and the Selma-to-Montgomery march 2.12.d - Describing the development of a Black Power movement, including the change in focus of the SNCC, the rise of Malcolm X, and Stokely Carmichael and the Black Panther Movement 2.12.e - Describing the impact of African-American entrepreneurs on the modern Civil Rights Movement
	2010	2.14 - Trace events of the modern Civil Rights Movement from post-World War II to 1970 that resulted in social and economic changes, including the Montgomery Bus Boycott, the desegregation of Little Rock Central High School, the March on Washington, Freedom Rides, the Sixteenth Street Baptist Church bombing, and the Selma-to-Montgomery March. 2.14.a - Tracing the federal government's involvement in the modern Civil Rights Movement, including the abolition of the poll tax, the nationalization of state militias, Brown versus Board of Education in 1954, the Civil Rights Acts of 1957 and 1964, and the Voting Rights Act of 1965 2.14.b - Explaining contributions of individuals and groups to the modern Civil Rights Movement, including Martin Luther King, Jr.; James Meredith; Medgar Evers; Thurgood Marshall; the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC); the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC); the Congress of Racial Equality (CORE); the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP); and the civil rights foot soldiers 2.14.c - Appraising contributions of persons and events in Alabama that influenced the modern Civil Rights Movement, including Rosa Parks, Autherine Lucy, John Patterson, George C. Wallace, Vivian Malone Jones, Fred Shuttlesworth, the Children's March, and key local persons and events 2.14.d - Describing the development of a Black Power movement, including the change in focus of the SNCC, the rise of Malcolm X, and Stokely Carmichael and the Black Panther movement 2.14.e - Describing the economic impact of African-American entrepreneurs on the modern Civil Rights Movement, including S. B. Fuller and A. G. Gaston
	2026	2.10 - Evaluate the impact of events, organizations, and individual actions on the expansion of the Civil Rights Movement nationally. 2.10a - Identify and explain key events from 1945 to 1955 that brought about the emergence of a large-scale movement for civil rights.

		2.10b - Analyze the extent to which the actions and campaigns of civil rights activists and organizations from 1954 to 1965 prompted federal measures to advance civil and human rights. 2.10c - Compare and contrast the actions and philosophies of key civil rights leaders and organizations, including Reverend Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. and Malcolm X. 2.10d - Summarize the political, economic, and physical means by which opponents of the Civil Rights Movement sought to limit its achievements. 2.10e - Identify key Alabamians involved in the Civil Rights Movement, and describe how they provided leadership, generated change, or demonstrated resistance to the Civil Rights Movement. 2.14 - Explain shifts in the scope of the Civil Rights Movement from the mid-1960s into the 1970s, including geographic regions, issues of focus, and participation. 2.14a - Explain how the Civil Rights Movement inspired other movements for civil and human rights.
MS	1998	1.b - Explain the emergence of modern America from a domestic perspective (e.g., frontier experience, Industrial Revolution and organized labor, reform movements of Populism and Progressivism, Women's Movement, Civil Rights Movement, the New Deal, etc.). 5.a - Examine various reform movements (e.g., Civil Rights, Women's Movement, etc.). 5.c - Examine the role of government in the preservation of citizens' rights (e.g., 19th Amendment, Civil Rights Act of 1964).
	2011	2.a - Explain how American society has been impacted by the entry of more women, minorities, and immigrant workers into the labor force. 4 - Understand how the Civil Rights Movement achieved social and political change in the United States and the impact of the Civil Rights struggle of African Americans on other groups (including but not limited to feminists, Native Americans, Hispanics, immigrant groups, and individuals with disabilities). 4.a - Analyze the issues that gave rise to the Civil Rights Movement from post-reconstruction to the modern movement. 4.b - Trace the major events of the modern movement and compare and contrast the strategies and tactics for social change used by leading individuals/groups. 4.c. Analyze the response of federal and state governments to the goals (including but not limited to ending de jure and de facto segregation and economic inequality) of the Civil Rights Movement. 4.d. Evaluate the impact of the Civil Rights Movement in expanding democracy in the United States. 4.e. Compare and contrast the goals and objectives of other minority and immigrant groups to those of the Civil Rights Movement led predominantly by African-Americans.

2018	9.3 - Cite and analyze the impact of other minority groups to those of the Civil Rights Movement led predominantly by African Americans, including: AIM, UFW, American Disabilities Act. 11 - Civil Rights Movement: Evaluate the impact of the Civil Rights Movement on social and political change in the United States. 11. Explain the importance of President Truman's order to integrate the U.S. military and the federal government. 11.2 - Trace the federal government's involvement in the modern Civil Rights Movement, including: the abolition of the poll tax, the nationalization of state militias, Brown versus Board of Education in 1954, the Civil Rights Acts of 1957 and 1964, and the Voting Rights Act of 1965. 11.3 - Explain contributions of individuals and groups to the modern Civil Rights Movement, including: Martin Luther King, Jr., James Meredith, Medgar Evers, Thurgood Marshall, the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC), the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC), the Congress of Racial Equality (CORE), the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), and the civil rights foot soldiers. 11.4 - Describe the development of a Black Power movement, including: the change in focus of the SNCC, the rise of Malcolm X, and Stokely Carmichael and the Black Panther movement. 11.5 - Describe the significance of Martin Luther King, Jr.'s Letter from a Birmingham Jail and his I Have a Dream speech. 11.6 - Describe the accomplishments of the modern civil rights movement, including: the growth of the African American middle class, increased political power, and declining rates of African American poverty.
2022	9.3 - Analyze the impact of the African American Civil Rights Movement on other movements (including American Indian Movement (AIM), United Farm Workers (UFW), and the Disability Rights Movement). 11 - Evaluate the impact of the Civil Rights Movement on social and political change in the United States. 11.1 - Explain the importance of President Truman's order to integrate the U.S. military and the federal government. 11.2 - Trace the federal government's involvement in the modern Civil Rights Movement (including the abolition of the poll tax, nationalization of state militias, Brown vs. Board of Education (1954), the Civil Rights Acts of 1957 and 1964, and the Voting Rights Act of 1965). 11.3 - Explain contributions of individuals and groups to the modern Civil Rights Movement (including Martin Luther King, Jr., James Meredith, Medgar Evers, Thurgood Marshall, Rosa Parks, Fannie Lou Hamer, the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC), the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC), the Congress of Racial Equality (CORE), the National Association for the Advancement Colored People (NAACP), and the grassroots efforts of the Civil Rights movement (civil rights foot soldiers)).

		11.4 - Describe the development of the Black Power Movement (including the ideology of self-defense which inspired the change in focus of the SNCC, the rise of Malcolm X, Stokely Carmichael, and the Black Panther Movement). 11.5 - Describe the significance of Martin Luther King Jr.'s "Letter from a Birmingham Jail" and his "I Have a Dream" speech. 11.6 - Describe the accomplishments of the modern civil rights movement (including the growth of the African American middle class, increased political power, and declining rates of African American poverty). 11.7 - Evaluate the effectiveness of major non-violent demonstrations and events on the Civil Rights Movement (including Montgomery Bus Boycott, sit-ins, Freedom Rides, the March on Washington, and Selma March).
LA	1997	1B-H15-48 - Identify the primary leaders of the Civil Rights Movement and describe major issues and accomplishments
	2011	5.3 - Explain how the post-war social movements caused change by analyzing the methods used by the leaders, the effectiveness of legislation, and the impact of key events 5.4 - Describe the role and importance of the Civil Rights movement in the expansion of opportunities for African Americans in the United States
	2022	16 - Analyze causes, major events, and key leaders of the civil rights movement. 16.a - Analyze the origins and goals of the civil rights movement, the effects of segregation (de jure and de facto), and efforts to desegregate schools, transportation, and public places. 16.b - Analyze how the ideas, work, and life of Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. influenced civil rights movements in the United States, including civil disobedience, service with the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC), writings such as his "Letter from a Birmingham Jail" and "I Have a Dream" speech, and his assassination. 16.c - Explain how key individuals and groups contributed to the expansion of civil rights in the United States, including A. Philip Randolph, Jackie Robinson, Rosa Parks, Medgar Evers, Ruby Bridges, Shirley Chisholm, John Lewis, Malcolm X, and Thurgood Marshall. 16.d - Analyze the role and importance of key events during the civil rights movement, including the murder of Emmett Till, Baton Rouge Bus Boycott, Montgomery Bus Boycott, Little Rock Central High School desegregation, Greensboro Sit-Ins, Freedom Rides, demonstrations in Birmingham, 1963 March on Washington, Freedom Summer, and Selma to Montgomery Marches. 16.e - Analyze the role of the federal government in advancing civil rights, including Brown v. Board of Education (1954), the Twenty-Fourth Amendment, the Civil Rights Act of 1964, and the Voting Rights Act of 1965.

Table 9 - Indicators Related to Women

State	Iteration	
SC	2000	12.1.6 - examine the changing role of women in the political and social context
	2005	5.4 - Analyze the rise of the labor movement, including the composition of the workforce of the country in terms of gender, race/ethnicity, and skills; working conditions for men, women, and children; and union protests and strikes and the government's reactions to these forms of unrest. 5.5 - Explain the causes and effects of urbanization in late nineteenth-century America, including the movement from farm to city, the continuation of the women's suffrage movement, and the migration of African Americans to the North and the Midwest. 7.3 - Explain the causes and effects of the social conflict and change that took place during the 1920s, including the role of women and their attainment of the right to vote, the "Red Scare" and the Sacco and Vanzetti case, the resurgence of the Ku Klux Klan, immigration quotas, Prohibition, and the Scopes trial. 7.5 - Compare the first and second New Deals as responses to the economic bust of the Great Depression, including the rights of women and minorities in the workplace and the successes, controversies, and failures of recovery and reform measures such as the labor movement. 8.3 - Summarize the impact of World War II and war mobilization on the home front, including war bond drives, rationing, the role of women and minorities in the workforce, and racial and ethnic tensions such as those caused by the internment of Japanese Americans. 9.1 - Explain the causes and effects of social and cultural changes in postwar America, including educational programs, expanding suburbanization, the emergence of the consumer culture, the secularization of society and the reemergence of religious conservatism, and the roles of women in American society.
	2011	2.4 - Compare the social and cultural characteristics of the North, the South, and the West during the antebellum period, including the lives of African Americans and social reform movements such as abolition and women's rights. 4.6 - Compare the accomplishments and limitations of the women's suffrage movement and the Progressive Movement in affecting social and political reforms in America, including the roles of the media and of reformers such as Carrie Chapman Catt, Alice Paul, Jane Addams, and presidents Theodore Roosevelt and Woodrow Wilson.

		6.2 - Explain the causes and effects of the social change and conflict between traditional and modern culture that took place during the 1920s, including the role of women, the “Red Scare”, the resurgence of the Ku Klux Klan, immigration quotas, Prohibition, and the Scopes trial. 6.4 - Analyze President Franklin Roosevelt’s New Deal as a response to the economic crisis of the Great Depression, including the effectiveness of New Deal programs in relieving suffering and achieving economic recovery, in protecting the rights of women and minorities, and in making significant reforms to protect the economy such as Social Security and labor laws. 7.2 - Evaluate the impact of war mobilization on the home front, including consumer sacrifices, the role of women and minorities in the workforce, and limits on individual rights that resulted in the internment of Japanese Americans. 7.6 - Analyze the causes and consequences of social and cultural changes in postwar America, including educational programs, the consumer culture and expanding suburbanization, the advances in medical and agricultural technology that led to changes in the standard of living and demographic patterns, and the roles of women in American society.
	2019	N/A
GA	2005	7.d - Explain women’s efforts to gain suffrage, including Elizabeth Cady Stanton and the Seneca Falls Conference. 13.b - Identify Jane Addams and Hull House and describe the role of women in reform movements. 15.a - Describe passage of the Eighteenth Amendment, establishing Prohibition, and the Nineteenth Amendment, and establishing women’s suffrage. 24.b Describe the National Organization of Women (NOW) and the origins and goals of the modern women’s movement.
	2016	4.e - Examine the roles of women, American Indians, and enslaved and free Blacks in supporting the war effort. 16.b - Describe the effects of the Eighteenth and Nineteenth Amendments. 19.d - Investigate the domestic impact of the war including war mobilization, as indicated by rationing, wartime conversion, and the role of women and African Americans or Blacks. 22.b - Connect major domestic issues to their social effects including the creation of the Environmental Protection Agency, the emergence of the National Organization for Women, Nixon’s resignation due to the Watergate scandal, and his pardon by Ford.
AL	1998	1.6 - Analyze the roles of free Blacks and women in colonial America.

	2004	1.3.c - Comparing roles in and perspectives of the American Revolution from different regions and groups in society, including men, women, white settlers, free and enslaved African Americans, and Native Americans 1.7.a - Tracing the development of temperance, women's, and other reform movements in the United States between 1781 and 1861 2.5 - Describe the impact of social changes and the influence of key figures in the United States from World War I through the 1920s, including Prohibition, the passage of the Nineteenth Amendment, the Scopes Trial, immigration, the Red Scare, Susan B. Anthony, Margaret Sanger, Elizabeth Cady Stanton, the Harlem Renaissance, the Great Migration, W. C. Handy, the Jazz Age, and Zelda Fitzgerald. 2.13 - Describe the Women's Movement, the Hispanic Movement, and the Native American Movement during the 1950s and 1960s.
	2010	1.3.d - Comparing perspectives of differing groups in society and their roles in the American Revolution, including men, women, white settlers, free and enslaved African Americans, and American Indians 1.14.e - Describing the role of women in American society during the Civil War, including efforts made by Elizabeth Blackwell and Clara Barton 2.5 - Evaluate the impact of social changes and the influence of key figures in the United States from World War I through the 1920s, including Prohibition, the passage of the Nineteenth Amendment, the Scopes Trial, limits on immigration, Ku Klux Klan activities, the Red Scare, the Harlem Renaissance, the Great Migration, the Jazz Age, Susan B. Anthony, Margaret Sanger, Elizabeth Cady Stanton, W. C. Handy, and Zelda Fitzgerald.
	2026	1.1e - Compare and contrast the contributions of different groups in colonial America to the War for Independence and the effects of the war on these groups, including women, Native Americans, free and enslaved Black Americans, and Loyalists. 1.7 - Assess how women challenged their societal roles under the Cult of Domesticity through their participation in social movements prior to the Civil War. 1.7a - Research and report on women reformers in the early to mid-nineteenth century who sought to expand political and educational opportunities for women. 1.18d - Describe the leadership of female reformers and women's organizations in guiding the women's suffrage and temperance movements. 2.1c - Describe the changing roles and rights of women in the United States as a result of their contributions to World War I. 2.15b - Evaluate the impact of Title IX on the lives of women and summarize the debate and political implications regarding the Equal Rights Amendment.
MS	1998	1.b - Explain the emergence of modern America from a domestic perspective (e.g., frontier experience, Industrial Revolution and organized labor, reform

	movements of Populism and Progressivism, Women's Movement, Civil Rights Movement, the New Deal, etc.). 5.a - Examine various reform movements (e.g., Civil Rights, Women's Movement, etc.). 5.c - Examine the role of government in the preservation of citizens' rights (e.g., 19th Amendment, Civil Rights Act of 1964).
2011	4 - Understand how the Civil Rights Movement achieved social and political change in the United States and the impact of the Civil Rights struggle of African Americans on other groups (including but not limited to feminists, Native Americans, Hispanics, immigrant groups, and individuals with disabilities).
2018	3.3 - Assess the impact of media on public opinion during the Progressive Movement, including: Upton Sinclair, Jacob A. Riis, and Ida M. Tarbell, women's suffrage and Temperance Movement. 3.4 - Assess the impact of media on public opinion during the Progressive Movement, including: Upton Sinclair, Jacob A. Riis, and Ida M. Tarbell, women's suffrage and Temperance Movement. 5.7 - Debate the causes and effects of the social change and conflict between traditional and modern culture that took place during the 1920s, including: the role of women, the Red Scare, immigration quotas, Prohibition, and the Scopes trial. 7.9 - Identify ways in which the roles of women and minorities changed during the war. 9.4 - Describe the changing roles of women in society as reflected in the entry of more women into the labor force and the changing family structure, including Equal Pay Act.
2022	3.2 - Trace the development of political, social, and cultural movements and subsequent reforms (including women's suffrage, Temperance Movement, and compulsory public education). 5.7 - Debate the causes and effects of the social change and conflict between traditional and modern culture that took place during the 1920s, including the role of women, the Red Scare, immigration quotas, Prohibition, and the Scopes trial. 7.7 - Explain the expansion of the U.S. military through the selective service and the contributions of minority populations (including Native Americans, African Americans, Japanese Americans, and women). 7.9 - Discuss the impact and challenges faced by women and minorities during the war (including A. Phillip Randolph, Bracero Program, the Zoot Suit Riots, Double V Campaign, and Rosie the Riveter). 9.4 - Describe the changing roles of women in society as reflected in the entry of more women into the labor force and the changing family structure (including the Equal Pay Act, and the modern women's movement).

LA	1997	1B-H8-26 - Evaluate the Progressive movement in terms of its goals and resulting accomplishments (e.g., Sixteenth through Nineteenth Amendments, Pure Food and Drug Act, advances in land conservation) (H-1B-H8) 1B-H11-34 - Identify the characteristics of the 1920s and describe the cultural changes that resulted (e.g., Harlem Renaissance, prohibition, women's suffrage) 1B-H15-50 - Identify and describe the social and cultural changes from the 1960s to the present (e.g., Women's Movement)
	2011	4.1 - Use examples to show how population shifts, artistic movements, Prohibition, and the women's movement of the Roaring Twenties were a reflection of and a reaction to changes in American society 4.8 - Examine the role of minority groups, including women, on the home front and in the military and describe how it changed their status in society
	2022	11.m - Analyze ways in which the Suffrage Movement led to passage of the Nineteenth Amendment. 16.g - Analyze the goals and course of the women's rights movement of the mid- to late twentieth century, with attention to House Resolution 5056, Equal Pay Act, Civil Rights Act of 1964, Title IX of the Education Amendments, Equal Rights Amendment, and the advancement of women in government and various professions.

Table 10 - List of Specific Women Named in the Standards

SC	GA	AL	MS	LA
2011	2005	2004	2018	1997
Ida B. Wells-Barnett Carrie Chapman Catt Alice Paul Jane Addams	Elizabeth Cady Stanton Grimke Sisters Jane Addams Ida Tarbell Eleanor Roosevelt Rachel Carson	Grimke Sisters Harriet Tubman Harriet Beecher Stowe Susan B. Anthony Margaret Sanger Elizabeth Cady Stanton Zelda Fitzgerald Rosa Parks Autherine Lucy Vivian Malone	Jane Addams Ida M. Tarbell Zora Neale Hurston Dorthea Lange	Jane Adams
	2016	2010	2022	2022
	Eleanor Roosevelt	Elizabeth Cady Stanton Dorothea Lynde Dix Susan B. Anthony Sojourner Truth Grimke Sisters Harriet Tubman Harriet Beecher Stowe	Ida B. Wells-Barnett Jane Addams Ida Tarbell Zora Neale Hurston Ella Fitzgerald Dorothea Lange	Sojourner Truth Harriet Beecher Stowe Elizabeth Cady Stanton Susan B. Anthony Rosa Parks Ruby Bridges Shirley Chisholm Ruth Bader Ginsberg

		Elizabeth Blackwell Clara Barton Ida Tarbell Susan B. Anthony Margaret Sanger Elizabeth Cady Stanton Zelda Fitzgerald Zora Neale Hurston Rosa Parks Autherine Lucy Vivian Malone		
		2026		
		Harriet Beecher Stowe		

Table 11 - Indicators Related to Indigenous Populations

State	Iteration	
SC	2000	12.1.5 - evaluate government policies toward Native Americans and their responses
	2005	3.1 - Explain the impact and challenges of westward movement, including the major land acquisitions, people's motivations for moving west, railroad construction, the displacement of Native Americans, and the its impact on the developing American character.
	2011	2.1 - Summarize the impact of the westward movement on nationalism and democracy, including the expansion of the franchise, the displacement of Native Americans from the southeast and conflicts over states' rights and federal power during the era of Jacksonian democracy as the result of major land acquisitions such as the Louisiana Purchase, the Oregon Treaty, and the Mexican Cession. 4.1 - Summarize the impact that government policy and the construction of the transcontinental railroads had on the development of the national market and on the culture of Native American peoples.
	2019	N/A
GA	2005	1.a - Explain Virginia's development, including the Virginia Company, tobacco cultivation, relationships with Native Americans such as Powhatan, development of the House of Burgesses, Bacon's Rebellion, and the development of slavery. 1.b - Describe the settlement of New England including religious reasons, relations with Native Americans including King Phillip's War, the establishment of town meetings and development of a legislature, religious

		tensions that led to the founding of Rhode Island, the half-way covenant, Salem Witch Trials, and the loss of Massachusetts' charter and the transition to a royal colony. 12.c - Describe the growth of the western population and its impact on Native Americans with reference to Sitting Bull and Wounded Knee.
	2016	1.b-d - Explain the development of the [COLONIAL REGION], including but not limited to reasons established, impact of location and place, relations with American Indians, and economic development. 4.e - Examine the roles of women, American Indians, and enslaved and free Blacks in supporting the war effort. 7.a - Explain Jacksonian Democracy, including expanding suffrage, the Nullification Crisis and states' rights, and the Indian Removal Act. 10.b - Investigate the efforts of the Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands (the Freedmen's Bureau) to support poor whites, former slaves, and American Indians. 12.b - Evaluate how the growth of the western population and innovations in farming and ranching impacted Plains Indians. 12.c - Explain the Plains Indians' resistance to western expansion of the United States and the consequences of their resistance.
AL	1998	1.1 - Trace life in the Americas before the arrival of Europeans and Africans. 1.2 - Evaluate European explorations of the fifteenth, sixteenth, and seventeenth centuries and the impact of the first contacts between Americans and Europeans. 1.7 - Analyze the colonists' relationship with Native Americans. 1.27 - Discuss the geographic and political significance of Indian removal and westward expansion.
	2004	1.1 - Contrast effects of economic, geographic, social, and political conditions before and after European explorations of the fifteenth through seventeenth centuries on Europeans, American colonists, and indigenous Americans. 1.1.b - Tracing the course of the Columbian Exchange 1.2 - Compare various early English settlements and colonies on the basis of economics, geography, culture, government, and Native American relations. 1.3.c - Comparing roles in and perspectives of the American Revolution from different regions and groups in society, including men, women, white settlers, free and enslaved African Americans, and Native Americans 2.1.c - Describing the impact of the Indian Removal Act of 1830 and the Dawes Act on the United States between Reconstruction and World War I 2.13 - Describe the Women's Movement, the Hispanic Movement, and the Native American Movement during the 1950s and 1960s.
	2010	1.1 - Compare effects of economic, geographic, social, and political conditions before and after European explorations of the fifteenth through

		seventeenth centuries on Europeans, American colonists, Africans, and indigenous Americans. 1.2 - Compare regional differences among early New England, Middle, and Southern colonies regarding economics, geography, culture, government, and American Indian relations. 1.3.d - Comparing perspectives of differing groups in society and their roles in the American Revolution, including men, women, white settlers, free and enslaved African Americans, and American Indians 1.3.e - Describing how provisions of the Treaty of Paris of 1783 affected relations of the United States with European nations and American Indians 1.7 - Describe causes, courses, and consequences of United States' expansionism prior to the Civil War, including the Treaty of Paris of 1783, the Northwest Ordinance of 1785, the Northwest Ordinance of 1787, the Louisiana Purchase, the Indian Removal Act, the Trail of Tears, Manifest Destiny, the Mexican War and Cession, Texas Independence, the acquisition of Oregon, the California Gold Rush, and the Western Trails. 1.10.a - Explaining the spoils system, nullification, extension of voting rights, the Indian Removal Act, and the common man ideal 1.16.c - Evaluating the Dawes Act for its effect on tribal identity, land ownership, and assimilation of American Indians between Reconstruction and World War I
	2026	1.1e - Compare and contrast the contributions of different groups in colonial America to the War for Independence and the effects of the war on these groups, including women, Native Americans, free and enslaved Black Americans, and Loyalists. 1.2c - Describe the major issues debated at the Constitutional Convention and critique the solutions produced, including the distribution of political power among states and within the federal government, the conduct of foreign affairs, commerce with Native Americans, the election of the executive, and support for slavery as a regional and federal issue. 1.3d - Describe relations of the United States with Britain, France, and Native American nations from 1789 to 1812. 1.3e - Analyze the political and economic causes and consequences of the War of 1812, including the impact on Native Americans. 1.5b - Summarize the effects of the Indian Removal Act and the Trail of Tears on Native Americans, and describe the efforts by different nations to oppose removal. 1.14c - Explain the effect of federal policies and military actions on Native Americans after the Civil War and describe Native American resistance to these actions.
MS	1998	N/A
	2011	4 - Understand how the Civil Rights Movement achieved social and political change in the United States and the impact of the Civil Rights struggle of

		African Americans on other groups (including but not limited to feminists, Native Americans, Hispanics, immigrant groups, and individuals with disabilities).
	2018	1.3 - Evaluate the Dawes Act for its effect on tribal identity, land ownership, and assimilation of American Indians.
	2022	1.3 - Evaluate the Dawes Act for its effect on tribal identity, land ownership, and assimilation of American Indians. 7.7 - Explain the expansion of the U.S. military through the selective service and the contributions of minority populations (including Native Americans, African Americans, Japanese Americans, and women).
LA	1997	1B-H1: analyzing the significant changes that resulted from interactions among the peoples of Europe, Africa, and the Americas 1B-H7-24 - Explain the impact of legislation, federal Indian and land policies, technological developments, and economic policies on established social and migratory groups in the settlement of the western United States (e.g., Dawes Act, Chinese Exclusion Act)
	2011	N/A
	2022	8.b - Analyze the causes and effects of the Indian Removal Act and describe the role of key people involved in Indian removal and the Trail of Tears including Andrew Jackson and John Ross. 11.g - Describe engagements between the U.S. government forces and Native Americans in the West following the Civil War, including the Battle of Little Bighorn and Wounded Knee, and the effects of the Dawes Act on Native Americans. 16.f - Analyze the goals and outcomes of the American Indian Movement (AIM) and the changing relationship between Native Americans and the federal government, including before and after the Indian Self-Determination and Education Assistance Act.

Table 12 - Indicators Related to Immigrants

State	Iteration	
SC	2000	12.1.2 - interpret the immigration patterns from 1870 to ca. 1945
	2005	5.6 - Explain the influx of immigrants into the United States in the late nineteenth century in relation to the specific economic, political, and social changes that resulted, including the growth of cities and urban ethnic neighborhoods, the restrictions on immigration that were imposed, and the immigrants' responses to the urban political machines.

		7.3 - Explain the causes and effects of the social conflict and change that took place during the 1920s, including the role of women and their attainment of the right to vote, the “Red Scare” and the Sacco and Vanzetti case, the resurgence of the Ku Klux Klan, immigration quotas, Prohibition, and the Scopes trial. 10.2 - Summarize key economic issues in the United States since the fall of communist states, including recession, the national debt and deficits, legislation affecting organized labor and labor unions, immigration, and increases in economic disparity.
	2011	4.4 - Explain the impact of industrial growth and business cycles on farmers, workers, immigrants, labor unions, and the Populist movement and the ways that these groups and the government responded to the economic problems caused by industry and business. 4.5 - Explain the causes and effects of urbanization in late nineteenth-century America, including the movement from farm to city, the changing immigration patterns, the rise of ethnic neighborhoods, the role of political machines, and the migration of African Americans to the North, Midwest, and West. 6.2 - Explain the causes and effects of the social change and conflict between traditional and modern culture that took place during the 1920s, including the role of women, the “Red Scare”, the resurgence of the Ku Klux Klan, immigration quotas, Prohibition, and the Scopes trial. 8.5 - Summarize key political and economic issues of the last twenty-five years, including continuing dependence on foreign oil; trade agreements and globalization; health and education reforms; increases in economic disparity and recession; tax policy; the national surplus, debt, and deficits; immigration; presidential resignation/impeachment; and the elections of 2000 and 2008.
	2019	N/A
GA	2005	12.a - Describe Ellis Island, the change in immigrants’ origins to southern and eastern Europe, and the impact of this change on urban America. 14.a - Explain the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882 and anti-Asian immigration sentiment on the west coast. 16.a - Explain how rising communism and socialism in the United States led to the Red Scare and immigrant restriction.
	2016	11.d - Describe Ellis and Angel Islands, the change in immigrants’ origins and their influence on the economy, politics, and culture of the United States. 12.a - Examine the construction of the transcontinental railroad including the use of immigrant labor.
AL	1998	N/A

	2004	N/A
	2010	2.1.d - Comparing the volume, motives, and settlement patterns of immigrants from Asia, Africa, Europe, and Latin America 2.1.e - Describing the impact of entrepreneurship and mutual aid on the lives of African Americans and immigrants 2.5 - Describe the impact of social changes and the influence of key figures in the United States from World War I through the 1920s, including Prohibition, the passage of the Nineteenth Amendment, the Scopes Trial, immigration, the Red Scare, Susan B. Anthony, Margaret Sanger, Elizabeth Cady Stanton, the Harlem Renaissance, the Great Migration, W. C. Handy, the Jazz Age, and Zelda Fitzgerald.
	2026	1.17b - Explain how various reform and reactionary movements emerged in response to the challenges of urbanization and immigration. 1.17.c - Investigate and share the experiences of immigrant communities in urban America, including patterns of settlement, cultural assimilation, and origins of migration.
MS	1998	3.a - Analyze human migration patterns since 1877
	2011	2.a - Explain how American society has been impacted by the entry of more women, minorities, and immigrant workers into the labor force. 4 - Understand how the Civil Rights Movement achieved social and political change in the United States and the impact of the Civil Rights struggle of African Americans on other groups (including but not limited to feminists, Native Americans, Hispanics, immigrant groups, and individuals with disabilities). 4.e - Cite and analyze evidence of the political, economic, and social changes in the United States that expanded democracy for other minority and immigrant groups. 4.f - Cite and analyze evidence of the political, economic, and social changes in the United States that expanded democracy for other minority and immigrant groups. 5.c - Identify and explain migration and immigration patterns that developed from the push- pull effects of economic circumstances.
	2018	2.2 - Compare population percentages, motives, and settlement patterns of immigrants from Asia, Europe, and including: Chinese Exclusion Act regarding immigration quotas. 5.7 - Debate the causes and effects of the social change and conflict between traditional and modern culture that took place during the 1920s, including: the role of women, the Red Scare, immigration quotas, Prohibition, and the Scopes trial.

		9.2 - Debate the reasons for the nation's changing immigration policy, with emphasis on how the Immigration Act of 1965 and successor acts have transformed American society. 12.2 - Describe global trade agreements, terrorist attack of September 11, 2001, Operation Iraqi Freedom and the War in Afghanistan, and the Patriot Act, global terrorism, global climate concerns, immigration, national debt and technological trends.
	2022	2.2 - Compare population changes caused by industrialization (including settlement patterns of the new immigrants from Europe and China and the nativist reaction evidenced by the Chinese Exclusion Act). 5.7 - Debate the causes and effects of the social change and conflict between traditional and modern culture that took place during the 1920s, including the role of women, the Red Scare, immigration quotas, Prohibition, and the Scopes trial. 9.2 - Debate the reasons for the nation's changing immigration policy, with emphasis on how the Immigration Act of 1965 and successor actions have transformed American society. 12.3 - Describe issues surrounding the changing global economy (including North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), immigration, national debt, technological trends, and global climate concerns).
LA	1997	1B-H7-22 - Describe the phases, geographic origins, and motivations behind mass migration to and within the United States 1B-H7-23 - Explain the causes of the late nineteenth-century urbanization of the United States, including immigration and migration from rural areas, and discuss its impact in such areas as housing, political structures, and public health 1B-H7-24 - Explain the impact of legislation, federal Indian and land policies, technological developments, and economic policies on established social and migratory groups in the settlement of the western United States (e.g., Dawes Act, Chinese Exclusion Act)
	2011	2.5 - Illustrate the phases, geographic origins, and motivations behind mass immigration and explain how these factors accelerated urbanization 2.6 - Describe the challenges associated with immigration, urbanization, and rapid industrialization and evaluate the government's response
	2022	11.c - Explain push and pull factors for immigration to the United States in the late nineteenth and early twentieth century and analyze the immigrant experience, including assimilation, challenges, and contributions. 13.d - Analyze the causes and events of the First Red Scare including the Bolshevik Revolution, anarchist bombings, the Immigration Act of 1918, and the Palmer Raids.

		13.f - Analyze the effects of changes in immigration to the United States and migration within the United States as a result of the Immigration Act of 1924 and the Great Migration.
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Appendix J

Supplementary Data

Table S.1 - Subject Standards by State

The following table is gathered from the official standards published by the Departments of Education from each respective state. Specific citations can be found in the bibliography.

State	US History	World History	Geography	Government	Economics	Additional Subjects
Alabama	X	X	X	X	X	X
Alaska			X	X		X
Arizona	X	X	X	X	X	
Arkansas	X		X	X	X	X
California	X	X		X	X	
Colorado	X	X	X	X	X	X
Connecticut	X	X	X	X	X	
Delaware	X	X	X	X	X	
Florida	X	X	X	X	X	X
Georgia	X	X	X	X	X	X
Hawaii	X	X	X	X	X	X
Idaho	X	X	X	X	X	
Illinois			X	X	X	
Indiana	X	X	X	X	X	X
Iowa	X	X	X	X	X	X
Kansas	X	X		X		X
Kentucky	X	X	X	X	X	
Louisiana	X	X	X	X		
Maine	X		X	X	X	
Maryland	X	X		X		
Massachusetts	X	X		X	X	X

Michigan	X	X		X	X	
Minnesota	X	X	X	X	X	
Mississippi	X	X	X	X	X	X
Missouri	X	X	X	X		
Montana	X		X	X	X	
Nebraska	X	X	X	X	X	
Nevada	X	X		X	X	
New Hampshire	X	X	X	X	X	
New Jersey	X	X	X	X	X	
New Mexico	X	X	X	X	X	X
New York	X	X	X	X	X	
North Carolina	X	X		X	X	
North Dakota	X	X	X	X	X	X
Ohio	X	X	X	X	X	X
Oklahoma	X	X		X	X	X
Oregon	X	X	X	X	X	
Pennsylvania	X	X	X	X	X	X
Rhode Island	X	X		X		
South Carolina	X	X	X	X	X	
South Dakota	X	X	X	X	X	
Tennessee	X	X	X	X	X	X
Texas	X	X	X	X	X	X
Utah	X	X	X	X		X
Vermont	X		X	X	X	X
Virginia	X	X	X	X		
Washington	X	X	X	X	X	
West Virginia	X	X	X	X	X	X
Wisconsin	X	X	X	X	X	X
Wyoming			X	X	X	