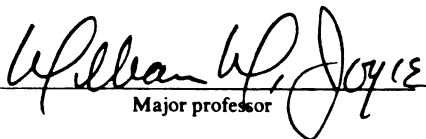This is to certify that the

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AN INVESTIGATION OF THE EFFECTS OF GLOBAL EDUCATION ON THE
ATTITUDES OF HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS


by


Michael Joseph Yocum


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ABSTRACT

# AN INVESTIGATION OF THE EFFECTS OF A GLOBAL EDUCATION PROGRAM ON THE ATTITUDES OF HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

By

Michael Joseph Yocum

The effect of a global education program on the nationalist/globalistic attitudes of high school students constitutes the focus of this study. Specifically, the attempt has been to assess whether participation in a global education course can increase global mindedness without adversely affecting appreciation of one's own nation. In addition, the study sought to uncover predictors of global mindedness and classroom level variables which contributed to increased globalistic thinking.

A pretest-posttest control group design was utilized. The sample was drawn from four high schools which were selected on the basis of program characteristics and demographic factors. Within each school, students enrolled in global education courses were compared to a sample of students in social studies courses which did not have an explicit international content.

The World Affairs Analysis (Joyce, Alleman, Little, 1987), was used to measure global mindedness. In order to assess the student's appreciation of their own country, the Attitude Toward Patriotism Scale (Thurstone, 1932) was administered. In addition, the students' perception of

relevant classroom environmental factors was measured with a researcher-developed index.

Multiple regression and t-tests were used to identify predictors of global mindedness, and test the hypothesis that global education could increase global mindedness, without decreasing appreciation of one's own country.

Gender, level of patriotism and foreign language instruction were identified as predictors of globalistic thinking. Global education was not found to affect either the level of global mindedness or the level of patriotism of the student. However, there was indication that global mindedness increased in those classrooms in which open discussion of controversial issues occurred, and students felt free to express their opinions.

To Jeannie
for all your love and support

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CHAPTER 1
Introduction


In 1928 educational historian, Thomas Woody, delivered a
paper to educators at the annual Schoolman's Week in
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.  The presentation caused such an
uproar that the Veterans of Foreign Wars and the Philadelphia
County Council requested the Governor of Pennsylvania to
"take such measures as to prevent a continuance of such
evils" (Woody 1928).  The thrust of the speech follows:

> It requires no exercise of imagination to see that
> nationalism has become the religion of the schools.
> As the schools of the Church were charged to beware
> of philosophy and grammar, as at least unnecessary,
> and as many thought inimical to the welfare of
> Christ's regent on Earth, so the schools of the
> nation have been zealously guarded against alleged
> subversive subjects" (p. 100).

Woody argued that the conservative function of education
was dominating modern schooling just as it had in the world
of Christendom in medieval Europe. The only difference was
that while the earlier education existed to support the
interests of the Church, modern education serves the
interests of the state.  Due to this "nationalism" of U.S.
schools, Woody felt students were not being sufficiently
prepared for a world which was exceedingly more interdependent.

The backlash caused by Woody's paper should not surprise us in 1988. Modern proponents of school programs collectively referred to as global education share some of the same ideas as Woody and have also been subject to similiar criticism and controversy (Jaschik 1983, 13). These controversies are rooted in difficult questions about the nature of citizenship in the modern age. What is the focus of our rights and obligations and to what community, if any, do we owe our allegiance?

## Statement of the Problem

Social studies educators have regarded the development of citizenship as a major focus of their discipline (Barr, Barth, and Shermis, 1977). The National Council of the Social Studies (NCSS), the leading professional organization in its field, states in its curriculum guidelines that "the basic goal of social studies education is to prepare young people to be humane, rational, participating citizens in a world that is becoming increasingly interdependent" (NCSS 1985 266). Further, in its document "Essentials of Social Studies," the NCSS (1981) declares

> ...citizenship participation in public life is essential to the health of our democratic system. Effective social studies programs help prepare young people who can identify, understand and work to solve the problems that face our increasingly diverse nation and interdependent world" (p. 1).

It is readily evident that the NCSS is not narrowing its conception of citizenship to the nation-state, but in fact is advocating a global view of citizenship. This is not a recent development. Day (1987) reviewed the NCSS Journal Social Education from its inception, in 1932, and concluded that global education has received consistent support. Despite this apparent consensus among leaders of the NCSS, others have suggested that the notion of promoting "global" citizenship as a goal for the social studies curriculum may conflict with the promotion of national citizenship (e.g. Battistoni, 1985; Janowitz, 1983).

Education is a major agent for the transmission of the values and beliefs which hold a society together and provide it with a common identity and purpose. If global education is to receive broad based support, questions about its effects on this process must be considered. Shukar (1983), has argued that this is one reason global education has received little support in the United States.

> The purpose and direction of formal education in every society is a function of the ideals, values and behaviors that each society seeks to perpetuate. Schools serve as a means for social reproduction and the school curriculum is often no more than a reflection of the dominant social, economic and political value structure. Schools and curricula change, but generally only in response to major value shifts in the society at large. Education is a reactive system, dependent on external forces and events to guide it. It is for these reasons, more than any others, that global perspectives education has had only minimal impact on the schools (p. 92).

## The Goals of Global Education

Those involved in global education have struggled to reach consensus on definition and goals, but one assumption is left unquestioned. That is, "better understanding of the world and its people will bring us considerably closer to a better and more just world-one that is more stable and cooperative, and less divided by conflict and hostility" (NCSS, 1987, 245). The rationale for this viewpoint is based on the concept of interdependence which Kobus (1985) claimed is the one concept central to all definitions of global education. According to this viewpoint, due to advances in communication, transportation and other technologies, interdependence between nations and cultures has become so complex that we are misled in believing we can solve problems unilaterally, or that significant national decisions will have ramifications only within our borders. Furthermore, proponents of this view argue the reality of the situation is that we are participants within a world system, whether we consciously and deliberately act accordingly, or choose to remain ignorant and passive. According to Joyce and Nicholson (1979) this makes it imperative to

> ...recognize our true interests and loyalties and to resolve any possible conflicts among them. Each person must learn to think of him or herself—and of everyone else—as an individual, as a member of the human race, as an inhabitant of the planet earth, and as a citizen of a global society (p. 108).

This idea is echoed in the NCSS definition of global education as:

>...efforts to cultivate in young people a perspec-
tive of the world which emphasizes the interconnec-
tions among cultures, species and planets (NCSS
1982, 63).

Interdependence as an organizing concept has two important implications for global education. First, it places a strong emphasis on international cooperation and conflict management. Numerous writers in the field have suggested that this should be one of the main areas of study within global education (Leetsma 1978; Hanvey 1982; Kniep 1986). Leetsma (1978) argues it "is becoming more apparent that whatever form the future ultimately takes, mankind has an increasingly common destiny" (p. 9). The focus on international cooperation demands an understanding of processes such as bilateral and multilateral negotiations and use of regional and global institutions for problem solving and mediation. Hanvey (1982) believes that international issues which 1) are transnational in scope and can only be solved through multilateral action, 2) represent a conflict, and 3) are persistent over time, should be a major component of global education.

A second closely related implication of the concept of interdependence is the congruence of national and interna-tional interest. The idea is that our interests are so intertwined with world interests that we cannot realistically separate them. Given the consistency of these two elements in the literature on global education—that is, international cooperation and congruence of national and international

interest—we can say that an individual who holds a world view which encompasses both is "global-minded." The opposite of this would be "nation-minded," an orientation which sees national interest as primary and therefore conflicts and problems within the international arena are dealt with through power politics and confrontation. The question is whether a social studies program can develop more global-minded students without undermining national allegiance. Individuals from varying perspectives have suggested that a close attachment to the nation-state is not a barrier to global-mindedness, but in fact are complementary.

## Patriotism and Nationalism

The term patriotism in its common usage has taken on significant positive and negative connotations. In its truest form, patriotism simply refers to devotion to country (Funk and Wagnalls). As far back as 1917, Charles Waldstein argued that true patriotism must be distinguished from false patriotism. False patriotism includes a hatred of all others as well as a love of country. With true patriotism no such chauvinism is present. Rather, it is based on ethical justifications which incline the individual toward a higher moral idealism and forms the foundation for an international patriotism (Nelson 1976, 36-37). While Waldstein derived his position from a philosophical perspective, it is consistent with the work of Adorno (1950) on the psychological founda-

tions of patriotism. Adorno refers to a love of country without the presence of chauvinism as genuine patriotism.

> The term patriotism as used here does not mean "love of country." Rather, the present concept involves blind attachment to certain national cultural values, uncritical conformity with the prevailing group ways, and rejection of other nations as outgroups. It might better be termed pseudopatriotism and distinguished from genuine patriotism, in which love of country and attachment to national values is based on critical understanding. The genuine patriot it would appear, can appreciate the values and ways of other nations, and can be permissive toward much that he cannot personally accept for himself. He is free of rigid conformism, outgroup rejection and imperialistic striving for power (p. 55)

Janowitz (1983) attacks the definition from a sociopolitical perspective and arrives at much the same conclusion as Waldstein and Adorno. Rather than patriotism, he prefers the term "civic consciousness." Civic consciousness is the positive and meaningful attachment a person develops to the nation-state (p. 152). However, it is not "a blind mechanical nationalism," but is "compatible with the realities of an interdependent world community. Furthermore, it is a necessary element in the search for supranational world citizenship, which incorporates an enlightened self-interested nationalism and a self-critical patriotism" (p. 152). Janowitz, Adorno, and Waldstein have conceptions of patriotism which contain common elements. These are contained in Nelson's vision of a positive national education. According to Nelson, what is needed is

> one which fosters knowledge of global affairs without necessary hate of others or false national biases; one which provides for critical examination

of national and global issues; and one that
inspires a sense of global community (p. 48).

Each of these authors views nationalism as potentially
constructive or destructive.  An individual could hold a
strong sense of love of country which does or does not reject
outgroups.  In this sense, patriotism is either a foundation
for the supranational citizenship of which Janowitz speaks,
or includes nationalistic, and chauvinistic elements. Despite
the agreement among these writers, Nelson's criteria are the
basis for much of the criticism which has been directed at
global education. The problem can be analyzed from two
perspectives: 1) the conflict between the content of a global
education course and student attitudes toward their own
nation, and 2) the conflict between the development of
national and global loyalties.

## The Conflict Between Content and Affect

Butts (1977), in his historical analysis of civic
education programs in the United States concluded that there
were two dominant trends that have accelerated civic
education at different times in the nation's history.  The
first was when liberal reformers saw the need to promote a
new social integration.  The second was when conservative
forces saw the need for social cohesion and to stave off
threats from alien sources.  In essence, groups at both ends
of the political spectrum had as a motivation the need to
create unity.  With unity as a fundamental goal in citizen-
ship education, cognitive goals which stress critical

analysis and legitimacy of divergent opinions may threaten the attempt to maintain group solidarity. Battistoni (1985) focuses on this problem in his analysis of citizenship education in the United States. He states,

> Citizens whose critical thinking and reasoning skills are fully developed might have difficulty obeying the will of the polity when it squarely opposes their own interests or cognitive knowledge about which public course is best. If such citizens perceive the burden of community loyalty to be oppressive at times, this in turn may begin to break down their affective bonds toward the polity...On the other hand, the internalizing of affective lessons of citizenship may stunt the proper growth of cognitive concerns. People who learn to love their fellow citizens may then be reticent to engage in strident debates over policy or law, even though their interests or knowledge would incline them to disagree with their neighbors (p. 161).

Many writers have suggested that global education presents the type of problem with which Battistoni is concerned. First, global education proponents suggest we can maintain a loyalty and love of our nation while critically examining world issues and problems from the perspective of other nations or cultures. This will lead to increased cooperation and reduction of conflict in the international arena. The idea is expressed by Anderson (1979).

> Cognitively and emotionally, we are very capable of combining a special loyalty and affection for our country, or nation, with an honest and realistic comprehension of the larger world in which we have been cast (p. 378).

But this means that "to have an honest and realistic comprehension of the larger world" students will need to

critically appraise their own national institutions. Can they do this and maintain a first allegiance to their own country? Remy, et al. (1975) states,

> If our institutions were not felt to be superior, at least for us, they would be equal to all others. If they were equal to all others, we should be indifferent to what institutions we do have since they would be no different than others. Thus pride in our institutions is psychologically and logically useless if one accepts the initial assumption of the equality of institutions which international educators hold. For they cannot coexist on the basis of equality (p. 63).

Bertrand Russel recognized the inherent conflict between a critical view and national loyalty and said,

> 'The whole conception of truth is hard to reconcile with the usual ideals of citizenship [because]...it is impossible to instill the scientific spirit into the young so long as any propositions are regarded as sancrosanct and not open to question' (quoted in Fitzgerald, p. 209).

Certain individuals have suggested that an overly zealous critical approach to citizenship education has already made a serious impact on the attitudes U.S. students hold toward the nation-state:

> There is a need for a kind of civic education which gives young children, particularly, the idea that their country is a pretty good place. I think we have gone much too far in many schools in concentrating on the deficiencies and warts in American history and American life-so that children and young people get the idea that maybe America is an awful place to live...(Weber 1976, 136).

## The Conflict of Multiple Loyalties

The notion of global citizenship also introduces a possible conflict in the affective bonds one establishes with the nation and the global community. The National Council of the Social Studies' Ad Hoc Committee on Global Education (1987) recognized this problem in their response to a recent controversy sparked by charges leveled at the University of Denver's Center for Teaching International Relations. The Committee stated,

> Global education clearly promotes certain values and there can be confusion and conflict about some of them. For example, does global education foster attitudes that are at odds with patriotism and national loyalty?" (p. 245).

Numerous writers have suggested that there is no conflict between patriotism and the goals of global education. Goodlad (in Becker, 1979) states

> There is evidence to suggest that school programs designed to develop pride in one's own country succeed very well. There is no evidence to suggest that one loses this pride in also acquiring a rich appreciation of the whole of mankind (p. xiv).

Anderson (1979) would seem to support Goodlad. Specifically referring to the world systems perspective he writes;

> ...it needs to be made clear that such an approach does not detract from the development within students of a special identification with and love for their own country. We human beings have always been capable of multiple loyalties. This has not been changed by the advent of a global age. (p. 3)

These assertions seem plausible on the surface. However, Torney (1979), in a review of the literature on global education, states, "national esteem as either potential prerequisites or obstacles to successful global education programs need considerable further study" (p. 71).

The inherent conflict in the idea of multiple loyalties is pointed out clearly by Battistoni (1985) in his study of citizenship education. He argues that while we can develop loyalty to different groups we are subject to the conflicts these multiple loyalties create.

> Contemporary proponents of global education and the global community fail to understand the tensions involved in such a teaching of universal citizenship. They end up promoting a cognitive orientation of "love of humanity" or "world reponsibility" completely at variance with our affections, memories and direct experiences, which teach us to prefer those more involved with our immediate political lives. Ultimately the lesson of global citizenship must give way (p. 162).

The Ad Hoc Committee on Global Education also acknowledges this problem when they state

> Better understanding of the world is one thing. Refusing to give special weight to your country's welfare or to your own countrymen is quite another...it may be taken to suggest that global education promotes taking up a certain point of view for judging international conflicts-namely the global point of view. If this... means that whenever there is a conflict between the United States and one or more other countries, a U.S. citizen should always support the resolution for the world as a whole, it is obvious how global education, on this interpretation would be controversial. It would teach a lesson that on its face anyways seems at odds with the special loyalties and committments that characterize communities (p. 246).

But where does this leave us with respect to the goals of global education? Remy, et al. (1975) outlined the difficulty over a decade ago, saying,

> International educators who hold the world systems view feel that loyalties to the state and the international system need not be antithetical but rather can coexist side by side with each other. Moreover, international educators commonly suggest that we can hold meaningful loyalties to institutions at the nation-state level and to those that are merging at the global systems level at the same time. Yet, this literature also asks for an abolition of ethnocentrism. What does this mean if it is not the squaring of the circle? (p. 63).

Essentially, the argument global educators are advancing is that through acquiring more knowledge and understanding of other cultures, world issues and international processes, students can develop a more global-minded perspective. Moreover, they argue the development of a global-minded perspective will not adversely affect the individual's sense of patriotism and national loyalty.

## Purpose of the Study

This investigation is concerned with the effects of a global education program on the global-mindedness and patriotism of high school students. There has also been an attempt to see whether patriotism acts as a prerequisite or barrier to the development of global-mindedness. Certain classroom processes which have been found in earlier research to impact on the development of political attitudes among students have been analyzed as a possible mediating variable.

## Hypotheses

1. There is no relationship between selected student background variables and nation/global-mindedness.

    1a. There is no relationship between the socio-economic status of the community and nation/global-mindedness.

    1b. There is no relationship between gender and nation/global-mindedness.

2. There is no difference in patriotism between students who have completed a global education course and students who have not completed such a course.

3. There is no difference in nation/global-mindedness between students who have completed a global education course and students who have not completed such a course.

4. Students who have completed a global education course are more global-minded than students who have not completed such a course on specific international issues.

5. The students' perception of the openness of classroom discussion is not related to nation/global-mindedness.

## Definition of Terms

Patriotism: For the purpose of this investigation patriotism is used to refer to "true" or "genuine" patriotism. It is defined as a love of country which has as its basic elements a positive attachment to the nation-state without a rejection of outgroups. Patriotism can be thought of as existing on a continuum. At one extreme is a rejection of the nation. At the other extreme, attachment to the nation-state is intense and includes a rejection of other national groups. True patriotism represents the middle ground in this range of attitudes. It is characterized by a strong and positive identification with one's nation-state but without elements of chauvinism.

Global Education: For the purpose of this study global education is any program which investigates the interactions between sovereign states, or non-state actors within the international arena, and has as a primary goal the cultivation in young people of a world perspective which emphasizes the interconnections among cultures and nations. While programs differ widely in terms of other goals, objectives and processes, the emphasis is on viewing world areas as part of a larger, interacting, interdependent system. Study of global issues and concepts such as change, conflict, communication and interdependence form the basis of the curriculum.

International Education: This represents a category of which global education is a component. International education is any program of instruction which attempts to teach about the world. It includes programs directed toward an understanding of international relations and foreign policy, as well as study of specific countries, cultures, or regions of the world.

Global-Minded/Nation minded: Global-mindedness is characterized by the view that social, economic, ecological and political problems cannot be solved by placing the interests of one nation above another. Rather, most problems in the international arena are of sufficient complexity, and so interrelated, that their solution requires a perspective which rises above national interest.

Therefore, the emphasis is on nonconfrontational, consensus-oriented tactics employed usually through multi-national diplomatic channels or global institutions. A nation-minded perspective, on the other hand, is character-ized by the belief that the interests of one's own nation take precedence over the interests of other countries or cultures. Problem solving is characterized by confrontation, power and militarism.

## Significance of the Study

While global education is widely touted by social studies educators, its impact on the schools has been minimal. The apparent contradiction it presents to the more traditional goal of nationalistic education may be one cause. It is also seen by some as an attempt by a left wing fringe to control a politically powerful component of the curricu-lum. The controversy over the materials put out by the Center for Teaching International Relations demonstrates the kind of concern global education can create. At the same time, numerous proponents of global education argue that it is not in conflict with national loyalty and patriotism. In fact they claim patriotism represents an important prerequi-site for a global-minded individual:

> Neither independence nor patriotism is compromised in educational attention to global reality. Learning to see the national interest in world perspective and world interest in national perspec-tive are two sides of the current coin of national sovereignty and enlightened self-interest (Leetsma 1978, 12).

Despite the vehemence with which many individuals push their claim, little empirical evidence exists to suggest what the reality of the situation may be. This study will begin the process of accumulating data on the effects of different types of global education programs on students' global-mindedness and patriotism.

## Assumption and Limitations of the Study

The findings in the study should be interpreted cautiously in light of the following assumptions and limitations:

1) Due to the method by which the sample was chosen the results of the study cannot be generalized beyond this particular sample. The results are only suggestive of what we might find in schools, or students, which fit the general characteristics of those chosen for this study. However, given the lack of random sampling or random selection any conclusions must be regarded with caution.

2) The major dependent variable in this study is measured by the World Affairs Analysis Scale. This instrument is based on the assumption that globalistic and nationalistic thinking is characterized by a zero sum game. That is, given any particular issue of international importance the presence of one form of thinking necessitates the absence of the other. Or, more specifically, one gains in globalistic thinking at the expense of

nationalistic thinking. This assumes that as one increasingly views a particular issue in terms of world-centered interests, the emphasis placed upon national-centered interests decreases. It is important that this assumption be clarified since it is not universally shared by social educators.

3) The assumption that social class is defined as the complex of social relations within which one operates is also not universally shared. Choosing to measure social class differences with reference to the school one attends does not deny that students in the same school come from different economic backgrounds. Rather, it is an attempt to operationalize a concept which has implications far beyond economic conditions. It stems largely from the social mileu in which one's relationships with others are formed. The school, even the comprehensive high school, reflects the dominant social class relations of the community and is therefore useful as a gross measure of this variable in making comparisons. Again it should be recognized that this assumption is not universally shared by other social scientists.

4) An important limitation of this study is that it investigated only a small range of global education courses. The concept of global education is still in its infancy and, therefore, has not been sharply defined in practice. The programs included in this study represent

a middle ground view of global education. While they
are based on the concept of interdependence, they do not
necessarily emphasize the concept of world interest.
Important global issues are examined in all of the
courses, but the extent to which the notion of interde-
pendence is equated with world interest varies.

5) The assumption is made that the results of this study
and the conclusions which are derived from those results
are based on a valid and reliable measurement of the
dependent variable.

CHAPTER II
Review of the Related Literature


Little systematic research has been carried out to
assess the impact of global education on student global-
mindedness and patriotism. However, work from four distinct
lines of research will be drawn on in this study. They are:
1) the development of frameworks for evaluating global educa-
tion as they relate to the development of globalistic
thinking; 2) the development of attitudes towards one's
nation, other countries, and the international political
arena, including significant international institutions and
processes 3) political socialization research as it relates
to the impact of education on attitudes toward the interna-
tional political arena; 4) investigations of the effects of
various global education programs on student attitudes.

## Frameworks for Organizing International Education

There have been three major attempts at categorizing the
various approaches to global education. Remy et al. (1975)
were the first to suggest a framework based on the implicit
and explicit assumptions of each approach. The first
approach these authors termed the "State Centric View," which
looks at the world primarily in terms of nation-states
pursuing the national interest (p. 46). International educa-

tion from this perspective stresses the lack of political consensus and cooperation in the international arena, and is based on the belief that survival in such a hostile world is contingent on the state. Citizen allegiance to the state is necessary if it is to survive, and is therefore an important objective of this approach. Also consistent with this view is the idea that teaching about other nations is important because they represent a potential threat to one's own country. This type of international education was pushed into the social studies curriculum as the U.S. became a predominant post-war global power (p. 56-57). Its emphasis is on the idea that support for U.S. foreign policy must start in the classroom (p. 57).

The two other categorizations for global education programs were offered by Lamy (1983) and Becker (1979). Each of them includes an approach consistent with the state-centric view. Lamy termed this state-centric perspective the Geopolitical Internationalist approach. As with Remy's state-centric view the Geopolitical Internationalist perspective is based on a realpolitik, the belief that the international system is anarchic and nation-states have to protect their interests through military strength and alliances. Becker (1979) termed this type of education the "Foreign Policy Studies View" and saw it as being designed to help students become intelligent, loyal supporters of the national interest through the examination of diplomatic history, foreign policy issues and America's role in the world.

Remy et al. (1975) choose to call the second approach to international education the "Moral Unity View of the Human Race." This perspective, in contrast to the state-centric view, stresses the rejection of power as the "guiding principle to measure, understand or conduct international relations" (p. 53). The Moral Unity View is based on an idealistic vision of the international community with world government seen as the final end, and in fact Lamy refers to a similar approach in his framework as the Idealist Perspective. Like Remy et al., Lamy notes that this perspective emphasizes the development of cross-cultural understanding. In this sense, Lamy's Idealist perspective is consistent with Becker's description of Area Studies, which also sees intercultural understanding as a major focus. However, the major thrust of area studies according to Becker is not the development of a world community. In fact, Vocke (1988), in his analysis of Becker's work has suggested it is more consistent with the traditional state-centric perspective. According to Becker, foreign policy study and area studies are both information- and spectator-oriented approaches to education about the international community.

One of the best examples of the Idealist, or Moral Unity, approach is World Order Studies (Mendlovitz et al. 1977) which is based on the belief that the "global situation is seriously deteriorating as a result of avoidable evils" (Falk and Kim 1982). According to Mendlovitz, the concept of interdependence as the basic organizing element of many

global education programs, "masks a number of fundamental value issues, blurs important strategic distinctions and narrows the range of acceptable policy alternatives" (p. 189). Mendlovitz argues that the asymmetry between powerful and less powerful nations is a significant factor in understanding international relations. An emphasis on interdependence creates a false allusion of symmetry and advantages the more powerful nation. However, while the focus of World Order Studies is on the nation-state, it is consistent with the Idealist approach in that it does not endorse nationalism. The emphasis is on the question "How can we create a more just and peaceful world?"

A third approach is Remy et al.'s Global Systems View of the World, or as Becker termed it, the World Centered Approach. This approach, which is also recognized by Lamy, stresses the interconnections between non-state actors in the international arena, and regards the world as a vast, interdependent system. The Global System View stems from the belief that the nation-state is no longer an appropriate political unit for solving the problems of the human race, nor is it capable of protecting its citizenry. Since the very existence of the nation-state is justified on the basis of these functions, the traditional basis of authority for the nation-state has been eroded. With the existence of nuclear weapons, the traditional force a nation can wield to exert its will is less relevant. Also, advances in technology have speeded communication across national borders and

increased the flow of information worldwide. Finally, it is becoming increasingly clear that social and economic life bind nations in an inextricable web of interdependence. Given this situation, the emphasis in the study of international relations from a global system view is on transnational interactions between non-state actors (Remy et al., 1975, 51). This is significantly different from the Idealist or Moral Unity View. The Global System View sees the inevitability of increased unity and interdependence in the world system as a result of social, political, economic and technological forces. Preparing for that inevitability becomes a rational decision. The Moral Unity View, on the other hand, is based on natural law and the inherent goodness of humankind. The movement toward world government is a moral necessity to contain the uncontrolled power of the nation-state.

One element the Moral Unity and Global System views have in common pedagogically is the goal of "broadening the area of childrens' loyalty and concerns" (Remy et al., 1975, 59). For example, with regards to the Moral Unity View Remy et al. comment,

> To the international educator conscious of the moral unity of the human race, the traditional civics goals of educators-pride in national institutions and an understanding of the mechanics of these institutions—obscure the great technological and economic changes of our time" (p. 58).

Lamy, Becker and Remy all recognize the systems perspective as a major category. However, only Lamy further divides

it into two differing approaches. The first he calls the
Free Trade Internationalist Perspective. This approach
emphasizes global interdependence in the economic sphere.
Yet, it is based on the national interest, with a stress on
the preparation of individuals for a competitive, interdependent world. An article in the <u>National Association of</u>
<u>Secondary School Principals Bulletin</u> gives an example of this
orientation.

> There is mounting concern in the United States, as
> abroad, to provide better preparation for young
> people to communicate with and understand the
> people of other nations. Our nation's escalating
> trade deficit clearly indicates the need for better
> understanding of other cultures so that American
> products and sales techniques can be adapted to
> them (Bray 1980, 51).

The second orientation from a systems perspective Lamy
terms the Functionalist-Internationalist. It stresses global
stability as a result of increasing transnational interactions. The major purpose of this perspective is the encouragement of mutual understanding and cooperation between
various countries and cultures. For this reason, it is more
closely related to Remy's Global System Perspective and what
Becker terms World-Centered Education than it is to the Free
Trade Internationalist perspective.

Anderson (1982) expresses the functionalist view well.
He argues that a decline in Western cultural dominance and
United States hegemony along with an increase in geopolitical
interrelatedness are all serving to reduce world cultural
homogeneity. The result is a world that is increasingly more

interconnected, less dominated by one civilization, less hegemonic, more heterogeneous, and one in which American society will become more integrated. Therefore, preparing American school children for this world is an educational necessity. The essence of this perspective is reflected in the following:

> Education mirrors society, and the society it mirrors in contemporary times is world society. Intuitively we all know this. The teachers of Vietnamese and Cambodian children, or other overseas victims of declining U.S. hegemony intuitively know it. School board members struggling with the financial problems created by the decision of business firms to locate their production in the Mexicos, Taiwans and Koreas of the world intuitively know it. The thousands of people involved in adjusting American education to the reality of millions who are no longer content to be the silent victims of western civilization's racism intuitively know it (p. 160-161).

The argument Anderson and others advance is that citizenship in a changing world needs to be broadened. The concern is less with promoting the national interest as seen in the Free-Trade Internationalist Perspective, but rather with preparing students for a more interdependent world in which the U.S. takes less of a dominant role. Rosenau (1983) argues:

> The challenges of interdependence must be seen for what they are; and to be so perceived, traditional perspectives must give way to transnational ones. More specifically, the attitudes, loyalties and participatory behavior of citizens must undergo profound transformations (p. 30).

The importance of the distinction Lamy makes between the Free Trade and Functionalist perspectives is evidenced by the

fact that third world members of the International Association of University Presidents expressed concern about the national interest rationale which underlies so much of the recent concern with internationalizing higher education in the U.S. (Tangeman 1987). Lamy also adds a perspective Becker and Remy do not. He refers to it as the Radical Perspective. This perspective rejects the notion of interdependence and stresses the inequitable distribution of resources and power in the international arena.

Many of the curriculum approaches which have been developed in the field of global education are based on one or more of these world views. While elements of the Free-Trade Internationalist and Geopolitical Realist are clearly in the tradition of nationalism in citizenship education, the Functionalist-Internationalist, Idealist and Radical perspectives can truly be categorized as globalist. For that reason these latter perspectives have come under attack for undermining the power, influence and legitimacy of the U.S. in the international political arena. Certainly any blanket condemnation does little to inform us since the assumptions and purposes of each of these perspectives differ radically.

What is important about distinguishing between these perspectives is the recognition that those approaches characterized as globalist demand a shift in the "world view" the individual typically holds. In reviewing the studies on national identity and orientation toward international politics it becomes apparent that the typical individual has

a world view which does not conform to that of the globalist schools of international education. Therefore, if global education is to be successful it must be able to alter what is a typical political orientation. The following section reviews studies in the area of national identity and attitudes toward other nations and provides some clues as to how successful an educational program might be in changing this orientation.

## National Identity and Attitudes Towards Other Nations

The development of a national identity is a process which occurs early in life, proceeds rapidly and has a powerful impact on the individual's world view. Coles (1986), after two decades of research with young children throughout the world, stated:

> Nowhere on the five continents I've visited in this study has nationalism failed to become an important element in the developing conscience of young people...Who can listen to young people and not hear the political superego constantly exerting its requirements upon eager and vulnerable minds? (p.66).

The development and impact of national identity is an especially important topic for those in the U.S. Cross-national comparative studies have shown that U.S. high school students possess an exceptionally strong national identity (Torney, Farnen 1975). While it raises more questions than it answers, developmental research provides some insight into how national identity affects peoples' view of the interna-

tional arena. Although there was a good deal of research on children's feelings of nationalism and patriotism conducted between the two world wars, it was not until Piaget and Weil's (1951) seminal study that the focus became developmental. Piaget and Weil conducted a series of interviews on 200 children between the ages of 4 and 5 in Geneva, Switzerland. They found that the child initially displays an egocentrism, or an unconscious assumption that his/her perspective is the only one possible. In order to progress from this stage toward reciprocity, a faculty which allows the individual to understand the perspective of others, the child must must make an effort at "decentration", or broadening of his center of interest. As this occurs, the child progresses through stages of sociocentricity as he integrates new data and is confronted with perspectives other than his own. Thus, sociocentricity represents a survival of the earlier form of egocentrism on a broader social plane, but is also necessary to the development of a national identity. When the child can apply the concept of foreigner to his own nationality from the viewpoint of others, he has a national identity. According to Piaget and Weil this stage is reached at about the age of 10 or 11. The developmental framework posited by Piaget and Weil has received extensive support from later research (Moore et al. 1985; Lawson 1963; Connel 1971; Button 1972; Coles 1986; Hess and Torney 1967)

Jahoda (1962) expanded on this initial research by examining the manner in which the perception of other

countries becomes organized, and how favorable and unfavorable attitudes emerge. He interviewed randomly sampled groups of 6-7 year olds, 8-9 year olds, and 10-11 year old Scottish children from four primary schools in Glasgow. The children were asked to: 1) list countries they knew, 2) tell which countries they liked or disliked, and, 3) tell what they knew about America and Russia. He found that the development of national identity was parallel to the development of spatial and geographic understanding. Even more revealing was a pattern of children's responses to a question asking what countries they liked or disliked. While younger children were attracted by exotic countries the older children were repelled. Also, older children consistently chose communist countries as least liked and when commenting on Russia displayed a "growing approximation to adult stereotypes" (p. 105). Jahoda's study was important for demonstrating the role that stereotypes play in this developmental process. As Torney (1977) has indicated, children ironically may develop national identity through the use of stereotypes. In the earlier stages of development their logical abilities are limited and stereotypes give them a way to draw distinctions in the geographic and political realm. It may also be the basis by which they are socialized into the dominant political thinking of their society.

A study by Allen (1976) using students in grades 1, 3 and 6 from schools in Canada, Australia and the United States examined the changing nature of children's concepts of their

own and other countries. They were asked to write whatever they thought of in response to the names of eight countries. The responses were coded according to whether they exhibited stereotypes, egocentric thinking, or evaluations. The findings supported Piaget in that egocentrism diminished with age, although the variation was greater than suggested by their ages. Furthermore, Allen concluded that stereotypes disappear as children acquire data about other countries, but the overall pattern suggests that "the amount of stereotyping in reference to other countries remains fairly constant after a sufficient knowledge base has been acquired" (p.90). Allen found that although most stereotypes were based on differences, the associations were positive. However, by the sixth grade, children were making associations based on international events (i.e. wars) more frequently, and associations were colored by the relationship between the respondent's own country and the country of interest. This trend is supported by a number of other studies which included older subjects (Button 1972; Targ 1970, Peterson 1980, Masters 1984).

Cooper (1965) used a sample of 300 English and Japanese school children between the ages of 7 and 16 to investigate the development of politico-moral ideas. Each child responded to a written survey, with a small subsample being interviewed in depth. In interpreting his results Cooper coined the term the "patriotic filter":

> Whilst patriotism serves useful functions in
> binding individuals together for some common task,
> it also provides for a hostile evaluation of the
> actions of others. Information about events passes
> through a "patriotic filter" which admits certain
> information and distorts other. In our data the
> hostile function of this filter appears around the
> age of nine or ten years. The formation of it
> depends on the distinction of us from outsiders,
> and the differentiation of time and space." (p. 6)

Cooper suggests that the development of a national identity, and the positive benefits which might accrue from it-association with a political community-come at the expense of what Piaget might term patriotic sociocentricity. This notion is reflected in the results of a number of studies.

In one of these studies, Lambert and Klineberg (1967) investigated children's preferences for other countries by surveying the views of 3,300 6, 10, and 14 year-olds in eleven countries. They found that children's preferences for other countries changed in the older children. Among the U.S. students in the sample, by the age of 14 the Soviet Union was chosen as the "least liked" country by a majority of the children, whereas there was no clear choice among younger children. Smith (1979) used factor analysis to assess the way seventh graders perceived other countries and found that Western European democracies and Soviet bloc countries were consistently clustered together.

Targ (1970) administered a questionnaire to 4th through 6th graders in two middle class communities to assess their attitudes toward foreign policy making and international politics. He concluded that by 6th grade, children had

disdain for certain other countries and that the choice of these countries was essentially based on a "cold war mentality." Button's (1972) survey of 183 4th through 10th graders in Texas supports Targ's findings. He found children tend to "dislike" perceived enemies of the U.S. and "like" allies.

Pike and Barrows (1979) surveyed a randomly selected sample of 4th, 8th and 12th graders. By the 12th grade students were categorizing countries according to "geopolitical considerations." At the same time, however, 12th graders exhibited a less U.S. centered view of the world and a more balanced perspective.

The common thread which runs through all of these studies might be best understood in terms of what Connel (1971) referred to as the "threat schema." Connel interviewed Australian children and adolescents on a number of issues including support for the Vietnam War. He found almost universal support for Australian involvement in the war, even among those who claimed to be against war in principle. He attributed this inconsistency to a fear, which has roots in early life, of a threat to the homeland .

> The idea of an external threat to the country thus becomes charged at an early age with personal emotion, with fears of violent intrusion into the nice and safe places of the child's own life. We will not be far out if we trace the affect laden threat schemata of latter childhood and adolescence to these roots. At later ages, naturally, as the children construct an image of the political order, the threat is placed more firmly in a political context. (p.102)

Connel surmised that the "triangle of nationalism, anti-communism and the threat schema" is effectively conveyed to children and is adapted by most of them in a form which appears to be permanent. In that sense the ideas adolescents hold about the political world are thoroughly derivative of adult ideas. The development of a national identity, Connel is suggesting, takes place within a general process common to all societies (the threat schema) and within a particular political context (anti-communism).

A 1969 study by Volker of U.S. children and their perceptions of the Vietnam war drew a conclusion similar to Connel's. Based on interviews with parents and children she recognized what Connel terms the threat schemata as having a social root. It is transmitted from familiar adults into a general tradition of threats to, and defense of the country.

To infer from the results of these studies that there is a single political orientation within the nation-state, and that the process of political learning is simply to be socialized to this orientation would be obviously simplistic. As early as 1962 differences between individuals based on group affiliation were recognized. Jahoda found that working class children were more inclined to associate the term foreign country with the strange and exotic, while the middle class children understood the term in the more conventional way. Further, working class children expressed more negative attitudes toward foreign countries, especially Russia.

Differences in national orientation according to social class was also evident in Coles (1986) research. In describing the attitudes of middle class white children he stated:

> The eagerness in white suburbs to defend this country at all costs and in all respects contrasts sharply with the previously mentioned scornful expressions that pepper the talk of boys and girls in poorer sections of our cities and in some rural areas. I hesitate to slap the word rigid upon such an eagerness, but I have at times noticed that an effort to probe the patriotic attitudes of these children with even the slightest hint of doubt does not make for a relaxed response (p. 254).

Yet, Coles does not mean to imply that attitudes toward country can be easily classified by reference to social class. In discussing the views of children in South Boston he says

> ...one moment an uncritical adoration of flag, of national achievements, with Sousa marches and patriotic songs; the next moment a passionate populist egalitarian critique of the corrupt, devious manipulative ways of power...followed the next moment by a spirited defense of American democracy and the American military as the only hopes (p. 254).

Connel suggested that children acquire aspects of a mainstream nationalist tradition and a minority class-based tradition. It is these political traditions which serve to channel the diffuse fears and anxieties that young children have into a socially validated symbol of evil. For some that may mean enemy nations, for others it is some group within the nation. For example, Connel found that a small minority of Australian students who professed strong class conscious,

pro labor beliefs were opposed to Australia's involvement in the Vietnam War. Yet, they perceived a threat from the wealthy class in their own society. (p.113). Finally, as is suggested by Cole's work, these traditions merge into a collection of attitudes not easily categorized in terms of nationalism.

In summary, what we know from studies of the development of national identity and orientation toward other nations includes:

1) The development of national identity occurs early in life and progresses rapidly.

2) National identity develops based on a we-they distinction and the use of stereotypes to make sense of the socio-political world.

3) While associations with other countries are positive early in life, they quickly become colored by the political environment.

4) Social class acts as an important factor in the development of national orientation

The research on national identity points out a nettle-some problem for anyone concerned with political education. As Torney (1982) stated it:

How can a child's natural ability to take a wide range of perspectives be nurtured in a way which neither subtracts from the students' basic positive national feeling nor is hindered by extremes of that feeling? (p.13)

Before reviewing the studies on the schools' impact in this regard, it is useful to evaluate the studies on young peoples' orientation toward international processes.

<u>Orientations Toward International Processes</u>

The same process by which children begin to conform to adult stereotypes and political thinking affects not only their view of other countries but also international processes, institutions and interactions. This section of the review will focus on the question of how individuals come to understand the international political arena, and high-light the differences according to group affiliation.

One of the major foci in the area of international political processes has been on the way in which children come to understand the concepts of war and peace. Substantial agreement exists that the concept of war begins to form around the age of 6 or 7, and is understood by the age of 8. In the initial stages it is based on concrete manifestations of war such as guns and soldiers, but eventually moves to an understanding of the concept in terms of consequences, such as dying and killing (Cooper 1965; Rosell 1968, Alvik 1968; Haavelsruud 1970, Targ 1970, Tolley 1973).

There is also substantial agreement that the concept of peace develops differently from that of war (Rosell 1968; Alvik 1968; Haavelsrud 1970, Cooper 1965). In Cooper's study of 300 English school children, few were able to give a clear definition of peace. Responses fell into four categories.

    1) inactivity
    2) respite-an end to hostile activity
    3) sociable activity
    4) reconciliation from war

Cooper concluded that, "In all events the idea of peace to these children scarcely represents a vigorous drive towards international cooperation" (p.5).

The Cooper study also investigated the justifications children and adolescents gave for war. The respondents were asked to state or guess why Japan and England entered World War II. Two conclusions were drawn from this analysis. First, Cooper concluded that justification for war increases with age. While 70% of the eight year olds in Cooper's sample felt war has no justification, only 10% of the fifteen year olds felt the same. The older respondents grew to appreciate the motivations for actions in terms of such things as desire for power, which they recognized as instinctive human emotions. As recognition of these motives increased, restrictions on war lessened. Hence, war becomes more "necessary" with age (p.7). Secondly, Cooper alleges that the adolescent is incapable of seeing both sides as right or wrong in a conflict. It is as if the adolescent "conceives of only a finite amount of morality which he must distribute amongst the conflicting parties." (p. 5) Cooper interpreted his findings within a Piagetian framework and suggested

> ...the noted act of maturing which enables the child to divorce himself from a restricted perspective also fosters an attitude more disposed towards war. His new found reciprocity of thought which might ideally permit him to gain sympathy with other people, to appreciate their motives, and not only his own, also leads to an understanding of undesirable motives. It is on these grounds that

war can be justified as a defense against supposed undesirable intentions (p. 12).

One other finding of Cooper's pertinent to this study is the differences in responses between males and females. In general, girls were less likely to believe war is necessary, expressed less interest in war, and were more concerned about its negative aspects. In the event of a war, girls would tend to defend their family first while boys would defend their country.

Alvik (1968) used a modified version of Cooper's questionnaire with a purposive sample of 2nd, 4th and 6th graders in Norway. He asked students to draw a picture of war and peace as the basis for the questions. His results agree with Cooper that peace is not as easily defined as war. He explained this as a result of children not utilizing their growing intellectual capacity when it comes to developing their knowledge of peace. That is, children get too little information about "what lies at the bottom of conflict conditions."

Haavelsrud (1970) also used the Cooper instrument with a purposive sample of 565 West Berlin school children age 10, 12, 15 and 17. He was interested in clarifying the relationship between age, sex, IQ and social position with the individual's international orientation. By international orientation, he was specifically concerned with: (1) the logical consistency with which they defended answers about which nations were right or wrong in World War II; (2) the

meaningfulness the individual displayed in describing the terms peace, war and prevention and causes of war; (3) images of war and peace; (4) reaction to threat; and, (5) the necessity and probability of war. His findings indicated that significant differences existed on these dimensions on the basis of socio-economic background and age. In general, younger subjects and low socio-economic subjects tended to: (1) be less consistent in justifying answers about who was right or wrong in World War II; (2) display less "meaningfulness in describing war, peace, prevention of war and causes of war; (3) were less concerned with the effects of war on people; (4) less favorable toward starting a war when threatened; and, (5) believe in man's good nature. He also found that girls were more concerned with the negative effects of war on people, which was consistent with findings of both Alvik and Cooper.

Unfortunately, it is difficult to draw inferences about American students from these older studies on European students. Most of the investigations carried out with American samples have been concerned with children's impressions of specific wars, or their attitudes toward the possibility of nuclear war. One large-scale study which provides some insight on the thinking of American youth is a study conducted by Tolley (1973). He was concerned with finding out how and when children acquire attitudes about war as well as their primary sources of information. He used a sample of 2,677 students, age 7 to 15, in fourteen schools. His data

was collected through the use of interviews with parents and teachers and with a Likert type questionnaire.In terms of general attitudes toward war he found that children and adolescents tend to separate their moral judgements of war from their feelings of patriotic duty (p. 32). That is, children almost unanimously condemn war in principle yet,

> Feelings of national duty or patriotic loyalty alter children's views on the morality of war. As might be expected the young do justify war conducted for national defense or against a hostile enemy (p. 36).

Tolley also found that "early in life Americans learn to regard war as a regular feature of international relations." (p. 36) Despite the fact that Tolley collected his data at the height of the public outcry against the war in Vietnam, he found no difference between young peoples' attitude toward war in the 1970s and the attitudes of young people polled in the 1930s.

Two of Tolley's findings also were consistent with many of the findings of the European studies. The older children were more likely to be tolerant of war, (that is to accept it as inevitable) and boys were more tolerant than girls. He also found that private school children had more tolerance than public school children, and students from military academies had the greatest tolerance.

Tolley investigated the contributions of various agents of socialization to the students' attitudes toward war, and drew a number of conclusions. Using regression analysis he

found that school, age and parents contribute most to the
acceptance of war. While television and the press contribute
substantially to young people's knowledge, personal contact
with family and teachers account for opinion differences.
More specifically, he found that for children of what he
termed the "attentive public", parents were the paramount
influence, but for less vocal or concerned parents, schools
play a larger role. Finally, children's acceptance of war as
a normal feature of international politics depends more on
the influence of family and school than familiarity with or
attentiveness to world affairs.

In summary, these important early studies on young
peoples' orientation to war and peace have a number of
consistent findings:

1) By the time an individual reaches a stage of
   reciprocity there is an acceptance or tolerance of
   the inevitability of war.

2) Young people have an easier time defining and concep-
   tualizing war than peace, which is seldom defined in
   active terms or as an international process

3) Significant differences exist between males and
   females. Females are less interested in the strategy
   of war, less convinced it is inevitable and more
   concerned about its negative consequences

4) School can have an important influence on the
   student's attitude toward war as an international
   process

Two important studies from this same period began to
look beyond the concepts of war and peace and take a broader
view of children's orientation to the international arena.
Targ (1970) attempted to establish some measure of orienta-

tion levels of children from the 4th to the 6th grade. Using a questionnaire to tap attitudes toward national foreign policy making and international politics, he found that children at relatively early ages begin to develop orientations to international politics. As grade level increased, children were more likely to describe the U.S. as strong and the USSR and China as important. Furthermore, as students grew older, war was increasingly seen as legal and nonaggressive, while acts of trade and creation of alliances were viewed as aggressive but good. Targ concluded that childrens' choices modeled Cold War attitudes. Children, he argued, were being socialized to accept a world view not unlike Morgenthau's Realpolitik,which justifies the achievement of international political ends with the use or threatened use of force.

A study very similar to Targ's used a sample which included high school age students. Button (1972) gave a questionnaire to a sample of 183 4th through 10th graders in Texas to explore their orientations toward international politics and the role of the school in inculating these attitudes. He found that a majority of children at all ages expressed attitudes which were consistent with those of adults polled in the same time period. These included belief in the inevitability of war, dislike of the USSR, belief in the necessity of alliances, belief in aggressive trade-all of which led Button to conclude:

> these attitudes closely resemble those of
> Morgenthau's 'realpolitik,' in which national self-
> interest and international competitiveness flourish
> as ideal international orientations while estab-
> lished norms of international law and morality are
> deprecated (p. 350).

Button also analyzed the data to explore developmental trends
and discovered that early attitudes remained the same despite
cognitive development. However, this conclusion should be
carefully qualified since the study was not longitudinal.

While these early studies have shown students to hold an
outlook of political realism, more recent studies have also
uncovered a desire in young people for more international
cooperation. Essentially, the more recent studies have
corroborated the earlier ones while adding another perspec-
tive.

A comparative study of American and Japanese university
students was undertaken to explore the concepts of
nationalism and world-mindedness as social cognitions (Der-
Karabetian, Shang and Shu 1983). The sample included 210
students from a college in Los Angeles and 270 students
enrolled in a college in Tokyo. Data were collected with a
questionnaire. Respondents were asked to agree or disagree
with 32 statements. The authors concluded that the students
exhibited a "global humanism," which would include elements
of nationalism with a desire for international cooperation.
For example, in the U.S. sample, 55% agreed that war is
inevitable, 50% agreed "loyalty to one's country should come
before world brotherhood", 53% agreed national boundries

should be preserved at all costs," and 64% agreed "people must be willing to fight to maintain their culture and heritage." At the same time, 81% agreed "no country should be allowed to possess nuclear weapons," and 85% agreed "World citizenship should be taught in all schools."

The overall results are consistent with a more rigorous international survey by Klineberg (1979), which attempted to assess college student attitudes. Basing his conclusions on surveys from 10,000 college students in eleven countries he recognizes three major orientations: (1) internationalism, which combines attitudes favorable to immigration and elimination of nationalism and the establishment of world government; (2) nationalism, which opposes any elimination of national sovereignty, promotes the need to control immigration and distrusts supranational organizations; and, (3) social protectionism, which works for elimination of nationalism, has some distrust of world government, and some support of immigration limitation.

Klineberg placed U.S. students in the latter category. Social protectionism implies an unwillingness to give up scarce resources and distrust of cultural integration. These results again indicate a form of nationalism which is not inconsistent with hope for international cooperation. The findings of the Klineberg (1979) and Der-Karabetian et al. (1983) studies give indication that attitudes need to be looked at in terms of specific issue areas.

Peterson (1980) conducted a survey of 1,391 junior and senior high school students in Kentucky to determine their attitudes toward international affairs. He found that the majority see the world becoming more conflictive in the years ahead, and that the view overall was one of "realpolitik and pessimistic." He also found a consistency with the earlier surveys in that students viewed the world as bipolar, much like the cold war attitudes of the 1960s. The difference was that students in Peterson's sample felt the U.S. was on the decline. Despite these findings, the students also indicated a lack of support for the use of force in international affairs, but with a significantly greater proportion of females rejecting the use of force. Both males and females favored cooperation over independence in world affairs.

Masters (1984) used Peterson's questionnaire to survey 2097 junior and senior high school students in the Atlanta area. His findings were consistent with those of Peterson, with the majority of students expressing a pessimistic position (based on a bipolar view of the world), but favoring an internationalist, cooperative stance toward world affairs. Masters also found significant differences in attitudes between males and females, with males being more isolation-ist, less cooperative and more inclined to use force.

One other difference which Peterson and Masters uncovered, as compared to results from the earlier surveys, is the role of television as an agent of international political socialization. As Master indicates

It seems that television has become a major, if not the major, agent of international political socialization...the superficial nature of such a medium can hinder the development of an adequate understanding of the major processes within the international system.  The public schools must do more to make sure today's youth understand and appreciate the interdependent world in which they live (p. 34).

Despite Master's warning, there is indication changes have taken place that might explain the difference in findings between the surveys of the 1960s and the early 70s and those of the 1980s.  The National Assessment of Educational Progress (1978) found that between 1969 and 1976 there was improvement in the ability of high school students to state peaceful methods to avoid future wars. Also, a significantly higher proportion of the students in 1976 as compared to those in 1969 could state the purpose for the United Nations.

Close (1984) conducted a survey which was similar to that of Peterson and Masters, but used Canadian students. His purpose was to determine attitudes toward the Cold War, foreign aid and the political community in order to compare these attitudes on the basis of sex, age and social class. He sampled 1,126 5th, 8th and 11th graders from two school boards in a rural part of Newfoundland.  He found that maturation tended "to bring young people both a greater awareness of foreign affairs and a more open outlook on the world" (p. 339).  He also found that the working class students in his sample had more authoritarian, nationalistic

attitudes. Each of these findings is consistent with the earlier research cited. However, Close found no difference on the basis of gender, a finding which conflicts with much of the other socialization research, including the Peterson and Masters studies. The difference is not easily interpreted and may be the result of the particular sample Close used.

A number of conclusions can be drawn from this review of young peoples' orientation to international politics and processes. Most important of these are:

1) By adolescence, children have developed concepts of war and peace which remain fairly stable. Generally, they hold a more sophisticated understanding of war and a narrow, simplistic view of peace. There is reason to believe these immature concepts of peace lag behind intellectual development due to underexposure to the concept.

2) As individuals mature, they see more justification for war and this is weaved into a world view that largely reflects the ideology of the country in which they live. While they reject war in principle, they see it as inevitable and a matter of patriotic duty, patriotism and morality.

3) There is evidence of a fairly strong strand of nationalism which underlies youthful attitudes, but also a belief in the necessity of international cooperation, a need to avoid military conflict and support for the U.N.

4) There are significant differences between males and females in their attitudes toward world affairs. Generally, females are less interested, less inclined to favor the use of force to solve disputes and less willing to concede war is inevitable.

5) There is reason to believe there are differences between social classes with working class students holding more parochial attitudes.

In summarizing the attitudes of students of the 1980s Hepburn (1984) stated, "American high school students in the

1980s are generally loyal to their country, but cannot be considered rabidly patriotic" (p.12). However, in terms of the attitudes toward international problems she felt

> For too many teenagers it seems that perceptions of the world are based on the stereotypes and oversimplifications produced by episodic and often nonanalytical school and mass media treatment of such topics as the Hitler era, WWII, the Berlin Wall, the Cold War, U.S.-Soviet power struggles and the Iranian upheaval (p. 27).

If Hepburn's appraisal of the situation is anywhere near accurate, then certainly the role of the school in producing this deserves exploration. It is to this concern that this review will now turn.

## Impact of Schooling on Attitude Toward World Affairs

The early research on the effects of schooling on the political socialization process at the high school level found no effect of curriculum on student attitudes (Langton and Jennings, 1968). The explanation advanced for this lack of effect was the redundancy principle. That is, the high school curriculum simply represented a more in-depth teaching of content initially introduced at the elementary level. Therefore, many political attitudes were in place prior to the student reaching high school. The difficulty with this research was that it used very gross indexes as measures of curriculum (i.e. number of social studies courses taken). Secondly, as already indicated by many of the studies previously cited, if the concern is specifically with

international political socialization, there is disagreement over whether attitudes change through adolescence (Millard 1981; Close 1984; Button 1972).

Ehman (1980) conducted an extensive review of the literature on political socialization and concluded that the school is the most important source of political information for adolescents. However, the school's effect on political attitudes seems to be minimal without a "special effort or treatment being mounted"(p.107). He also concluded from the empirical studies reviewed that

> Although there are a few contradictory studies, it is impressive that the evidence from a variety of studies lines up solidly in support of classroom climate as a potent correlate of student political attitudes (p.110).

The important element in terms of classroom climate according to Ehman is that it be "open," a situation he defines as being when

> ...students have an opportunity to engage freely in making suggestions for structuring the class-room environment, and when they have an opportunity to discuss all sides of controversial topics, the classroom climate is deemed open.

The factors Ehman pointed to as essential in an open classroom climate are consistent with a list of factors Torney, Oppenheim and Farnen (1975) suggest is related to low authoritarianism in the classroom. These include: (1) encouragement of freedom of expression and political discussion, (2) infrequent participation in patriotic rituals, (3) emphasis on non-western cultures, (4) infrequent

use of printed drill, (5) willingness of teachers to discuss sensitive issues. Based on their findings from a 10-nation study, the authors concluded that these elements are related to support of democratic political values and interest in politics.

Rosell and Hawley (1981) used questionnaires for students and teachers, content analysis of classroom materials, sociograms, and classroom observation to test whether the way teachers treat their students has an effect on political cynicism. They used a stratified random sample to select 79 North Carolina classrooms with a total of 1625 students. They found that when the teacher showed interest in student ideas and openness, the students expressed less political cynicism.

Ehman (1980b) carried out a longitudinal study in 10 schools for two years. He hypothesized that more open classrooms would be associated with increased positive political attitudes. These included political confidence, political trust, political interest and political integration. He found that use of controversial opinions, freedom to express opinion and expression of a range of views in the classroom was positively associated with trust, interest and integration, but negatively associated with confidence. Ehman defined political confidence as the "belief one's actions can have an effect on political activities and decisions" (p. 256). The results may indicate that increased

discussion of political issues bring with it an increased "realism."

The thrust of these studies has been to investigate relationships between domestic political attitudes. However, they are instructive in considering changing international political attitudes. It should be pointed out that in class-rooms in which discussion is open, attitudinal changes are not always positive. Ehman found that political confidence decreased in an environment in which there was open exchange of ideas. This suggests that attitudes may be altered when one is confronted with ideas which challenge previously held beliefs and new information which is not easily integrated into one's existing mental framework. Open classroom discussion produces conflicts within the group which leads to conceptual conflict within the individual and which eventually leads to attitudinal change. It may be that this dynamic is just as operative in altering attitudes about the international political arena as it is the domestic political arena.

Another reason why open classroom discussion is in need of investigation in terms of international political atti-tudes is suggested by the research on teacher attitudes. Naylor (1973) developed a questionnaire to measure the beliefs of educational administrators about nationalistic education. The instrument consisted of a series of hypothet-ical situations involving issues of nationalism in a public school. He asked the administrators to respond to the issues

in terms of what they thought should happen in the given situation, and what they thought would happen. The majority of administrators at both the elementary and secondary levels felt the schools should act in a way which was non-nationalistic, but would act nationalistically. The results of Naylor's survey suggest there are pressures on schools to behave in a nationalistic way, possibly because it is perceived to be less controversial.

Two early studies suggest this assumption. Both Button (1972) and Tolley (1973) found in their surveys of elementary and high school students that the Vietnam War was avoided as a topic of discussion in social studies classrooms during the height of the war.

Tye (1980) also surveyed teachers. He found teachers "by and large nationalistic" (p.10), with social studies teachers only slightly less so. Possibly most revealing was that 60% of the teachers felt that "schools are not placing enough emphasis on patriotism and respect for the flag." This is significant in relation to Torney et al. (1975) finding that among 10 countries U.S. students ranked at the top in terms of national loyalty. Tye interpreted his findings by stating most teachers

> ...want to teach about other nations and people, they even want to develop more positive attitudes in students towards others. However, they want this done within a framework which also acknowledges and even promotes national loyalty." (p.8)

A number of researchers have investigated the effects of specific programs in international education on student attitudes. Torney-Purta (1984) undertook a large scale survey of global education programs. Her sample was nation-wide but was not randomly selected. Schools were contacted through the head administrator and asked to participate if they offered a course which could be described under the rubric of global education. This meant, of course, that the types of programs identified were wide ranging. Within each participating school, a control group, which consisted of social studies students not enrolled in global education courses, was selected for as a basis of comparison. The questionnaire completed by the students was extensive and included sections designed to measure both knowledge and affect in the area of global issues. If an individual scored high on the affective measure it indicated he had interest in personal contact with those from other nations, attempted to be informed about other nations and showed empathy for others. Torney-Purta found significant differences on affective scores by program and concluded that intense, highly selective programs enrolling able students were very successful at changing attitudes; especially those programs combining curricular and extra-curricular aspects. She also found that programs which had continuity and a component of teacher training were highly successful. Traditional programs (these included programs such as Area Studies and World History) had little success. A multiple regression analysis was done to identify

valid predictors of high global concern scores. The predictors thus identified included: reading international news, watching television news, GPA, gender, extracurricular participation, foreign language fluency and duration of foreign language study. Torney-Purta concluded by stating

> Although this survey provides strong evidence that global education does work, its interpretation suggests that simply creating a course and calling it International Relations or World Studies will not insure the desired outcome. (p.25)

Studies by Williams (1961) in Great Britain and Elly (1964) in New Zealand support this contention. In both cases, teacher-designed courses which made a conscious effort to foster attitudinal change were successful. Both however, used non-traditional methods of instruction while focusing on traditional content. These studies also indicated that improved attitudes do not necessarily result from increased knowledge.

In contrast, two studies looked at courses which used more traditional teaching methods, but were based non-traditional content. Smith (1973) attempted to determine if a one semester course developed by the Anthropology Curriculum Study Project would increase the world-mindedness of high school students. He administered the Sampson-Smith World-mindedness Scale to 171 students before and after taking: (1) the new course, (2) a general world studies course, and (3) a current affairs course. No difference was found among the mean scores of the three groups.

Mercer (1974) used a questionnaire to assess the attitudes of high school students in Scotland after a formal course in Political Education. He matched students who had taken the course with students who had not, by social class, sex, and verbal reasoning. The total sample was 2,400. He found no difference in the way respondents judged war (intentions vs. consequences) or the students' ability to give an abstract definition of war and peace. These results were so despite the fact that those were explicit objectives of the course.

Smith (1979) attempted to assess the impact of materials from the Global Studies Project on the structure of student attitudes towards other nations. The design was pretest/posttest with a control group. The sample included 15 schools, which were self-selected, from 6 states. The experimental group and control groups were determined by the individual school. The treatment lasted 15 weeks and data were collected by means of a questionnaire. Factor analysis was used to measure the perceptual structures of the students. Smith's conclusion was that the materials had no effect on the perceptual structure of the experimental group.

In contrast to the findings of these studies, many other studies have identified programs in global education which were successful at changing attitudes. Tye and Tye (1983) carried out a five year evaluation of a project designed by Global Perspectives in Education (GPE). They selected 14 classrooms in the San Francisco and Albuquerque areas as

their sample. The students were predominantly white, middle class, of high ability and "conservative." They used classroom observation, teacher interviews, and student surveys including a knowledge test and attitude scale. The attitude scale was adopted from the large-scale study  A Study of Schooling  (1977). By using this scale the researchers were able to make comparisons between their small sample and the larger sample in the IDEA study. The scale included ten items and on all but three, the GPE sample "had much more positive scores on the average than the IDEA sample" (p. 53). On two other items, the GPE sample was slightly higher and on one they were about the same. The classroom observations and teacher interviews indicate one possible reason for this result. Overall, teachers were motivated and valued global awareness. They were described as "flexible" and expended time and effort in incorporating new activities into their teaching. Most telling, however, in terms of what other research has indicated as important, is that lessons were concept rather than fact oriented, and various grouping and other activity modes were used. Overall, classes had a high level of student-teacher interaction. A "different content was observed in each of the 14 classrooms visited and most involved a significant adaptation of GPE materials." (p.52). While no direct causal connection should be inferred from this study, it suggests that it was not the content per se but the way the content was transmitted that had an effect on student attitudes.

Carlson (1984) reported on the results of a quasi-experimental study of a curriculum to teach about "Security in the Nuclear Age." Two social studies classes and one science class were used as the experimental group and one social studies and one science class were used as the control. The teachers were volunteers, but assignment to the experimental or control group was random. The curriculum was designed around the concepts of security, values, the nature of conflict, security planning, diplomacy and the U.S. role in security. The approach to the study of these concepts was based on interaction and included discussion, simulation and debate. A test was designed to assess knowledge level and attitude in terms of the major concepts focused on in the curriculum. There were no significant differences between the two groups in terms of attitudes, and Carlson attributed that to the short treatment period. Nevertheless, two important findings resulted from an analysis of the student responses. First, males felt the best means of preservation for the U.S. is a strong military. For the females, democratic government held the greatest hope. This result occurred within both the control and experimental groups, again indicating that gender is a powerful predictor of attitude toward international politics. Secondly, there were significant differences between those who claimed to use the media as their main source of information on world affairs and those who claimed to use the school as their main source of information on world affairs. For those claiming to use

the media, fear between nations was seen as the biggest obstacle to peace. They also felt that the U.S. has preserved the peace through a strong military and that the purpose of arms control is to maintain world peace. For those who claimed to use the school as their source of information, (1) the major obstacle to peace was perceived to be an absence of effective international cooperation and agreement, and (2) the purpose of arms control was to limit the destructiveness of war if it occurred. Another important difference was that those relying on the media answered higher level questions (analysis/synthesis) from what Carlson termed a protection/power/predominance paradigm. Those relying on information from school used a negotiation/limitation of power paradigm.

Torney-Purta (1986) reported on two studies of curriculum projects in the area of global education both of which proved to be effective in changing student attitudes. The first was the "Stanford in the Schools, American Schools in the World" project. Student questionnaires, teacher interviews and intensive classroom observations were used to collect information on global education courses in the Bay Area. The student questionnaire included knowledge subscales as well as the attitudinal scales from the ETS study by Pike and Barrow (1979). A regression analysis showed that freedom to disagree in class with an opinion expressed by the teacher was a valid predictor on the knowledge and attitude scales.

A second study was conducted on a project by the Maryland Center for International Studies. Fifty-nine secondary school students were the recipients of a specially designed two week curriculum which had as a major component a computer-assisted simulation. The students took the roles of representatives of five countries and participated in a simulated international negotiation. The students also had lectures, visited embassies and participated in other small-scale simulations. Questionnaires were filled out by the subjects prior to the start of the project and two days before the seminar was completed. Trained observers conducted more than one-hundred ten to fifteen minute obser-vations of the simulation and rated the subjects on the amount of participant interaction. The questionnaires included scales measuring national chauvinism, perception of the world divided into U.S. allies and enemies, importance of rationality and moderation in foreign policy, and support for international cooperation. There was a statistically signif-icant decline on the national chauvinism scale from pre to post test, with a large decline in agreement on two items: (1) the best way to insure peace is for the U.S. to be stronger than any other nation in the world, and (2) the U.S. should be free to intervene militarily in other countries in order to protect our national interest. The observations corroborated this and indicated that "some students decreased moderately in their readiness to express nationally chauvin-istic attitudes." (p.17) There was also a significant

increase in support for international cooperation from pretest to posttest, especially in the areas of nuclear proliferation and world economy.

The Maryland study gives support to the idea that interaction is an important variable in changing attitudes toward international politics. Whether the results produced in this very intense two week seminar could be reproduced in the classroom is unanswered.

Two studies at opposite ends of the educational hierarchy give evidence that global education can increase individual global perspective without adversely affecting their appreciation for their own country. Mitsakos (1978) attempted to evaluate the results of a specific curricular intervention in the field of global education known as the Family of Man. His study compared third graders who had been through this program for three years with students who had experienced two other social studies programs. Using 15 statements, on a semantic differential scale designed to assess political chauvinism, he found all three groups low on ethnocentrism. Furthermore, while the experimental group expressed more favorable attitudes toward foreign peoples, he found no difference in the three groups in regards to their perception of the United States. The finding led Mitsakos to conclude:

> This fact negates the claim made by some skeptics that time spent on the study of other nations reduces the time spent on the U.S., which results in a lack of understanding about America (p. 12).

Barnes and Curlette (1985) subjected a group of college students to a ten week graduate course in global understanding. The students were administered the <u>World-mindedness Scale</u> and the <u>Patriotism Scale</u> before and after formal instruction. The results were compared to a group of students enrolled in a graduate course without a global component. The researchers found significant increases between the pretest and posttest for the experimental group on world-mindedness. At the same time, this group experienced no significant reduction in scores on the Patriotism Scale. The results suggest global education can be effective in increasing global perspective without reducing appreciation for one's own country.

To summarize, the important findings from this research are:

1) An open classroom climate and a high degree of interaction among students is an important element in changing student political attitudes.

2) Predictors of high global concern include reading international news, watching television news, gender, extracurricular participation, foreign language fluency and duration of foreign language study.

3) Innovative teaching methods appears to be more successful in affecting student attitudes than innovative course content.

4) Global education programs at the elementary and college level have been successful in increasing student world-mindedness and decreasing ethnocentrism without affecting students' sense of patriotism. No studies exist at the high school level.

## Summary

In the area of international education, those programs which have been termed "global education" have as a common objective shifting the world perspective of the typical individual. The intent is to provide students with a global perspective rather than a narrow nationalistic perspective. However, research on young peoples' attitudes toward the nation-state, other countries, and international processes tells us these attitudes are firmly set early in life. For the most part, we can characterize these attitudes as being we-they in perspective and somewhat nationalistic. From a political standpoint, they are based on an ideological mindset which views the world as bipolar, and colors the individual's attitude toward other countries and international issues. At the same time, there are subtle but important differences among and between groups such as males and females, and different social classes.

While attitudes are firmly set early in life, it does not mean they are unalterable. The difficulty seems to be that the nationalistic thinking developed early in life is reinforced throughout school. Schools seem resistant to any form of education which is not nationalistic. Teachers, according to survey information, are either reluctant to present another view due to perceived social, legal and bureaucratic pressure or are simply unwilling. However, a small handful of studies have found programs based on the concept of interdependence to be successful in changing

student attitudes toward other countries and the international political arena. Programs which were successful used interactive and innovative teaching strategies. This seems to be consistent with research on the open classroom and student political attitudes. The connection might be that students hold rigid attitudes because they are neither forced to confront differing opinions, nor have the opportunity to test their own beliefs in a supportive but intellectually challenging environment. Therefore, there is reason to believe that a course based on the concept of interdependence and having as a purpose the inculcation of a global perspective can be successful in shifting student attitudes. However, we would expect that those attitudes which would shift are the ones based on the least information. In this case, students' attitudes toward international issues would be likely to change, but one's basic orientation toward the nation-state would not.

## CHAPTER III
### Overview

The purpose of this study has been to assess the impact of a global education course on students' global-mindedness and patriotism. Four schools, each with one-semester-length global education courses participated. The schools were chosen on the basis of their geographic location and the predominant socio-economic make-up of the community in which they were located. A pretest/posttest quasi-experimental control group design was utilized. The control group was comprised of intact classes at the same grade level as the treatment group but who had not received formal instruction in global education. Data were collected during the first and last week of formal instruction. The <u>World Affairs Analysis</u> and the <u>Attitude Toward Patriotism Scale</u> (Thurstone, 1932) were used to measure the dependent variables of global-mindedness and patriotism. Demographic information and student perceptions of the classroom climate were collected to determine if certain variables correlated with global-mindedness. Finally, interviews with the participating global education teachers were conducted to categorize their particular approach to international education, and to draw inferences from the results of the student questionnaires.

<u>Sample</u>

Four high schools in the state of Michigan were chosen to participate in the study. Since global education courses are relatively rare, the schools were not randomly selected. Instead, they were chosen on the basis of their geographic location within the state, the predominant socio-economic make up of the student body, the type of community in which the school was situated, and the existence of a course defined by the school as falling within the domain of global education. The final sample consisted of 618 students in 25 classes in the four schools. Those enrolled in a global education course constituted the experimental group and totaled 396 students. The control group was made up of 222 pupils enrolled in various social studies courses which did not have a global education content. The age of the sample ranged from 14 to 18 with 47% being 15 years old. Although the sample included students in the ninth through the twelfth grade the majority were in the ninth and tenth grades. Females (52.5%) slightly outnumbered males (47.5%).

The majority of the students (81%) said they planned to attend college. This large number can be partially explained by the high proportion of ninth and tenth graders included in the sample, but may also be partially due to over representation of upper middle class students. This is also reflected in the fact that 45% of the students claimed the head of their household is a professional. Further, 66.5% have

traveled outside the country and 29.6% of those students have spent more than a month outside the U.S.

The largest percentage of students came from suburban areas (29.8%) with 27.3% describing their area of residence as urban, 24.9% as a small town, and 18.0% as rural. Television is claimed by 49.7% of the students as their major source of information on world affairs. The daily newspaper was read by 26.4%. Teachers were chosen as a major information source by only 13.5% of the sample. In terms of coursework, the average number of social studies courses taken at the high school level was 1.7. A foreign language course was taken by 77.2% of the sample, with 61% of those students taking it for two or more years.

A complete picture of the sample and a comparison of the experimental and control groups is provided in the appendix. While the two groups were essentially equivalent, some important differences should be noted. A higher percentage of the experimental group (28.5%) as opposed to the control group (16.2%) used the newspaper as their major source of information. While 45% of the experimental group claimed their fathers' occupation as part of a profession, only 32% of the control group claimed this for their fathers. The percentage of subjects who claimed their mothers as professionals was also larger for the treatment group (28.3% vs. 18%). The largest difference between the two groups was in the type of community in which they claimed to live. While 41% of the control group lived in an urban area, only 15% of the

experimental group did. The percentage of males and females in each group is presented in Figure 1. As the graph indicates, the two groups are equivalent in terms of gender.

While this gives some indication of the representativeness of the sample, a more detailed description of the individual schools follows.

## Small Town High

The first school, called Small Town High, is the only high school in a district encompassing 300 square miles. Within that large area is a town of approximately 15,000 people. The main economic activity of the area comes from tourism and agriculture. The district services a total of 9,906 students with 9,626 being defined by the State Department of Education as Caucasian. The next largest ethnic group is Native American with 116 (1.2%). Hispanics total 84 (.8%), Asians 64 (.6%), and Blacks 16 (.2%). The high school itself has 2,339 students, 2,279 of whom are Caucasian.

Due to the rapid economic growth the area is experiencing and the success of the tourist industry, the district is relatively well-off financially.

It was originally intended that the experimental group in Small Town High include all students in the first semester tenth-grade level "Global Perspectives" course. This would have involved 11 intact classes. However, the social studies curriculum at Small Town High is two-tiered, with a "general"

Figure 1.

TREATMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS BY GENDER
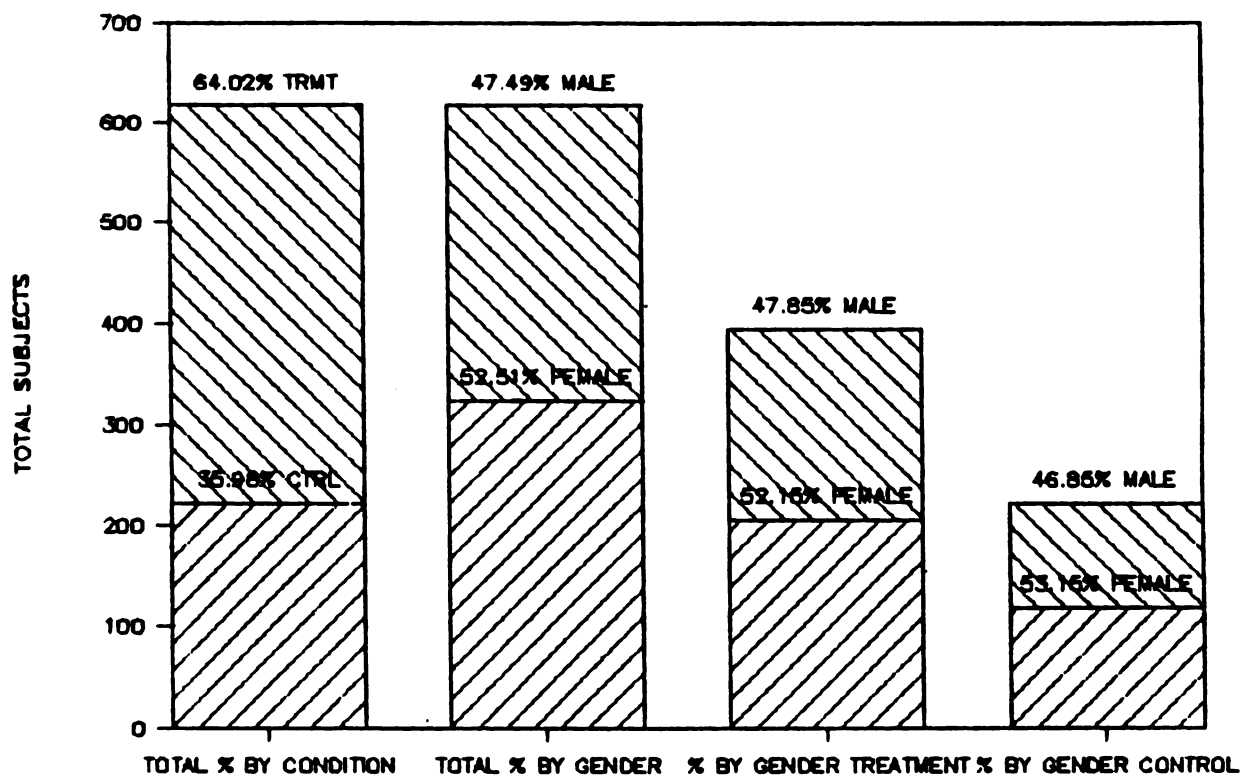
level of studies, and what is referred to as a "skills" level. The skills level includes students who are less proficient learners and typically have reading difficulties. Due to the method of data collection in this study, and after consultation with the social studies teachers at Small Town High, it was determined that the two "Global Perspectives Skill Level" classes would be left out of the study. Therefore, in 9 classes at the general level 237 students were used as the experimental group. The control group was first semester tenth grade American History students. This included 74 students in three classes taught by two teachers.

Of the total sample, 51.1% were female and 48.9% were male. Three-fourths of the students planned to go to college with the next largest percentage being undecided (13.8%). Most of the students (46.9) relied on television as their major source of information on world affairs, with the newspaper being used by 30%. The majority (63%) had traveled to a foreign country and 80.7% had taken a foreign language. The largest occupational group for the head of the household was professional (37%).

## Suburban High

The district in which Suburban High is located is within a major metropolitan area. It is an established, 25 square-mile community of 50,000 people. The community is home to many of the area's executives and professionals and therefore has a large tax base with which to support its schools. The

average expenditure per pupil is $6,250, which places the district among the top five in the state. There are 6,062 students in the school system. The ethnic breakdown of the district according to the State Department of Education is 5,250 (86.6%) Caucasians, 233 (3.7%) Blacks, 60 (1%) Hispanics, 529 (8.7%) Asians, and 0 Native Americans. Suburban High is one of two large high schools in the district, and has an enrollment of 1211 students. The school has 78 (6.4%) Asians, 74 (6.1%) Blacks, 18 (1.5%) Hispanics and 1,041 (86%) Whites.

The experimental group in Suburban High includes all the students enrolled in the first semester ninth grade course called "International Studies". The control group is comprised of two sections of the ninth-grade "Practical Law" course. This resulted in 90 students in the experimental group and 45 in the control group. Of 135, 69 (52%) were female and 66 (48%) were male. A percentage similar to that at Small Town High (80.7%) planned to go to college after high school. Also similar was the percentage of students who cited television as their major source of information on world affairs (47.4%). A smaller percentage, however, (15.6%) used the daily newspaper to get such information. More of the Suburban High sample has traveled out of the country (82.8%), with 31.2% of those being out of the country longer than a month. A large proportion of the students have taken a foreign language course (83%) and 55% of those had studied it

for more than a year.  Finally, 66.7% claimed the head of the household to be in a professional occupation.

## Private High

Private High is located in a small university city with a population of 79,000.  The church-affiliated school has an enrollment of 299 students.  The school has been in existence since the late 1960's and has experienced significant enrollment changes.  Attendance costs over $2,000 per year in tuition and books, but the school has maintained a fairly stable reputation as being academically sound.  Over 95% of its graduates go on to college with many of them attending the country's elite universities. Needless to say, the cost makes attendance prohibitive for many families at the lower end of the socio-economic ladder. The student body not only reflects a strong class bias but it is extremely homogeneous ethnically and racially.  Of the 299 students there are 284 Caucasians, 8 Blacks, 6 Hispanics and 1 Asian.

The experimental group consisted of 16 students enrolled in an eleventh and twelfth grade elective course entitled "Crisis Spots."  The control group was 29 eleventh- and twelfth-graders in an elective psychology course.  One student in the control group had previously taken "Crisis Spots," and consequently he was not included in the analysis. Of the 45 students in the sample, 23 were females and 22 were males.  Eighty-nine percent of the students were planning to attend college after high school graduation.  As with the

students in the other three schools, television was the choice of most of the students (51.1%) as their primary source of information, although a large proportion (40%) also chose the newspaper. Only 2.2% chose teachers as the major source.

As for travel, 75.6% had spent time out of the country. Only 1 student in the sample had never had a foreign language course, and 80% had studied a language at least two years. As with Suburban school, 66.7% claimed the head of the household was in the professional ranks.

Urban High

While the students in Small Town High, Suburban High and Private High were similar in many ways, the same cannot be said for the students in Urban High. Urban High is located in an urban area of 130,400 people and is part of a district that services 22,477 K-12 students in 40 schools. The community is an important industrial as well as governmental center and as such spans all socio-economic levels. It also has an ethnically diverse and integrated population. The student ethnic make up is 57% Caucasian, 27.9% Black, 10.6% Hispanic, 2.7% Asian and 1.5% Native American.

Urban High is one of three high schools in the district and has a student population of 1987. Of these, 62% are Caucasian, 7% are Hispanic, 28% are Black, 2% are Asian and 1% Native American. The experimental group in Urban High consisted of 53 students in two sections of a required tenth-

grade course called "Global Studies." The control group of 74 students came from three sections of tenth grade American History. Of 127 students, 74 (58.3%) were female and 53 (41.7%) were male. Compared with Small Town and Suburban High a similar percentage of students (73.2%) were planning on college after high school. However, only 37.8% relied on television as their primary source of information on world affairs. While a small percentage (11%) depended on the newspaper as a source of information, the teacher (21.3%) was looked to by more of the Urban High students as a primary source of information than in the other schools. Urban High students also traveled less than students in the other three schools with only 55.1% spending any time outside the country. And they had experienced less foreign language study with only 55.9% having had one year of study, and only 14.9% of those studying for more than a year. Only 13.4% described the head of their household as a professional. On the basis of these demographics it appears the sample of Urban High students is somewhat different from those in the other three schools.

## Instrumentation

### The World Affairs Analysis (Joyce, Alleman, Little, 1987)

The World Affairs Analysis (WAA) is "intended to assess the incidence of nationalistic and globalistic thinking in high school and college students enrolled in social studies

courses in the United States, Canada and Great Britain" (Joyce, Little, Alleman, 1987, p. 1). A modified version of the WAA was used in this study. The full instrument presents 13 hypothetical international problems to the respondent. Each problem focuses on a single issue of global importance.

The issues were selected for inclusion in the instrument on a number of bases. First, each is plausible. The problems reflect issues of continuing concern in the international arena such as freedom of navigation, foreign trade and over-population. Secondly, they are problems whose resolutions can conceivably be approached either unilaterally or multi-laterally. Third, they are problems which have serious consequences for more than one nation. In order to avoid ideological mindset on the part of the respondent, no country other than the U.S. is mentioned by name in the U.S. version of the instrument. A short description of the ten problems chosen for use in this study follows:

1. <u>Earthsafe</u>. An international environmental protection group, Earthsafe, threatens to blockade a small uninhabited island upon which the United States plans to test a new weapons system. Earthsafe claims that the test will upset the island's ecological system for 25 years.

2. <u>Performing Arts.</u> A major world power threatens to cancel its cultural exchange agreement with the United States on the grounds that the values expressed by the United States artists and performers are inimical to those of its people.

3. <u>World Health.</u> The World Health Organization asks the United States government for $10 million in assistance to combat a deadly disease that has not been identified in the United States.

4. <u>Immigration.</u> A bill has come before the United States Congress to severely limit the number of immigrants allowed to enter our country from a foreign nation with a high incidence of a lethal, communicable disease.

5. <u>Terrorism.</u> An obscure band of terrorists has kidnapped several high-ranking diplomats, one of whom is an American.

6. <u>Overpopulation</u>. One of the poorest, most overpopulated nations in the world asks the United States to allow 10 million of its refugees to enter the United States over the next ten years.

7. <u>Olympic Games</u>.A major world power refuses to compete in the forthcoming summer Olympic Games and will encourage its allies not to compete unless the Games are moved to a more politically acceptable site.

8. <u>Foreign-Made Goods.</u> A major United States industry is urging Congress to severely limit the importation into the United States of certain foreign-made goods, which are artificially priced far below comparable United States-made goods.

9. <u>Nuclear Accident.</u> A nuclear powered submarine owned by a major foreign power has exploded within 3 miles of the United States coast.

10. <u>Air Travel Stoppage.</u> A nationwide strike of domestic airline pilots threatens to spread to other nations of the world.

The respondent is asked to take the role of a high-level government official and choose two courses of action- one the respondent considers <u>most</u> acceptable and one the respondent considers <u>least</u> acceptable. There are five alternatives from which to choose. Two of the alternatives represent a globally minded response. That is, the response places world interests above national interest. Two of the responses are nationcentric in that they clearly place the interests of the nation ahead of the world. Finally, one response is neutral

by avoiding placing the interests of one political entity over the other. Neutral responses typically call for study of the situation, and make no commitment on the part of the respondent.

For the purposes of this study the WAA was reduced from 13 to 10 problems. The reasons for this reduction were time constraints and the difficulty of certain items for the typical high school student. Given the large amount of data which was needed from the students and the need for both pre and post testing, it was determined that the full length WAA would take an inordinate amount of time. Secondly, through field testing the instrument, three of the items on the WAA were determined to be conceptually difficult for the average high school student.

Since the instrument is designed to measure the degree of globalistic thinking an individual possesses, the method of scoring takes into account the relationship between the respondent's least acceptable and most acceptable response. A global-minded response is scored a +1. This would include either:

1) a solution chosen by the respondent as "most acceptable" which has been coded as "globally minded"

2) a solution chosen by the respondent as "least acceptable" which has been coded as "nationcentric."

Similarly, a nationcentric response is scored a -1. This would include either:

1) a solution chosen by the respondent as "most acceptable" which has been coded as "nationcentric"

2) a solution chosen by the respondent as "least accept-
able" which has been coded as "globally minded."

Finally, choosing a neutral option as either "Most Accept-
able" or "Least Acceptable" is scored a zero.

This method of scoring yields a possible range of -2
(most nationcentric) to +2 (most global-minded) for each of
the 10 scenarios, and -20 (most nationcentric) to +20 (most
globally minded) for the instrument as a whole. The WAA was
constructed over the course of two years and underwent six
major revisions. It has been reviewed by a number of subject
matter experts and been deemed to have content validity
(Joyce, Alleman, Little, 1987).

In order to assess the criterion-related validity of the
modified version of the WAA it was administered to 27
eleventh-grade students in a high school social studies
class. The students were administered the Sampson and Smith
(1957) World-mindedness Scale one week later. The World-
mindedness Scale is designed to measure nationalistic-
internationalistic attitudes on the following eight
dimensions: religion, immigration, government, economics,
patriotism, race, education and war. It was believed that a
high correlation between the scores of the individual
students would provide evidence of criterion validity on the
WAA. The Spearman Rank Order Coefficient for the scores on
the two measures was .639 indicating the WAA has criterion
validity.

The reliability of the WAA has not previously been reported. Due to the nature of this study there is a concern that it exhibit consistency over time. This is more significant than internal consistency, since each of the hypothetical problems in the WAA could be considered as a separate social referent and produce different responses. However, it is essential that the WAA exhibit some consistency over time in order to use it to investigate the effect of a global education course on student global-mindedness. Therefore, a Pearson Product Moment Correlation coefficient was computed with the pretest and posttest scores of the students in the control group. This coefficient was .453 which was statistically significant ($p<.01$).

The Attitude Toward Patriotism Scale (Thurstone, 1932)

The Attitude Toward Patriotism Scale (ATPS) was developed using the method of equal appearing intervals. Its purpose is to measure the intensity of affection or disaffection one feels toward his/her own nation. It consists of two comparable 20-item forms. The respondent is asked to indicate agreement or disagreement with each of 20 statements. The score is then determined by the median of the scale values of the items endorsed. The higher the score the more patriotic the respondent's attitude.

Form A of the Scale was administered to the sample at the time of the pretest. Form B was administered at the time of the posttest. The alternate form reliability has been

reported by Lorge (1939) as between .69 and .83. Validity of the instrument has been based on content and the method of selecting the items (Shaw and Wright, 1967).

## Classroom Environment Index

In order to measure the student's perception of the openness of the classroom it was necessary to construct an index. From the literature, it was determined that an open classroom is characterized by:

1) students' perception that their opinion is valued by the teacher

2) a sense of freedom on the part of the student to raise issues and participate in discussion

3) discussion of controversial issues

4) freedom to make classroom rules

5) freedom in choosing what will be studied.

From these characteristics a pool of 15 Likert-type statements was initially created. These were drawn from a number of sources including the work of Ehman (1980) and Rosell and Hawley (1981), as well as items written by the researcher. In the pilot stage individual administrations of the instrument were conducted in the Fall of 1987 with a number of students from various high schools. This led to a number of alterations including the revision of ambiguous, or vague items.

A factor analysis of the fifteen items indicated it loaded on three factors: 1) items related to classroom

discussion, 2) items related to rule making, and 3) a third factor which was not easily interpreted. A decision was made to use only the first factor of classroom discussion. This factor, which was based on eight of the items, had a high eigen level, high individual factor loadings and was consistent with the variable of interest in this study. These results are reported in Table 1.

From these eight items, a Classroom Discussion Index was created. Scoring for the index was accomplished by assigning a point to each response, with "strongly agree" = 5 and "strongly disagree" = 1. These were totaled for the eight items providing a possible range on the instrument of 8 to 40.

In order to further test the reliability of the index, an item analysis was done on the total sample. The results of that analysis are reported in Table 2.

The item analysis yields an acceptable alpha level of .8126.

## Treatment

Each of the four schools involved in the study will be presented separately. The description of the treatment is drawn from: (1) interviews with teachers and other individuals involved in creating the course, (2) examination of written documents such as course outlines and descriptions, and (3) examination of curricular materials including the major texts used in each course.

Table 1. Factor Loadings on Student Questionnaire

| | Factor | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 1. If I disagree with a classroom rule I am able to do something to help change it. | .095 | .323 | -.682 |
| 2. If I have a complaint about an unfair classroom rule, I believe I could get the teacher to listen to me. | .352 | .350 | -.481 |
| 3. The students in this classroom have some say in what will be studied. | -.179 | .759 | -.244 |
| 4. I feel free to participate in classroom discussions. | .669 | -.109 | -.187 |
| 5. This class provides an opportunity to get involved in many different activities. | .435 | .284 | .263 |
| 6. The teacher encourages students to ask questions. | .542 | .192 | .175 |
| 7. We often disagree about solutions to problems we are studying. | .161 | .352 | .482 |
| 8. We often discuss issues in this class that are in the news. | .575 | .006 | .197 |
| 9. Students help plan classroom activities. | -.056 | .747 | -.008 |
| 10. I feel I have the freedom to raise questions in class about the material we study. | .687 | -.152 | -.220 |
| 11. The teacher values my opinion. | .469 | .264 | .022 |
| 12. Important social issues are discussed in this class. | .646 | .097 | .205 |
| 13. It is all right to make comments about controversial issues in this class. | .730 | -.084 | .016 |
| 14. Nearly everyone in this class participates in classroom activities. | .167 | .507 | .094 |
| 15. I feel free to express my opinion in this class. | .722 | -.028 | -.136 |

Table 2.    Item Analysis of Classroom Discussion Index

| | | Item-Total Correlation | Alpha if Item Deleted |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | I feel free to participate in classroom discussions. | .509 | .794 |
| 2. | The teacher encourages students to ask questions. | .509 | .794 |
| 3. | We often discuss issues in this class that are in the news. | .459 | .801 |
| 4. | I feel I have the freedom to raise questions in class about the material we study. | .482 | .797 |
| 5. | The teacher values my opinion. | .497 | .795 |
| 6. | Important social issues are discussed in this class. | .582 | .783 |
| 7. | It is all right to make comments about controversial issues in this class. | .589 | .783 |
| 8. | I feel free to express my opinion in this class. | .604 | .779 |

## Small Town High

The students in Small Town High who comprise the experimental group are enrolled in a required, one semester course at the tenth-grade level entitled "Global Perspectives".The course has been in existence for a number of years.  It has evolved from a more traditional social studies course which focused on international relations and foreign policy. Currently, it focuses on significant international problems. Included in the topics covered are: the global environment, the Mideast, overpopulation, food, the arms race, human rights and the role of the United Nations.  The primary

objective of the course is the "development of a global perspective." The developers of the course are two of the social studies teachers in the school. They define having a global perspective as the "ability to understand the perspective of foreign peoples in regards to problems of global importance." The course is based largely on discussion, although there is also a good deal of lecture (estimated by the teachers at 40%). The course concludes with a large-scale simulation of the United Nations General Assembly.

## Private High

The experimental group in Private High was enrolled in an elective eleventh and twelfth-grade level course entitled "Crisis Spots". The course has been in existence for eight years. It was originally incorporated into the curriculum in order to broaden the focus of the social studies. The intent was to give more emphasis to the political and social problems which exist in the international arena. At the same time, the course has a perspective somewhat different from the other course previously described in that it has problem resolution as a major concern. The description in the official course description booklet reads:

> The focus of this course is on current problems within the international community. Emphasis will be placed upon the nature of problem resolution and policy formulation in a pluralistic, democratic society. Topics such as the U.S. role in the Mideast, military aid to Nicaragua, and the relative strengths of U.S. and Soviet defense systems are examined.

As the description makes clear, the course investigates the foreign policy process. In fact, the major text for the course is <u>Great Decisions</u> (Foreign Policy Association, 1987), which is an annual publication of the Foreign Policy Association. The 1987 issue of <u>Great Decisions</u> focused on eight major world problems: (1) the role of law in international relations, (2) the U.S. defense budget, (3) U.S. - Egyptian relations, (4) problems for the U.S. in the Pacific Basin, (5) foreign investment in the U.S., (6) South Africa, (7) the conflict between Pakistan and Afghanistan, and (8) how the U.S.should deal with worldwide revolutions. Each of the eight topics was covered in the course through readings and lecture, supplemented with panel discussions and debates. There was also a lengthy simulation called "Dangerous Parallel," which was used as a concluding activity. The students were expected to do outside reading in a major weekly news magazine or newspaper on each of the major topics, as well as any other international issues which were of interest to them. The students were accountable for sharing articles from these with the rest of the class.

A major continuing objective for the course was to have students develop opinions on international problem resolution and share their opinions in an open forum. The overall goal according to the instructor is the "development of an informed and concerned citizenry."

<u>Suburban High</u>

Students in the Suburban School treatment group are enrolled in a required ninth-grade, one-semester-length course entitled International Studies. According to the official course description, International Studies

> Emphasizes themes related to the independence and interdependence of nations. Topics include: cultural diversity, world religions, natural resources, food, energy, political systems and the effects of geography on the development of nations. Social studies skills are developed and reinforced in this course, with emphasis on drawing logical conclusions, distinguishing factual claims from opinions, listening, speaking and writing skills and interpreting maps, charts and tables.

The course has been in existence a number of years. However, it was not until the 1986-1987 school year that the course began to focus on the non-western world. As the course description makes clear, there is more emphasis in this course on skill building than in any of the other schools. This was interpreted by the teachers as consisting of geography skills and library/research skills. At the same time, there is an effort to develop "thinking skills" through the use of open-ended essay questions based on international problem situations.

One other emphasis of this course which is not evident in the description is on historical development. The text used in the course--<u>Global Insights</u> (Merril, 1988)--focuses on cultural geography. However, the teachers involved in this study chose to supplement this with historical informa-

tion. Due partly to this choice, all of the teachers opted to use lecture as the primary vehicle of instruction.

## Urban High

The treatment in Urban High is a one-semester, required course at the tenth-grade level.  It is entitled Global Studies.  The official course description reads as follows:

> The purpose of this course is to increase students' knowledge of historical events and global issues, sharpen their skills in evaluating information, and deepen their understanding of the World and the concept of interdependence.  Units of study for this course have been developed with an interdependence emphasis.  This course is not confined to a survey of historical events. Emphasis is placed on student analysis of persisting problems of the world society.  Examples of these problems might include human rights, conflict resolution, interdependence, hunger and poverty, terrorism and environmental pollution. Discussion of these problems is related to contemporary society and focuses upon ethical and public policy issues.

The text for the class is Global Insights.  The course is organized by regions and focuses on global interdependence. The global issues which have been chosen for use in the course include: conflict resolution, international economic problems, population, human rights, the environment, and the future.  Consideration is also given to what are termed "citizenship skills" including attention to issues that affect society, expressing personal convictions and adjusting behavior to fit the dynamics of various groups and situations.

The teacher who took part in the study was in his first year of teaching. He followed a closely-prescribed regime which involved a reading assignment from the text, the assignment of vocabulary terms from the text which were to be defined in the students' notebooks, a day of lecture, the use of visual media and a short test over the reading assignment. Therefore, there was little discussion of the material by the students.

## Procedures

Data were collected during the first semester of the 1987-88 school year. During the first week of the semester, students were administered the WAA, Form A of the ATPS, and a questionnaire directed at relevant background variables. The second data collection took place during the final week of the semester and included administration of the World Affairs Analysis, Form B of the Attitude Toward Patriotism Scale and the Classroom Discussion Index. It was also during the final week that interviews with teachers were conducted.

At each administration, the questionnaires were distributed to the students in booklet form. A separate sheet was also distributed which had directions and a consent form on one side, and an answer sheet on the other. The teacher read the directions and the consent form aloud to the students. The students were guaranteed confidentiality and were assured that the results of the survey could not affect their grade in the course. The students were asked to sign

the consent form, complete the questionnaire, seal their answer sheet in an attached envelope and place the envelope into a larger envelope at the front of the room. This somewhat cumbersome method was designed to provide the students with the right of informed consent, as well as a visible demonstration that their confidentiality would be protected.

Teacher interviews were conducted by the researcher subsequent to the collection of the posttest questionnaires. Separate interviews were conducted with each of the global education teachers. The interviews lasted approximately one hour. All of the interviews were taped and later transcribed. The interviews were used to gather information about the course, including the teachers' own purposes and methods.

The administration of the student questionnaires was carried out by the individual classroom teachers. All teachers involved in the study met with the researcher prior to the first administration and were briefed on the proper procedures for administering the surveys. In each of the schools, the students were given one class period to complete the questionnaires. This varied from a length of 48 minutes in Private School to 55 minutes in Urban School. Despite this time difference the teachers reported no difficulties with students finishing within one class period.

## The Variables

This section will attempt to give the reader an understanding of how the major variables were classified and operationalized.

### Dependent Variables

Patriotism: This is treated as interval data as measured by scores on the <u>Attitude Toward Patriotism Scale</u>. For the first hypothesis it is treated as the outcome or dependent variable. However, in all other hypotheses it is an independent variable.

Globalist/Nationalistic Thinking: This data is also treated as interval level as measured by scores on the World Affairs Analysis.

### Independent Variables

Gender: Is a categorical variable. Since it is bivariate it is regarded as interval level in those analyses which involve multiple regression.

School: Is a categorical-level variable. It is being used for interpretive purposes as representative of socio-economic level of the community. In order to measure it for use in the multiple regression, three dummy variables were created and entered into the appropriate equations.

Father's Occupation: This is a categorical variable with seven levels. Six dummy variables were created to enter into the regression analysis.

Mother's Occupation: Is a categorical variable with seven levels. Six dummy variables were created to enter into the regression analysis.

Condition: Is a dichotomous variable. It represents participation in either the treatment or control group. It will be treated as an interval-level variable in the regression analyses.

Grade: Is a categorical variable with four levels. For interpretive purposes three dummy level variables were created to enter into the multiple regression analysis.

Area of Residence: Is a four-level categorical variable. It has four levels, therefore three dummy variables were created for use in the regression analyses.

Number of Social Studies Courses Taken: Is an interval-level variable.

Plans After High School: Is a categorical variable with five levels. Four dummy variables were used in the regression analysis.

Regularity of Newspaper Reading: Is a categorical variable with three levels. Two dummy variables were created.

Regularity of Reading World Affairs Section of the Newspaper: Is a three-level categorical variable. Two dummy variables were used in the regression.

Purpose of Foreign Travel: Is a four-level categorical variable.

Number of Foreign Trips: A ratio-level variable from the WAA questionnaire.

Time Outside the Country: The length of time the individual spent outside the country was treated as an interval level variable.

Foreign Language Experience: A dichotomous variable. Therefore, it was treated as interval-level in the regression.

Time Spent Studying a Foreign Language: Is treated as an interval-level variable.

Classroom Discussion: This was represented by the score on the Classroom Discussion Index. It was regarded as an interval-level variable.

## Data Analysis

Hypothesis One

$H_O$: There is no relationship between selected student background variables and nation/global-mindedness.

In order to test this null hypothesis, data from the student background questionnaire on the WAA, and the scores from the ATPS pretest were entered into a multiple-regression equation. The independent variables included: the students' level of patriotism, school attended, gender, regularity of

newspaper reading, major source of information on world affairs, father and mothers' occupation, whether the individual had studied a foreign language, number of years studying a foreign language, area of residence, number of foreign trips, plans after high school and GPA. The scores on the pretest of WAA represented the dependent variable while the various student background variables were used as independent variables.

A correlation matrix was constructed in order to determine if the independent variables were statistically independent of each other. After analyzing the data from this matrix, it was decided that two separate regressions would be conducted to avoid problems of multicolinearity. The second regression included mother and fathers' occupation, age, amount of time spent outside the United States, and the number of social studies courses taken previously.

In order to use regression it was necessary to create dummy variables for a number of the independent variables. Dummy variables were used for all variables which had nominal-level data and were not bivariate. These included the students source of information on world affairs, regularity of newspaper reading, type of community in which the subject resides, father's occupation, mother's occupation, school attended and plans after high school. A "new" variable was created for each k-1 category of the nominal level variables.Using this procedure requires that the results be interpreted in relation to some reference

category.  For example, with a bivariate factor, such as gender, the value of B indicates the difference between the two levels of the variable (male v. female). With a three level variable, and assuming dummy variables are created for the first two levels, the B values for the first level represents the difference between the first level and the third level.  The same holds true for the B value of the second level.  The t-tests for beta can be used to assess whether the difference is statistically significant.

The F test for the null hypothesis was calculated and found to be significant at the $p < .05$ level.  This indicated there was a relationship between the WAA pretest scores and the entire set of independent variables.  However, the major concern was which variables were the best predictors of global-mindedness.  Therefore, a multiple-regression model was built by the process of backward elimination.  Backward elimination starts with all the variables in the equation and sequentially removes them according to preestablished criteria.  The first criterion is a minimum F of 2.71.  If this is met the second criterion is the maximum probability of F of .1.  The variable with the smallest partial correlation coefficient is examined first.  If this variable is removed, the equation is reevaluated and the next variable is selected for examination.  This process continues until all the variables in the equation meet the criteria.

The F test represents a means for statistically testing the null hypothesis B = O.  Therefore, all independent

variables with a probability of F greater than .1 will be included in the final equation. Inclusion of any independent variables will constitute a rejection of the null hypothesis that no background variables are related to global-mindedness.

Multiple regression analysis is based on a number of assumptions: (1) the relationship between the dependent and independent variables is linear, (2) for any fixed value of the independent variable, the dependent variable is normally distributed with a constant variance, and (3) there is independence of the dependent values. In order to test these assumptions a number of steps were taken. First, the residuals were plotted against the predicted values. Scatter-plots revealed no discernable pattern and therefore linearity was assumed. In order to further check this assumption, residuals were plotted against independent variables, and again no pattern was detected.

This same process was used to check the assumption of homogeneity of variance. Since the spread of the residuals did not increase or decrease with either the predicted values or the values of the independent variables it was concluded this assumption was met. Finally, a histogram of observed residuals was superimposed with a histogram of expected residuals in a normal distribution and visually analyzed for differences.

Hypothesis Two

H$_O$: There is no difference in patriotism between
students who have completed a global education
course and students who have not completed such
a course.

The mean difference between individuals' scores on Form
A of the ATPS and Form B of the ATPS will be the dependent
variable in a t-test for independent samples comparing those
enrolled in a global education course and those not enrolled
in such a course. Since the F value yielded by a comparison
of the sample variances was 1.06, which has an alpha value
greater than .05, the null hypothesis that the variances are
equal was accepted. Therefore, a pooled variance t-test was
employed to test the null hypothesis that patriotism does not
differ between those in the treatment as opposed to those in
the control group.

In order to protect against a Type II error, a liberal
level of significance has been chosen. An observed signifi-
cance level of .10 has been used to test the null hypothesis:
d1=d2.

Since this is a two-tailed test, a t value greater than
-1.96 but less than +1.96 will support the null hypothesis,
and we can conclude that global education does not effect
patriotism.

Hypothesis Three

H$_O$: There is no difference in nation/global-
mindedness between students who have completed
a global education course and those who have
not completed such a course.

Multiple regression with dummy variables was used to test this hypothesis. The posttest score on the WAA was used as the dependent variable. The independent variables were the prescore on the WAA, which served as a covariate, the condition (treatment vs. control), the school attended, the scores on the ATPS pretest, as well as those variables which were found to be related to the pretest scores on the WAA. These included gender, foreign language training and level of patriotism. The B values were used to test the null hypothesis that B=0 for the independent variable 'condition.' Since the B values represent the effect of an independent variable when adjusted for other independent variables in the equation, a B value with an alpha greater than .05 will indicate that the treatment group is more global-minded than the control group when controlling for gender, age, scores on the ATPS, and WAA pretest scores.

For this analysis, stepwise selection was used for building the regression equation. In stepwise selection the variable with the largest correlation with the dependent variable is entered into the equation first. If the F value of this variable is at least 3.84, and the probability of F is less than .05, it is retained in the equation. Once a variable is in the equation, the statistics for those not in the equation are recalculated and used to select the next variable. The one with the largest partial correlation with the dependent variable adjusted for the independent variables in the equation is selected next. If the criterion is met,

the variable is included in the equation and the process continues. If the criterion is not met the procedure ends. The assumptions underlying multiple regression were tested in the same way for this procedure as they were in testing hypothesis two. Once again, all the assumptions were met.

Hypothesis Four

$H_O$: Students who have completed a global education course are more global-minded than students who have not completed such a course, on the specific international issues on the WAA.

In order to assess whether global education increases the global-mindedness of students in regards to specific issues, t-tests were conducted for each of the ten problems. The difference between the pretest and posttest score on the WAA for each problem was used as the dependent variable to compare changes in global-mindedness between the control and the treatment groups. Ten separate t-tests for independent samples with equal variance were conducted. Since the concern was with whether global education increased global-mindedness a one tailed test with an alpha level of .05 was used. Since the test is one-tailed, a t value greater than 1.65 will lead to rejecting the null hypothesis.

On three of the problems (1,2 and 6) the F test for equality of variance proved to be significant (p<.05). Therefore, separate variance estimates were used on those three t-tests.

Hypothesis Five

$H_O$: The students' perception of the openness of classroom discussion is not related to nation/global-mindedness.

The scores on the Classroom Discussion Index were used as an independent variable in a regression on WAA posttest scores. Since the research question under consideration asks whether the environment in the classroom acts as a mediating influence in the development of global-mindedness in a global education course, only the treatment group was used to test the hypothesis. Differences between the subjects at the beginning of the treatment were controlled for by entering the WAA pretest score as an independent variable in the regression. Once again backward selection was used in the analysis since the interest was in the value of the CDI score with all other variables entered. The B value will indicate the difference in WAA posttest scores when initial differences between the subjects are controlled. The null hypothesis is B=0, and was tested at an alpha level of .05.

The assumptions on which multiple regression are based were met.

Hypothesis One

Ho: There is no relationship between student
background variables and global-mindedness.

A total of 24 independent variables were entered into
the regression analysis with pretest score on the WAA being
used as the dependent variable. The use of backward
elimination as the procedure for choosing predictor variables
in the final equation is intentionally liberal in order to
avoid excluding any variables which may help explain how the
individual develops nation/global-mindedness. The results of
this procedure are summarized in Table 3.

Table 3.   Regression Equation Predicting WAA Pretest Scores

| | | | | DF | Squares | Squares |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Multiple R | .32 | | | | | |
| R Square | .10 | Regression | | 4 | 920.38 | 230.09 |
| Adjusted R | .09 | Residual | | 296 | 7950.11 | 26.85 |
| Standard E. | 5.18 | | | F= 8.56 | Sig. of F= .00 | |

| VARIABLE | B | Se B | BETA | T | Significance |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gender | 2.88 | .60 | .26 | 4.8 | .00 |
| Patriotism | -.55 | .27 | -.11 | -2.0 | .04 |
| Foreign Lang Study | 1.31 | .78 | .09 | 1.7 | .09 |

| | DF | Sum of Squares | Mean Squares |
|---|---|---|---|
| Regression | 4 | 920.38 | 230.09 |
| Residual | 296 | 7950.11 | 26.85 |
| | F= 8.56 | Sig. of F= .00 | |

Only three of the independent variables proved to be significant at the .10 level. These included Foreign Language study, Gender and Patriotism. Both foreign language and gender have positive B values. According to the coding for the levels of foreign language study this positive value indicates that students who had foreign language instruction tended to be more global-minded than students who had not had such instruction. In terms of foreign language instruction, those who had such instruction score 1.31 points higher on the WAA than those who did not. For gender, the positive B value tells us that girls tend to be more globally minded than boys. The difference between boys and girls is 2.88 points on the WAA pretest. Or, in other words, girls score an average of 2.88 points higher than boys on the WAA after controlling for the other independent variables.

Patriotism presents the only independent variable which has a negative relationship to WAA pretest score. This means that as ATPS pretest scores go up, the WAA pretest scores tend to go down. A one-point increase in ATPS score is related to a .55 point decrease in WAA pretest score as indicated by the B value. The final equation is represented by the following:

**WAA Pretest Score= 2.78 + (1.31) Foreign Language Study + (2.88) Gender + (-.55) ATPS Pretest + error**

Gender was found to be the strongest predictor of global-mindedness and was therefore further analyzed to determine which of the ten international issues on the WAA

were related to gender differences. The subjects' choice of a "most acceptable" response was used as the basis of comparison. The "most acceptable" response provides a means of determining whether the policy option the subject selected as the "best" course of action is globalistic, nationalistic or neutral. The proportion of each type of response (i.e. globalistic, nationalistic or neutral) was then crossed with gender in a 2x3 contingency table for each problem. A chi-square analysis with 2 degrees of freedom was used to test the null hypothesis that the proportion of globalistic, nationalistic or neutral responses chosen as "most acceptable" was the same for males and females. An alpha level of .05 for the chi-square value was used to indicate statistical significance.

Based on these ten separate chi-square analyses, we can conclude that females differ from males in their selection of a "most acceptable" response on six of the ten scenarios. These include Immigration, Terrorism, Overpopulation, Olympic Games, Foreign-Made Goods and Air Travel Stoppage. Table 4 gives a summary of these ten analyses.

On five of the six problems on which males and females had significantly different proportions of nationalistic, globalistic and neutral responses, the two groups had the largest percentages of responses in the same category. For example, on the Immigration scenario the nationalistic solution was the choice of the largest percentage of male

Table 4  Percentage of Neutral, National, Global Response
         by  Gender

Percentage of "Most Acceptable"
Responses Chosen as:

| Problem | | Neutral | National | Global | $X^2$ | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Earthsafe | Males | 40.1 | 25.7 | 34.2 | 4.34 | .11 |
| | Females | 46.9 | 19.4 | 33.8 | | |
| Performing Arts | Males | 20.8 | 36.3 | 42.9 | 1.91 | .38 |
| | Females | 19.3 | 32.3 | 48.4 | | |
| World Health | Males | 9.6 | 65.9 | 24.6 | .49 | .78 |
| | Females | 8.6 | 64.5 | 26.9 | | |
| Immigration | Males | 11.3 | 70.5 | 18.2 | 43.0 | *.00 |
| | Females | 25.8 | 44.7 | 29.6 | | |
| Terrorism | Males | 20.2 | 10.3 | 69.5 | 13.3 | *.00 |
| | Females | 10.9 | 7.2 | 81.9 | | |
| Overpopulation | Males | 26.6 | 45.0 | 28.4 | 8.9 | *.01 |
| | Females | 26.6 | 34.7 | 38.8 | | |
| Olympic Games | Males | 11.7 | 46.2 | 42.1 | 15.8 | *.00 |
| | Females | 12.5 | 30.9 | 56.6 | | |
| Foreign-Made Goods | Males | 12.2 | 54.9 | 32.9 | 9.1 | *.01 |
| | Females | 8.8 | 46.5 | 44.7 | | |
| Nuclear Accident | Males | 34.0 | 27.8 | 38.2 | 4.16 | .12 |
| | Females | 32.7 | 21.8 | 45.5 | | |
| Air Travel Stoppage | Males | 18.4 | 56.2 | 25.4 | 6.74 | *.03 |
| | Females | 26.4 | 46.9 | 26.7 | | |

*$p < .05$

respondents. The same is true for females. The difference, however, is that there is more agreement among the males than among the females in regard to this issue. The same situation holds true on the Terrorism scenario, the Foreign Made Goods Scenario and the Air Travel Stoppage Scenario. On Overpopulation and the Olympic Games this pattern does not hold. On the Olympic Games scenario, the majority of females chose a globalistic solution, but for the males a plurality chose a nationalistic solution.

Hypothesis Two

Ho: Participation in a global education course does not affect the individual's degree of patriotism.

The mean scores from the ATPS were used to test the hypothesis that global education does not affect patriotism. The mean scores for the control and experimental groups are given in Table 5.

Table 5. Mean Scores on the ATPS

| Group | Pretest | | | Posttest | | | d |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N | X | S | N | X | S | |
| EXPERIMENTAL | 222 | 6.67 | 1.10 | 222 | 6.05 | 1.13 | -.62 |
| CONTROL | 392 | 6.71 | 1.15 | 392 | 6.13 | 1.10 | -.58 |
| ENTIRE POP. | 614 | 6.64 | 1.08 | 614 | 6.01 | 1.14 | -.63 |

As shown in Table 5, the mean scores, and the variances, for the experimental and control groups are extremely close on both the pretest and the posttest. Furthermore, for both

the experimental and control groups, ATPS scores decreased
from the first to the second administration. To test whether
the greater decrease in the treatment group mean might be
attributable to the treatment, a t-test for independent
samples was used. This test had 609 degrees of freedom and
an alpha level set at .10. Table 6 gives the results of this
test.

Table 6. Comparison of Gain Scores on the ATPS for Treatment
and Control Groups

| Group | N | X | S | SE | t | DF | Prob. |
|-------|-----|-------|------|------|-----|-----|-------|
| EXPERIMENTAL | 221 | .5787 | 1.22 | .082 | | | |
| | | | | | .6 | 609 | .55 |
| CONTROL | 390 | .6392 | 1.19 | .060 | | | |

Given these results we accept the null hypothesis that a
global education course does not affect the individual's
level of patriotism.

Figure 2 displays the distribution of scores for each
group on the pretests and posttests. The graphs demonstrate
that the distribution of scores for the control and treatment
group are essentially the same, although the distributions
between the pre and posttests differed.

Hypothesis Three

Ho: There is no difference in global-mindedness
between students who have completed a global
education course and those who have not
completed such a course.

Figure 2.

## DISTRIBUTION OF MEAN SCORES ON THE ATPS
### TREATMENT V. CONTROL (PRETEST)



## DISTRIBUTION OF MEAN SCORES ON THE ATPS
### TREATMENT V. CONTROL (POSTEST)
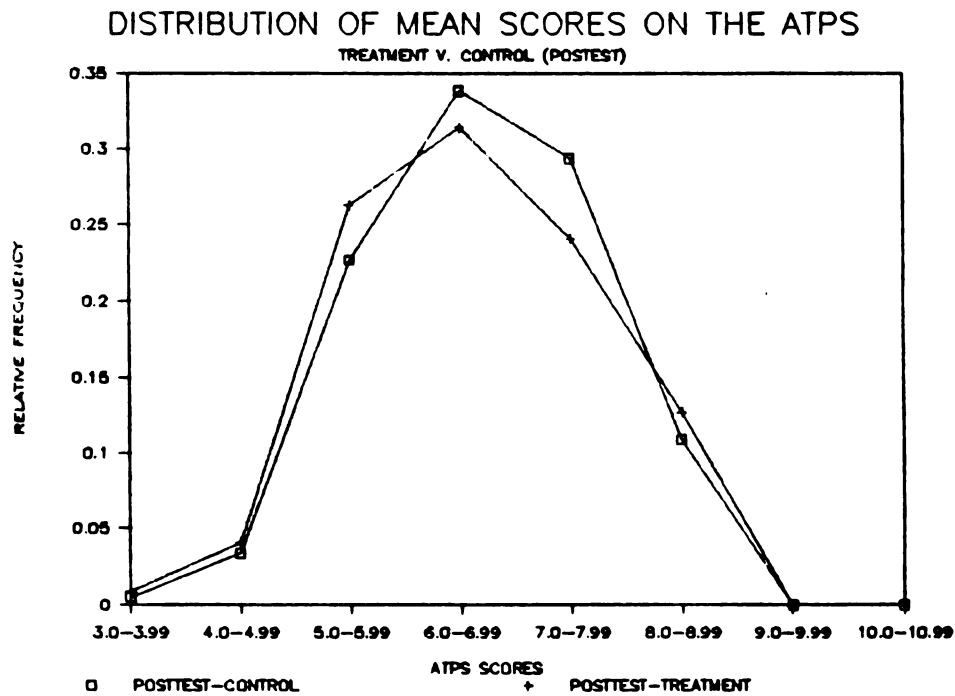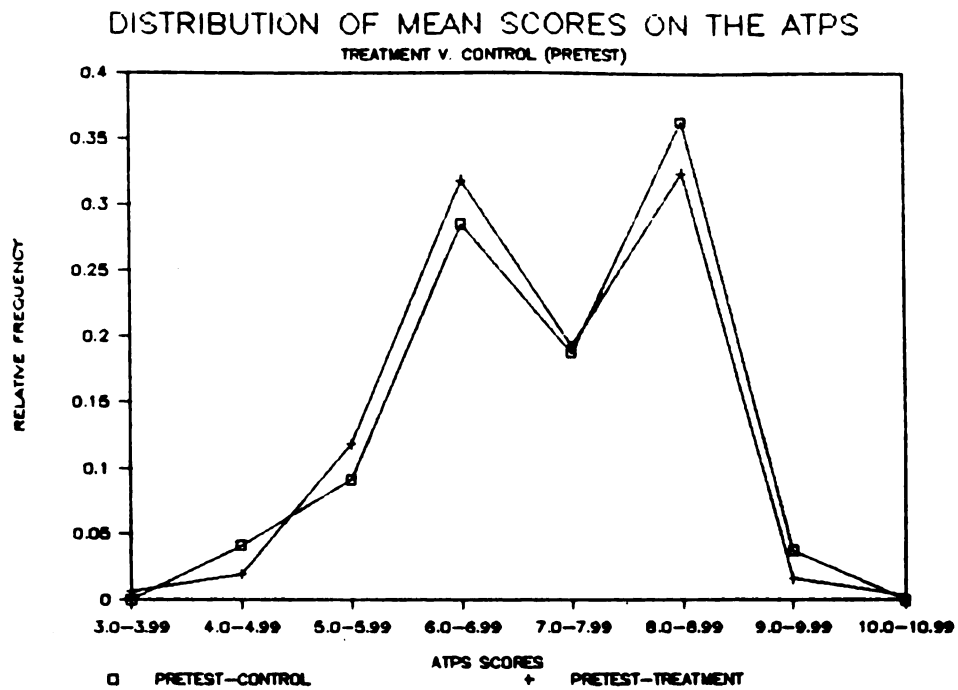
The scores on the WAA posttest were used as the dependent variable to test this hypothesis. The mean scores on this measure for both the pretest and the posttest are reported in Table 7, and are broken down by condition and gender.

Table 7. A Comparison of Mean Scores on the WAA by Condition and Gender

| GROUP | | PRETEST | | POSTTEST | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N | X | S | X | |
| Entire Pop. | 617 | 1.67 | 5.43 | 1.62 | 5.36 |
| Males | 293 | .07 | 5.50 | .60 | 5.40 |
| Females | 324 | 3.10 | 4.97 | 2.52 | 5.17 |
| Control | 222 | 1.18 | 5.54 | 1.14 | 5.52 |
| Males | 104 | -.07 | 5.95 | -.26 | 5.65 |
| Females | 118 | 2.29 | 4.92 | 1.19 | 5.31 |
| Experimental | 395 | 1.93 | 5.37 | 1.87 | 5.26 |
| Males | 189 | .15 | 5.25 | .79 | 5.26 |
| Females | 206 | 3.56 | 4.95 | 2.87 | 5.07 |

An inspection of the summary data indicates that the mean score for each group is positive with the exception of males in the control group. This indicates that with the exception of males in the control group, the students attitudes were slightly more globalistic than nationalistic. Also, on the pretest, the mean score for the treatment group (1.93) is higher than the mean score for the control group (1.18). This difference of .75 remains fairly constant on the posttest although both groups decreased slightly. Table 7 also points out a difference in scores between males and

females.  This difference holds for the treatment and control
groups and on the pretest and posttest.  This difference has
already been noted as being statistically significant through
the regression on the pretest scores. However, as seen from
Table 7, the difference between sexes remains constant from
pretest to posttest.

The summary data in Table 7 would lead us to believe
there are no effects of global education on global-
mindedness.  The graphs of the relative frequencies in Figure
3 would give further credence to this conclusion since it
shows the distributions are similar. However, to substantiate
this, it is necessary to control for those factors which were
found to be related to the pretest (i.e. gender, foreign
language study and patriotism).  To control for other
confounding variables not measured in the study, the pretest
score has been used to create statistical equivalency between
the two groups.  Multiple regression with dummy variables was
employed in the analysis.  Table 8 provides the results of
this analysis.

The overall F value of 31.68 indicates that the
independent variables are related to the posttest scores on
the WAA.  The R square value of .21 tells us that the
cumulative effect of these variables explains a little more
than 20% of the variance in the dependent variable.  While
this is low, it is typical of results on attitudinal
variables.  While these statistics give us some understanding
of the explanatory power of the predictor variables, of

Figure 3.

## DISTRIBUTION OF MEAN SCORES ON THE WAA
### TREATMENT V. CONTROL (PRETEST)



WAA SCORES

□  PRETEST—CONTROL          +  PRETEST—TREATMENT

## DISTRIBUTION OF MEAN SCORES ON THE WAA
### TREATMENT V. CONTROL (POSTEST)



WAA SCORES

□  POSTTEST—CONTROL          +  POSTTEST—TREATMENT
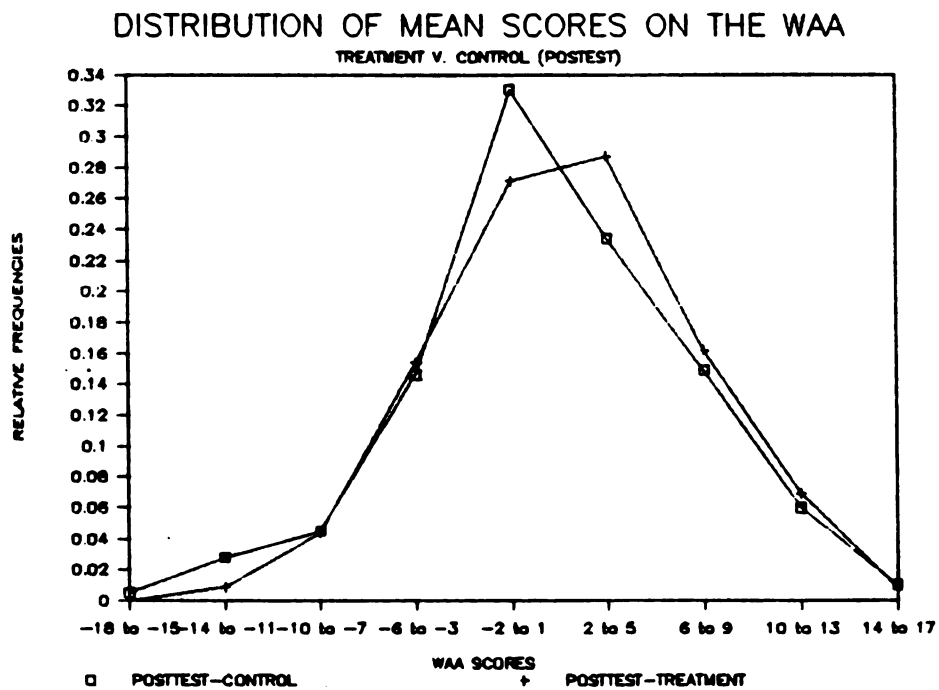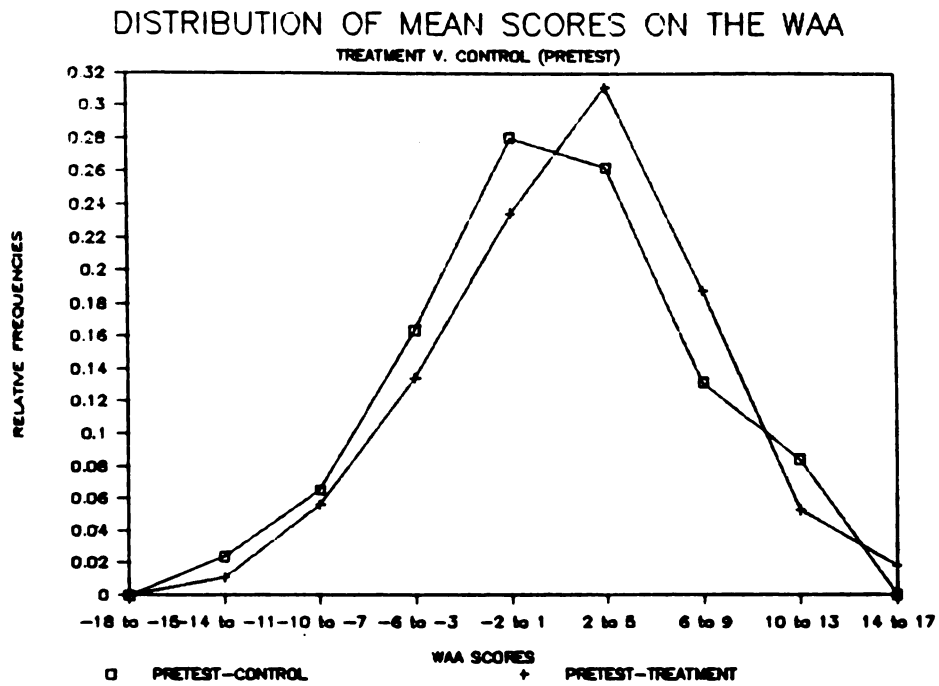
Table 8   Regression on WAA Posttest Scores

| | |
|---|---|
| Multiple R | .46 |
| R Square | .21 |
| Adjusted R | .20 |
| Standard Error | 4.76 |

SUMMARY STATISTICS

| Variable | B | SE B | BETA | t | SIG.t |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Condition | .40 | .41 | .03 | .97 | .33 |
| Patriotism | -.37 | .17 | -.07 | -2.07 | .03 |
| Gender | .63 | .41 | .06 | 1.53 | .12 |
| Foreign Language | .00 | .52 | .00 | -.01 | .98 |
| Prescore | .41 | .03 | .42 | 10.91 | .00 |

| | DF | Sum of Squares | Mean Squares |
|---|---|---|---|
| Regression | 5 | 3600.75 | 720.15 |
| Residual | 575 | 13069.66 | 22.72 |

F= 31.68     Significance of F=.00

greater concern in this study are the statistics associated with each independent variable. It is important to note that the t values for gender and foreign language study are not significant. This means that when we control for pretest scores there is no difference on posttest scores for students who differ on these variables. Patriotism, however, remains significantly and negatively related to WAA scores. The B value of -.37 indicates that a one-point increase on the ATPS results in a .37 point decrease on the WAA.

Most important for the purposes of this study is the value for condition. Since the control group is coded '0' and the treatment group '1', a positive B value indicates that the treatment group tends to be more globalistic than

the control group when controlling for pretest scores.
However, the value of .4 is low and means that the
difference between the two groups is only .4 of a point on
the WAA. This difference is in fact not statistically
significant since it results in a t value of .97 which has an
alpha level greater than .05. Therefore, we cannot reject
the null hypothesis that the treatment condition has no
effect on global-mindedness. We have to conclude that there
is no difference in global-mindedness between students who
have had a global education course and those who have not.

Hypothesis Four

Ho: There is no difference in global-mindedness
between those students who have had a global
education course and those who have not had
such a course, on the individual problems on
the WAA.

Each of the problems in the shortened version of the WAA
is based on a specific issue of international importance.
Therefore, comparison of mean scores on each problem provides
insight about differences in attitude between the control and
treatment groups in regard to those specific issues. Table 9
shows the means, and standard deviations, on the pre and
posttests, for the total sample as well as the experimental
and control groups on each of the ten problems.

Table 9. Scores on the Ten Problems on the WAA by Condition

| Problem | Group | Pretest | | Posttest | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | X | S | X | S |
| Earthsafe | Entire Population | .42 | 1.35 | .53 | 1.35 |
| | Control | .42 | 1.35 | .34 | 1.39 |
| | Experimental | .43 | 1.37 | .63 | 1.32 |
| Performing | Entire Population | .44 | 1.56 | .32 | 1.61 |
| Arts | Control | .32 | 1.62 | .32 | 1.59 |
| | Experimental | .51 | 1.51 | .33 | 1.62 |
| World Health | Entire Population | -.33 | 1.46 | -.38 | 1.45 |
| | Control | -.41 | 1.43 | -.36 | 1.41 |
| | Experimental | -.29 | 1.48 | -.38 | 1.47 |
| Immigration | Entire Population | -.43 | 1.42 | -.49 | 1.42 |
| | Control | -.35 | 1.42 | -.50 | 1.44 |
| | Experimental | -.47 | 1.41 | .49 | 1.42 |
| Terrorism | Entire Population | 1.27 | 1.12 | 1.31 | 1.06 |
| | Control | 1.20 | 1.16 | 1.13 | 1.16 |
| | Experimental | 1.31 | 1.09 | 1.41 | .98 |
| Over- | Entire Population | -.17 | 1.52 | -.28 | 1.51 |
| population | Control | -.24 | 1.57 | -.11 | 1.53 |
| | Experimental | -.12 | 1.49 | -.37 | 1.50 |
| Olympic | Entire Population | .26 | 1.42 | .32 | 1.43 |
| Games | Control | .16 | 1.44 | .24 | 1.46 |
| | Experimental | .32 | 1.41 | .37 | 1.41 |
| Foreign-Made | Entire Population | .11 | 1.38 | .17 | 1.37 |
| Goods | Control | .05 | 1.41 | .15 | 1.37 |
| | Experimental | .15 | 1.37 | .18 | 1.37 |
| Nuclear | Entire Population | .43 | 1.27 | .39 | 1.24 |
| Accident | Control | .27 | 1.26 | .24 | 1.26 |
| | Experimental | .52 | 1.27 | .48 | 1.22 |
| Air Travel | Entire Population | -.31 | 1.46 | -.26 | 1.47 |
| Stoppage | Control | -.24 | 1.41 | -.33 | 1.47 |
| | Experimental | -.35 | 1.50 | -.23 | 1.47 |

A positive score is an indication that the sample tends to be globalistic, and a negative score is an indication the sample tends to be nationalistic. Based on this we can represent the subjects responses on the ten problems as follows:

Table 10. WAA Scenarios Divided by the Favored Solution

| Globalistic Solution | Nationistic Solution |
| --- | --- |
| Earthsafe | World Health |
| Performing Arts | Immigration |
| Terrorism | Overpopulation |
| Olympic Games | Air Travel Stoppage |
| Foreign-Made Goods | |
| Nuclear Accident | |

This breakdown of the ten problems is the same for the pretest and the posttest and for the treatment and the control group. The scenario which has the highest mean score is Terrorism, indicating the sample strongly favors a globalistic solution for this problem. The scenario with the lowest mean score is immigration which tells us the sample has a strong preference for a nationalistic solution on that problem.

The concern in this study is whether the treatment group means changed relative to the control group means. In order to determine whether changes occurred in the global-mindedness of the treatment group relative to the control group, the difference between the pretest and the posttest means (dx) was calculated. This difference score was then

used as the dependent variable in a t-test comparing the control group with the treatment group. Each problem was analyzed separately to test the null hypothesis that d1 = d2. Results of these analyses are reported below.

Table 11.  Difference Scores on the Ten WAA Problems

|  | Control dx | Exper. dx | t | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1.  Earthsafe | .076 | -.19 | 2.11 | n.s. |
| 2.  Performing Arts | .000 | .19 | -1.24 | n.s. |
| 3.  World Health | -.045 | .10 | -1.02 | n.s. |
| 4.  Immigration | .13 | .01 | .92 | n.s. |
| 5.  Terrorism | .06 | -.08 | 1.43 | n.s. |
| 6.  Overpopulation | -.13 | .25 | -2.73 | p<.05 |
| 7.  Olympic Games | -.07 | -.04 | -0.22 | n.s. |
| 8.  Foreign Goods | -.10 | -.03 | -0.50 | n.s. |
| 9.  Nuclear Accident | .03 | .05 | -0.14 | n.s. |
| 10. Air Travel Stoppage | .09 | -.11 | 1.40 | n.s. |

Only on problem six, "Overpopulation," was there a significant difference in the predicted direction (t=2.73). For this particular problem we can conclude that the treatment group gained in global-mindedness relative to the control group. However, for the other nine problems the null hypothesis that a global education program has no effect on global-mindedness cannot be rejected. It should be noted, that the experimental group changed relative to the control group on seven of the ten problems. However, the difference was not great enough to achieve a level of statistical significance.

Hypothesis Five

Ho: There is no relationship between the students'
    perception of the classroom environment and
    global-mindedness.

The sample used in testing this hypothesis included only the treatment group. The postscore on the WAA was used as the dependent variable in a multiple regression with the pretest score on the WAA, pretest score on the patriotism scale, gender, foreign language study , and score on the CDI serving as independent variables. The results of this regression analysis are summarized in Table 12.

Table 12    Test of Hypothesis Five

| Multiple R | .44 |
| R Square | .19 |
| Adjusted R² | .18 |
| Stan. Error | 4.74 |

| Variable | B | Se B | Beta | t | Sig |
|----------|-----|------|------|------|-----|
| Discussion Index | .09 | .04 | .093 | 1.92 | .05 |
| Patriotism | -.50 | .23 | -.105 | -2.14 | .03 |
| Gender | .77 | .53 | .074 | 1.45 | .14 |
| Foreign Language | -.19 | .71 | -.013 | -.26 | .79 |
| WAA pretest | .36 | .05 | .376 | 7.27 | .00 |

| | DF | Sum of Squares | Mean Squares |
|------------|-----|----------------|--------------|
| Regression | 5 | 1895.9 | 379.18 |
| Residual | 344 | 7444.1 | 22.51 |

F= 16.84    Significance of F=.00

The most powerful predictor of WAA posttest scores after the WAA pretest, is still patriotism. This means that when we control for the other independent variables, a one-point

increase in patriotism results in a .514 point decrease in WAA scores. After patriotism, however, the only other significant predictor of WAA posttest scores is the score on the Discussion Index. The B value of .09 means that a one-point increase in CDI leads to a .09 increase in WAA score. The beta value of .093 for the CDI score indicates it accounts for approximately 10% of the variance in the posttest scores on the WAA. While this explains a very small proportion of the variance, the B value of .09 yields a t of 1.92 which is statistically significant at the .05 level. This result means we reject the null hypothesis that the perception of the classroom environment has no effect on global-mindedness.

It is important to note that with pretest WAA scores controlled, Gender and Foreign Language Study are no longer significant predictors of global-mindedness. This indicates that students who studied a foreign language did not tend to increase in global-mindedness relative to those who did not have a foreign language course as a result of the treatment. In fact, the value of -.19 tells us that those who did not have a foreign language course tended to gain in global-mindedness, relative to the control group, as a result of the treatment.

With Gender the positive B value indicates females still score higher on global-mindedness than do males. However, this difference is not statistically significant (P<.14). The one predictor of WAA scores which is still strongly

related to global-mindedness after instruction is the ATPS pretest score (B=-.5). This means that as students' level of patriotism increases, their WAA posttest scores decrease. Or, in other words, the entry level of patriotism affects the extent to which student attitudes will change as a result of instruction in global education.

The analysis described above gives support to the notion that open classroom discussion is related to increased global-mindedness. However, since the variable of interest in this case, classroom openness, is a classroom-level variable, the decision was made to aggregate scores on the CDI by class. These were divided into a high, medium and low group by taking the top third, the middle third and the bottom third of the classes according to mean score on the aggregated CDI score. The mean on the CDI for all classes in the treatment group was 32.02 with a standard deviation of 5.43. The statistics for the three groups are listed in Table 13.

Table 13. Scores on the CDI by Classrooms

| | High | | | Medium | | | Low | |
|-------|-------|------|-------|--------|------|-------|-------|------|
| Class | X | S | Class | X | S | Class | X | S |
| 1 | 35.61 | 4.49 | 6 | 32.53 | 4.93 | 12 | 31.22 | 4.07 |
| 2 | 34.42 | 4.99 | 7 | 31.96 | 5.07 | 13 | 30.25 | 6.2 |
| 3 | 34.00 | 6.13 | 8 | 31.84 | 4.74 | 14 | 29.21 | 5.22 |
| 4 | 33.59 | 5.79 | 9 | 31.84 | 4.71 | 15 | 28.86 | 5.91 |
| 5 | 32.86 | 5.78 | 10 | 31.65 | 4.18 | 16 | 26.08 | 4.44 |
| | | | 11 | 31.64 | 5.10 | | | |

The three levels of classroom openness were used as an independent variable in a regression on the WAA posttest scores. This was accomplished by assigning each subject in the treatment group an additional variable which represented either the high, medium or low group, and creating two dummy variables to allow for interpretation of results.

The means on the WAA for each of these groups gives the researcher cause to believe the level of openness had a significant effect on global-mindedness (refer to Table 14). The high and moderate groups each increased in global-mindedness after having a global education course. The high group increased from 2.47 to 2.87. The moderate group increased from 1.66 to 2.01. The low openness group, however, dropped over a full point from pretest to posttest (1.66 to 0.54).

Table 14. High, Medium and Low Group Means on the CDI

| Group | High | Medium | Low |
|---|---|---|---|
| WAA Pretest | 2.47 | 1.66 | 1.66 |
| WAA Posttest | 2.87 | 2.01 | 0.54 |

Entered into the equation with level of openness as independent variables were gender, foreign language study, score on the ATPS pretest and score on the WAA pretest. The posttest WAA score was the dependent variable. The null hypotheses which were tested are:

Ho: Low or moderate discussion level classrooms
score lower on global-mindedness than high
discussion level classrooms.

Since this is a directional hypothesis a one tailed test
of significance is appropriate. The statistical hypothesis
is: B<0 for the low or moderate group with the high level
classrooms as the reference group. Using aggregated
classroom means to represent discussion openness highlights
an important relationship. It appears that the lack of
openness in the classroom has the effect of decreasing
global-mindedness, while a moderate or high open classroom
increases global-mindedness. The B value of -1.95 for the
Low Openness level indicates that the average score for a
class in that group is 1.95 points lower on the posttest of
the WAA than a class in the high open group. This is after
controlling for the differences on the WAA pretest. The
moderate open group however is not significantly different
from the high discussion group. The value in this case is
-.57 indicating the moderate discussion group is .57 of a
point lower than the high discussion group on the WAA. This
difference, however is not statistically significant. We can
therefore reject the hypothesis that the low-level classroom
is not significantly different from the high open classroom
in global-mindedness. At the same time we cannot reject the
hypothesis the moderate level group is different in global-
mindedness from the high level group. Table 15 displays the
results of the regression analysis.

Table 15.  Effects of High, Moderated, Low Discussion
            on Global-Mindedness

---

Multiple R            .45
R Squared             .20
Adjusted $R^2$        .19
Standard Error   4.70

| Variable | B | Se B | Beta | t | Sig. |
|----------|----|------|------|------|------|
| Low Open Classroom | -1.95 | .63 | -.16 | -3.06 | .00 |
| Moderate Open Class | -.57 | .58 | -.05 | -.99 | .32 |
| Patriotism | -.40 | .22 | -.08 | -1.80 | .07 |
| Gender | .75 | .51 | .07 | 1.45 | .14 |
| Foreign Language Study | -.25 | .68 | -.01 | -.37 | .70 |
| WAA Pretest Score | .37 | .04 | .38 | 7.65 | .00 |

| | DF | Sum of Squares | Mean Square |
|-----------|-----|----------------|-------------|
| Regression | 5 | 2153.15 | 430.63 |
| Residual | 368 | 8149.82 | 22.14 |

F=19.44    Significance of F=.00

---

The results of this regression are interesting when
compared to the previous regression equation.  The summary
statistics indicate this equation is a better predictor of
global-mindedness than the previous regression in which
student perception of classroom discussion was not aggregated
by classroom.  The multiple R has increased slightly (from
.44 to .45) and the standard error has been reduced from 4.74
to 4.7.  This tells us the second equation explains a greater
proportion of the variance in the dependent variable and with
greater precision.

The equation is instructive in one other sense.  Not
only are gender and foreign language study insignificant
indicators of global-mindedness but patriotism is also
statistically insignificant at an alpha level of .05.

The results of this equation may suggest that patriotism is affected by global education in classrooms characterized by open discussion. To test this hypothesis, an analysis of covariance was conducted on the posttest ATPS scores. The pretest was used as the covariate and the three levels of classroom openness represented the factors. The null hypothesis can be represented as: $\mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3$ for ATPS posttest scores after controlling for pretest scores. The alpha level for rejection of the null hypotheses is .05. The summary statistics for the three groups are listed in Table 16.

Table 16. Mean Scores on ATPS Posttest for Low, Moderate and High Open Classrooms

| Group | N | x |
|-------|---|---|
| Low Openness | 107 | 6.02 |
| Moderate Openness | 158 | 6.15 |
| High Openness | 125 | 5.83 |

The mean scores for the three groups are fairly close and this is reflected in the results of the ANCOVA (see Table 17). The overall F=2.46 which has an alpha level of .09. Since this is greater than .05 we cannot reject the null hypothesis that the three mean scores differ, and we can conclude that level of classroom openness does not effect the individuals' level of patriotism.

Table 17. ANCOVA on Posttest ATPS Scores by Level of
Classroom Openness

| Source of Variation | Sum of Squares | DF | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Pretest ATPS | 95.30 | 1 | 95.30 | 90.27 | .00 |
| Openness of the Class | 5.19 | 2 | 2.60 | 2.46 | .09 |
| Residual | 407.5 | 386 | 1.05 | | |
| | 508.01 | 389 | 1.30 | | |

## Summary

The statistical analysis has yielded a number of interesting results. It appears that prior to formal instruction in global education, gender, patriotism and foreign language study are valid predictors of global-mindedness. It was further discovered that gender is the most powerful predictor of global-mindedness, and there are significant differences between males and females on specific issues on the WAA. When these variables as well as pretest scores are used to control for differences among groups it seems that global education is not successful in altering the nation-centered/world-centered orientation of the individual. This is true whether the gauge is the overall WAA score or specific issues on the WAA. However, when WAA scores are analyzed according to the student's perception of classroom discussion there is support for the idea that more open discussion is related to higher global-minded thinking. Finally, despite the fact that patriotism appears negatively related related to globalistic thinking, both prior to and

related related to globalistic thinking, both prior to and
after instruction in global education, it does not seem to be
affected by global education.

CHAPTER V
Summary, Conclusions and Suggestions for Research

Traditionally, the school has held as one of its roles the creation of a political community. The focus of that community was the nation-state and while there was disagreement over the process by which young students were socialized into their political roles, the focus of allegiances was rarely questioned. The development of global education as a curriculum innovation has altered that state of affairs. Its objective of instilling a "global perspective" in students has become the target of numerous critics who see it as undermining political allegiance to the nation-state. The proponents of global education, on the other hand, argue that technological, social and economic forces have created conditions which demand that we teach our children to see the national interest reflected in world interests.

While educational programs are adapted or dismantled on the basis of one or the other of these viewpoints, little empirical evidence exists to describe the effects of global education on students' patriotism and world view. In light of that problem this study set out to determine if: (1) correlates of global-mindedness could be identified, (2) patriotism acts as a potential prerequisite or barrier to the

development of global-mindedness, (3) a global education course can be successful in increasing global-mindedness in high school students and, (4) the openness of the classroom environment contributes to the development of global-mindedness.

In order to answer these questions, 618 students from four high schools in Michigan were administered the <u>World Affairs Analysis</u>, the <u>Attitude Toward Patriotism Scale</u> and the <u>Classroom Discussion Index</u> during the 1987-88 school year. Of the 618 students, 396 were currently enrolled in a global education course and represented the experimental group. The remainder of the sample (n=222) was enrolled in social studies courses which did not have global education content and were used as a control group. The students were surveyed at the start of the course and again at the end. Multiple regression analysis and t-tests were used to test the hypotheses.

Valid predictors of global-mindedness included: (1) the gender of the student, (2) patriotism and (3) whether the student had a foreign language course previously. Specifically, girls were identified as being more global-minded than boys. Global-mindedness was also higher among students who had a foreign language course in their background. And, as feelings of patriotism increased global-mindedness tended to decrease. However, while this finding suggested patriotism may act as a barrier to global-mindedness, there was no effect on the level of patriotism as

a result of taking a global education class. The researcher also found a relationship between the perception of the classroom environment and the students' global-mindedness for students in the treatment group. While there was no discernable effect of a global education course on global-mindedness, this finding appears to be a function of the "openness" of classroom discussion. Finally, whether the student was in a high or moderate open classroom was a valid predictor of global-mindedness.

The following sections discuss the implications of these findings. However, the implications and conclusions must be considered in light of the limitations of the research. First, and most important of these, is that the courses which represented the experimental treatment in this study, do not represent the full range of global education programs. Second, the sample included only four programs, each of which had a "Functionalist-Internationalist" perspective. It would be inappropriate to generalize from findings based upon a non-random sample of students, who had instruction in programs which reflect only one theoretical orientation, to other students and other types of programs. For example, it is reasonable to assume that a global education course which had an "Idealist" perspective would have a far different effect on student attitudes. Therefore, curriculum designers should proceed cautiously when using the findings of this study to guide program development.

The duration of the study also limits its generalizability. One important curricular option in global education is infusion. Infusion involves the inclusion of global education content throughout the curriculum. Since this approach would expose students to global education content over an extended period of time, this study does not offer any insight as to how infusion-based programs might affect student attitudes.

## The Predictors of Global-Mindedness

The results of the regression analysis on the pretest WAA scores are consistent with much of the earlier research, but also highlight some factors not previously identified. Previous studies, for example, have identified gender as a significant variable in predicting global-mindedness (Torney-Purta 1986; Peterson 1980; Masters 1984) and this is also true in this research. Most of the earlier research, however, asked the respondents general questions concerning the international arena. The difference in this study is that the subjects responded to specific problem situations on issues of international importance. The results of this study give some indication that more general attitudes toward international politics transfer to specific policy choices.

This study also found a difference in the types of issues on which males and females differed. If we use Klineberg et al.'s (1979) categories to analyze perspectives on international problems, then it becomes fairly clear that

both males and females as a group fit into the category he termed social protectionism. In other words, when the issue involves immigration or redistribution of scarce resources, both males and females as a group favor nationalistic solutions. The difference between males and females is in the _degree_ to which they support nationalistic solutions on such issues. Given these findings, there seems to be more substantive agreement between the genders, on what may be deemed crucial issues, then it may at first glance appear and may help explain the discrepancy between studies which have noted gender differences and those which have not.

In addition, while males were significantly less global-minded than females, the level of patriotism was the same for both groups. The scores for both groups on both the _ATPS_ pretest and the _ATPS_ posttest are extremely close. Once again, this pattern is similar to what other researchers have found. That is, taken as a whole, the subjects in this study exhibit a fairly strong sense of patriotism in conjunction with a desire for international cooperation. However, girls are more likely than boys to favor world interests over national interests when choosing solutions to international problems.

Another factor related to global-mindedness is whether the individual had had foreign language instruction. This is also somewhat consistent with previous research (Torney-Purta 1986). However, while Torney-Purta found positive global attitudes correlated with the length of time an individual

studied a foreign language, this is not true for the sample in this study. Length of time spent studying a foreign language did, however, show a positive relationship to global-mindedness. This gives support to the notion that changes in the students' world view may be an unanticipated outcome of the curriculum in areas outside of social studies. If one's interest is in increasing global-mindedness of high school students, than exposing them to foreign language instruction is a powerful means of accomplishing it.

It could be argued that the relationship between these two variables is not clarified by the regression analysis. We cannot, for example, determine whether global-minded students are more likely to take a foreign language or whether foreign language affects global-mindedness. Nevertheless, the positive relationship between length of time spent studying a foreign language and global-mindedness, found in this study, does give some indication of the latter.

Possibly the most significant finding, in terms of the predictors of global-mindedness, is that patriotism is negatively related. As student patriotism increased, global-mindedness tended to decrease. This suggests, that as one's identification with the nation-state becomes more intense, there is less willingness to solve international problems on the basis of world interest. In other words, students who scored at the upper end of the ATPS held nationcentric views which were reflected in their choice of solutions for international problems. What is left unanswered, is why this

relationship is exaggerated for males as compared to females. That is, at any given level of patriotism, males are more nation-centered than females. Yet, the relationship between patriotism and global-mindedness is negative and linear for both groups.

What may be equally revealing from the regression analysis on the pretest WAA scores are the variables which were not related to global-mindedness. Most noticeable of these is the absence of any independent variables which might be used to represent social class. Neither father's or mother's occupation nor school attended relate to the pretest scores. Since the schools were purposively chosen on the basis of the socio-economic characteristics of the community, we would expect to see more nationalistic attitudes among working class students if the data was consistent with previous research. This was not the case. However, it should be noted that attendance at Urban High, which represented a largely working class area, approached significance as a predictor of WAA pretest score. It also seems likely that the absence of parent's occupation as a valid predictor is due to the way in which this variable was operationalized. Social class as an indicator of attitudes toward international affairs has been recognized as a predictor of global-mindedness in studies which used in depth interviewing as the data collection method. It may be that a survey instrument is insufficient for detecting these differences.

One other predictor found to be related to high global concern, in earlier research (Torney-Purta 1986) was reading international news. Among this sample, reading international news and daily newspaper reading, although positively related to global-mindedness, were not statistically significant.

The results of the initial analysis have important implications for the interpretation of how global education affects both patriotism and global-mindedness. It is to these questions that we now turn.

### The Effects of Global Education on Patriotism

The scores on the ATPS pretest give some support to the notion that adolescents' attitudes are not overly chauvinistic. The mean score of 6.01 roughly corresponds to the statement "I can accept the leadership of foreign countries in many fields." While this suggests that the students in this sample are not overly nationalistic, it does not tell the complete story. The overall mean score was 6.01, yet over 35 % of the students scored 8.0 or above on the ATPS pretest, which corresponds to the statement "I don't know much about other countries but I'm satisfied with the U.S." The statement obviously expresses some nationalistic sentiment and chauvinism. While students in the study exhibit a broad range of patriotism, the findings support the idea that global education courses at the high school level will not affect the level of patriotism initially held by the student. Early research indicated that the process of

developing national identity is intense and occurs early in life. It is reasonable to assume that the effects of the process will therefore not be easily redirected by an 18 week course of study. This research supports that assumption.

The suggestion that global education leads to conflicts which undermine the patriotism of the individual is <u>not</u> supported by these data. Each of the schools studied relied on a curriculum which stressed one or more aspects of world citizenship.(interdependence, international conflict resolution etc.). Yet, there was no decrease in patriotism among the students at the conclusion of the course. Furthermore, it appears that a critical approach to the subject matter does <u>not</u> undermine the students' levels of patriotism. In analyzing the posttest scores for the treatment group, openness of the classroom discussion is a significant predictor of <u>WAA</u> scores, while scores on the <u>ATPS</u> pretest were not. The students' levels of patriotism when entering the course was therefore <u>not</u> related to the levels of global-mindedness at the conclusion of the course. What this suggests is that the study of global issues within an open environment may alter the perspectives students take on conflict resolution within the international arena but not at the expense of a love of country. An identification with both the world and national communities appears to be a realistic outcome of an effective global education program.

At the same time, it is important to make clear what is meant by identification. It is <u>not</u> an abstract notion of

brotherhood or "love of man." Rather, it simply refers to a positive attachment to the nation-state on the one hand, and an acceptance of world interest as a basis for settling international disputes on the other. That acceptance could be the result of an ideal of "universal brotherhood." But it may also be the result of coming to a conclusion that world interest is a necessary foundation for solving the types of international problems we have today. With regards to this sample, the conflict of multiple loyalties does not seem to be a valid concern. Considering the existing world conditions, educating students to view problems from multiple perspectives and to search for common interests in solving those problems seems reasonable. Students who expressed a global-minded attitude were not antagonistic toward their nation-state. In fact, only 5.2% (32) of the students scored below 4.0 on the ATPS (4.0 is the point at which the statements in the ATPS begin to express resentment or hostility towards one's own country). And if we look at the mean WAA score of those students it was particularly low (1.09).

## The Effect of Global Education on Global-Mindedness

The results from this study indicate that an effective global education program must focus on the methods used in the instruction as well as the content of the course. The classrooms which were successful in increasing global-mindedness in students were those which were characterized by

an open environment. While a number of alternative explanations might be advanced for this relationship, one seems most plausible. An open environment is characterized by high levels of discussion, free expression of opinion and consideration of controversial issues. When students who hold different views are allowed to present them publicly, all students benefit by being exposed to perspectives other than their own. Johnson and Johnson (1979) describe this connection:

> That is, the situation begins with students categorizing and organizing their present information and experiences so that a conclusion is derived. When they realize that other students (or the teacher) have a different conclusion, conceptual conflict, uncertainty, or disequilibrium is aroused. The conceptual conflict leads to epistemic curiosity which, in turn, motivates a search for more information, new experiences and a more adequate cognitive perspective and reasoning process. The more adequate cognitive perspective and reasoning process is derived from more accurately understanding the perspective and reasoning process of the students' opponents and adapting their own perspective and reasoning process accordingly (p.57).

The regression analysis on the pretest scores indicated the differences in globalistic thinking which existed between groups, such as those between males and females, and those who had had foreign language instruction and those who had not. An open classroom environment presents the opportunity for students to take advantage of these differences. A closed classroom environment does not. Unless students are presented with alternative viewpoints, they are not forced to

evaluate their own belief systems. Therefore, stereotypical notions which develop in early childhood and allow the individual to establish national identity and make sense of the political world are those on which the individual continues to rely. Attitudinal change is unlikely since the individual's thinking is based on overly simplistic models of the political world, such as the threat schema suggested by Connel. It is not until students are consistently confronted with alternative perspectives that there is a need to evaluate and expand the mental framework within which they think about international politics. This type of intellectual confrontation is more likely to occur in an open classroom where discussion and controversy are the norm rather than the exception. It could be argued that the choice of a nationalistic solution does not constitute reliance on "a simplistic model of international politics." This is certainly true. However, when a sociocentric individual is making a choice of a policy option to solve an international problem the schema on which they base their judgement is nationalistic. Mental frameworks such as the "patriotic filter" suggested by Cooper do not allow them to interpret the data otherwise. Therefore, we would expect that in an environment in which the individual is forced to assimilate information and opinions from a wide range of perspectives, he/she is more likely to experience a change of attitude. Or, at least base their attitude on a more sophisticated schema. What we have seen in this study is

that in the right environment students can change their attitude toward problem solving in the international community without altering their attitude toward the nation-state. The Torney-Purta study (1986) of student attitudes before and after participation in an international crisis simulation demonstrates this process. The results of this study's findings are best explained within that structure.

One crucial point which must be made about the findings of this study is that there were no statistically significant differences among schools on the WAA scores. Despite the fact that the schools represented substantially different segments of society in terms of community, and social class background of the student bodies, the school attended was not a valid predictor of either the pretest or posttest scores. While it would be questionable to regard this finding as indicating that global-mindedness does not vary according to social class, it does give support to the notion that a global education program can have similar effects in different types of communities.

If our goal is to change the framework within which students think about international problem solving, it is important to note that the effects of global education on males and females is similar. The wide discrepancy in the attitudes between the genders on international politics does not appear to be a barrier to delivering effective global education to either group. In fact, if the environment is open these differences are probably an advantage. The unique

perspectives each group brings to the classroom contributes to the conditions under which individuals are most likely to alter their thinking.

## Implications for Curriculum Planning

The results of this study suggest a number of implications for the development of curriculum at the secondary level. At the least, it would seem to indicate a need for global education in the social studies curriculum. The high percentage of students who demonstrated chauvinistic attitudes on the ATPS, for example, should be cause for concern. However, there are also more subtle implications which can be inferred from the data. These are outlined below.

    1) The implementation of global education at the secondary level should be pursued. Many individuals have argued that global education should be focused on the middle school/junior high level, and that introduction of global education concepts at the high school level is too late. While introducing global concepts in elementary and middle school is more likely to produce students who are less ethnocentric and express an awareness and concern for global issues, it should not lead to abandoning global education in the high school. The research reported here gives support to the idea that global education can be successful in altering the perspective the student takes toward problem solving in the international area as late as the eleventh and twelfth grades. Certainly, the most fruitful approach would be a well structured K-12 program which introduces global education early and continues throughout formal education. Still, the secondary school which is concerned with providing its students with more global awareness can find some success in changing nationalistic attitudes of its students despite the effects of their earlier education.

2) It seems that the most fruitful area for the implementation of global education content is--at the very least--through multidisciplinary programs which combine foreign language with social studies. Other syntheses should be pursued for the delivery of global education. Although social studies is the most obvious area of the curriculum for global education, it would be shortsighted to confine this innovation to one subject area.

3) The results of this study point out the problems in attempting to separate content from methodology in the social studies classroom. Both the use of controversial subject matter and an emphasis on student discussion are important in changing student attitudes. Development of materials which promote both of these in the classroom is an essential step in creating successful global education programs. Furthermore, teachers need to feel free to use such materials in the classroom. Earlier research (Nelson 1976; Naylor 1973) indicated that controversy is discouraged in most schools and that teachers believe content should be presented from a strictly nationalist perspective. Until that informal restriction on teachers is lifted, we can not expect to find many global education programs which are successful in changing student attitudes. Curriculum materials should be based on analyses of crucial international problems and be presented from multiple perspectives. Foreign policies of the United States government should be open to criticism and critique. Teachers need to feel confident in expressing opinions which conflict at times with established U.S. policy. Students need to see reasoned dissension modeled in the classroom.

4) Global education instruction should be based on strategies which promote high levels of student-student and student-teacher interaction. Approaches such as simulation and role play are excellent devices for promoting interaction. Also, more recent innovations in the area of cooperative learning offer potentially useful means of delivering global education content. These approaches encourage students to teach each other through dialogue and debate. It is important that high school students hear, and have an opportunity to respond to, differing opinions.

## Implications for Future Research

A number of the findings in this study suggest a need for future research. Foremost among these is the need for a longitudinal study. This particular research focused on the effects of global education following an eighteen week course. What would be most helpful to social educators and curriculum developers is information about these effects long after the student has finished formal education. Since the consequences of altering student attitudes are only relevant in the long term, it is important to gather data on long term effects.

Closely related to this is a need to gather information on how students are affected in terms of global-mindedness and patriotism when they are in global education programs of longer duration. The likely scenario for many schools is an infusion of global education content into the curriculum at numerous or even all grade levels. It is reasonable to assume that an individual's identification with the nation-state is not easily altered by a short term treatment. However, if students are exposed to more lengthy educational interventions of a global perspective, then national identification may be altered.

This study found statistically significant differences in global-mindedness only when the instruction in global education was characterized by an open classroom climate. Even then, the differences were substantively minimal. However, the dependent variable in this case involved a basic

political orientation. To bring about substantive change may demand more intense and lengthy interventions. Until longitudinal data is obtained, the basic question of whether global education can influence global-mindedness without affecting patriotism is left open. This study begins to suggest an answer but it is far from providing sufficient evidence for curriculum developers who need to make important decisions.

A second potentially rewarding avenue for future research is investigation of classroom discussion as impetus for attitudinal changes. The underlying dynamic may be that an open classroom allows students a better opportunity for linking old information with new information. Such linkages clarify relationships and assist them in giving meaning to course content. However, this is a highly individualized process since these relationships are created based on prior knowledge.

Most of the research in social studies education on attitude change has been concerned with whether a course is successful in developing "positive" political attitudes. In the area of democratic education, that has meant such goals as greater political confidence or greater political trust. In this study, it meant an increase in globalistic thinking. It may be that attitudinal change is related to knowledge in such a way that it is simplistic to predict the direction of that change. Possibly our concern should be with the connections students are making between their prior

knowledge-and the content of the course and the strategies used to transmit that content. When there is open discussion and use of controversial issues in the classroom, students develop more sophisticated relationships between old and new information, thus leading to attitudinal changes. The need, therefore, is to investigate this process in various types of classroom environments. This calls for more phenomenological methods of investigation such as classroom observation and in depth interviewing.

A third area which should receive further study is the relationship between social class and political attitudes about the international arena. This study was not able to identify any such relationships. However, the gross measure of social class used in this study may be the cause for that failure. The differences in national identity and attitudes about foreign policy which other researchers have found between social classes have important ramifications for global education program development. Intense nationalism and anticommunism combined with distrust of the government and the social elite which some researchers have found among the working class (Coles 1986; Connel 1971) will certainly affect how they respond to global education instruction. This again may call for methods of investigation which try to understand how students at different socio-economic levels are linking the new information of a global education course with their prior knowledge, and what the attitudinal outcomes of that process are.

Social studies educators have promoted the idea that the development of a global perspective in the individual can lead to identification not only with their own nation-state but with the world community as well (Anderson 1982; Parker and Jarolimek 1984). This research has given some initial support to the idea that such an outcome is possible as a result of social studies instruction. At the same time, it has brought to focus the difficulty of carrying through on such an endeavor. Success seems to depend on the teacher's willingness to emphasize such global concepts as interdependence as an essential organizing principle for the content of the course. Recent events have shown that this is a politically risky venture for social studies teachers to attempt. The notion of global education, as well as curriculum materials created for it, have come under strenuous attack. It may be unrealistic to expect the typical teacher to undertake a program which has the potential for so much public criticism. Furthermore, if recent research is to be believed, schools and school teachers do not appear willing to teach from other than a nationalistic perspective at this time. Not only do teachers need to be willing to emphasize global education content, to develop more globalistic thinking in students, they must also be willing to use controversial issues and open discussion in the classroom. Again it appears unlikely that many social studies teachers are willing to alter their present practices. Teachers tend to avoid classroom

controversy and conflict in favor of more easily manageable and predictable activities. McNeil (1988) makes the point that control over the content of social studies classrooms is important to the teacher as a means of conforming to the bureaucratic administrative structure of the typical high schools. She found that teachers presented only factual content to "avoid creating student cynicism and at the same time to head off inefficient discussion"(p.435). Moreover, McNeil states students tend to weigh what they hear in school against what they hear outside of school, and if there is a contradiction they simply assumed the teacher to be wrong. Unfortunately, as McNeil states: "a friend or boss at McDonald's was not always an accurate source of information. But since the classroom did not provide a place to discuss ideas (as one can do at home or at a job) the students were not able to compare sources of ideas and arrive at informed conclusions"(p.435).

Without informed classroom discussion of international politics, the "patriotic filter" or the threat schema of which Cooper and Connel spoke will continue to dominate young people's organization of knowledge, and thereby shape their opinion, on international politics.

These two imposing constraints on successful implementation of global education endangers its future. However, the results of this research suggests that we do not threaten young people's identification with the nation-state by teaching them about global interdependence.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX


Summary of Descriptive Statistics for
Treatment and Control Group


|  | Control | | Treatment | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
|  | N | % | N | % |
| **1. Major Source of Information on World Affairs** | | | | |
| Newspaper | 36 | (18.8) | 113 | (30.3) |
| Parents | 18 | (9.4) | 25 | (6.7) |
| Teachers | 30 | (15.6) | 46 | (12.3) |
| TV | 105 | (54.7) | 176 | (47.2) |
| **2. Grade in School** | | | | |
| Ninth | 50 | (22.6) | 93 | (23.5) |
| Tenth | 126 | (57.0) | 243 | (61.5) |
| Eleventh | 28 | (12.7) | 39 | (9.9) |
| Twelfth | 17 | (7.7) | 20 | (5.1) |
| **3. Regularity of Newspaper Reading** | | | | |
| Never | 81 | (38.4) | 139 | (36.5) |
| Usually | 111 | (52.6) | 185 | (48.9) |
| Always | 19 | (9.0) | 55 | (14.6) |
| **4. Regularity of Reading World Affairs Section of Newspaper** | | | | |
| Never | 94 | (60.6) | 134 | (50.8) |
| Usually | 53 | (34.2) | 133 | (39.0) |
| Always | 8 | (5.2) | 26 | (9.8) |
| **5. Area of Residence** | | | | |
| Rural | 37 | (18.1) | 65 | (17.9) |
| Urban | 92 | (45.1) | 63 | (17.4) |
| Small Town | 24 | (11.8) | 117 | (32.2) |
| Suburb | 51 | (25.0) | 118 | (32.5) |
| **6. Father's Occupation** | | | | |
| Agriculture | 2 | (1.0) | 13 | (3.7) |
| Clerical | 10 | (5.1) | 16 | (4.5) |
| Unskilled Labor | 31 | (15.7) | 14 | (3.9) |
| Household Care | 2 | (1.0) | 2 | (.6) |
| Technical | 30 | (15.2) | 66 | (18.6) |
| Professional | 72 | (36.4) | 180 | (50.7) |
| Other | 51 | (25.8) | 63 | (17.7) |

7. Mother's Occupation

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Agriculture | 1 | (.5) | | |
| Clerical | 44 | (19.8) | 68 | (19.2) |
| Unskilled Labor | 24 | (10.8) | 25 | (17.1) |
| Household Care | 54 | (24.3) | 92 | (26.0) |
| Technical | 17 | (7.7) | 19 | (5.4) |
| Professional | 40 | (18.0) | 112 | (31.6) |
| Other | 13 | (5.9) | 38 | (10.7) |

8. G.P.A.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Less than 2.0 | 7 | (3.2) | 11 | (3.5) |
| 2.0 - 2.49 | 17 | (7.7) | 30 | (9.6) |
| 2.5 - 2.99 | 63 | (28.4) | 66 | (21.2) |
| 3.0 - 3.49 | 65 | (29.3) | 102 | (32.7) |
| 3.5 - 4.0 | 45 | (20.3) | 103 | (33.0) |

9. Plans After High School

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| College | 162 | (77.1) | 314 | (83.5) |
| Training | 3 | (1.4) | 7 | (1.9) |
| Military | 13 | (6.2) | 14 | (3.7) |
| Job | 4 | (1.9) | 1 | (.3) |
| Undecided | 28 | (3.4) | 40 | (10.6) |

10. Amount of Time Spent Outside the United States

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| One Week | 55 | (24.8) | 84 | (21.2) |
| 1 Week to 1 Month | 48 | (21.6) | 108 | (27.3) |
| 1 Month to 6 Months | 28 | (12.6) | 63 | (15.9) |
| More than 6 Months | 10 | (4.5) | 23 | (5.8) |
| None | 81 | (36.5) | 118 | (29.8) |

11. Participation in a Foreign Language Course

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| No | 47 | (22.7) | 57 | (15.2) |
| Yes | 160 | (77.3) | 317 | (84.8) |

12. Age

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 14 | 55 | (25.2) | 108 | (28.2) |
| 15 | 97 | (44.5) | 187 | (48.8) |
| 16 | 43 | (19.7) | 49 | (12.8) |
| 17 | 21 | (9.6) | 31 | (8.1) |
| 18 | 2 | (.9) | 8 | (2.1) |

13. How Long Have You Studied a Foreign Language?

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 Year | 73 | (44.0) | 118 | (36.0) |
| 2 Years | 51 | (30.7) | 102 | (31.1) |
| 3 Years | 32 | (19.3) | 77 | (23.5) |
| 4 Years | 10 | (6.0) | 31 | (9.5) |

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