

1982

A study of selected aspects of the social studies curriculum in American secondary schools

James Ching-bin Chang
University of Northern Iowa

Let us know how access to this document benefits you

Copyright ©1982 James Ching-bin Chang

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholarworks.uni.edu/grp>



Part of the [Education Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Chang, James Ching-bin, "A study of selected aspects of the social studies curriculum in American secondary schools" (1982). *Graduate Research Papers*. 2260.

<https://scholarworks.uni.edu/grp/2260>

This Open Access Graduate Research Paper is brought to you for free and open access by the Student Work at UNI ScholarWorks. It has been accepted for inclusion in Graduate Research Papers by an authorized administrator of UNI ScholarWorks. For more information, please contact scholarworks@uni.edu.

Offensive Materials Statement: Materials located in UNI ScholarWorks come from a broad range of sources and time periods. Some of these materials may contain offensive stereotypes, ideas, visuals, or language.

A study of selected aspects of the social studies curriculum in American secondary schools

Abstract

The social studies has been changing during the last twenty years. Until the 1970's, more than 100 major social studies curriculum projects were financed by the U. S. federal government, foundations, and institutions of higher learning. However, there was little agreement on which concepts or ways of working in the social sciences were most fruitful and representative of accepted structure.

A STUDY OF SELECTED ASPECTS OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES
CURRICULUM IN AMERICAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

A Research Paper
Presented to
the Department of School Administration
and Personnel Services
University of Northern Iowa

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Arts in Education

by
James Ching-bin Chang

May 1982

This Research Paper by: James Ching-bin Chang

Entitled: A Study of Selected Aspects of the Social
Studies Curriculum in American Secondary Schools

has been approved as meeting the research paper requirement
for the Degree Master of Arts in Education.

James E. Albrecht

April 9, 1982
Date Approved

Director of Research Paper

Donald L. Hanson

April 9, 1982
Date Approved

Second Reader of Research Paper

James E. Albrecht

April 9, 1982
Date Received

Graduate Faculty Adviser

Robert J. Krajewski

April 9, 1982
Date Received

Head, Department of School
Administration and Personnel
Services

CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
Background.....	1
Purpose of the Research.....	3
Definition of Terms.....	4
Procedures Used.....	8
2. BACKGROUND OF CONTEMPORARY DEVELOPMENTS.....	10
The "New Social Studies".....	10
Theoretical Approaches.....	12
Instructional Practices.....	14
The Students and Teachers.....	15
3. THE CURRENT STATUS OF SOCIAL STUDIES EDUCATION IN THE AMERICAN SCHOOLS.....	18
Societal Trends.....	18
Rationale and Goals.....	25
Curriculum Organization and Content.....	31
Instructional Materials.....	35
Classroom Practices.....	38
Evaluation Procedures.....	41
Teacher and Student Characteristics and Attitudes,,	45
4. PROMISING EMPHASES.....	49
Citizen Participation.....	49
Social Roles.....	50

Chapter	Page
Humanization.....	51
Approaches and Curriculum Organization.....	52
Futures Studies.....	53
Content and Skills in Balance.....	55
Instructional Materials.....	56
Student-Centered Emphasis.....	58
A Sense of Reality.....	59
Evaluation and Reporting.....	60
Self-Actualization.....	61
Reaching More Students.....	62
5. CONCLUSIONS.....	66
Summary of the Study.....	66
Recommendations.....	68
LIST OF REFERENCES.....	73
BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	82

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Background

The Nine-Year Compulsory Education Program in Taiwan, Republic of China, has been in place since 1968. In the meantime, the Ministry of Education has set up tentative curriculum standards for junior high schools. Four years later, the curriculum standards were revised and promulgated by the Ministry.

Since the standards have been implemented for more than ten years and remain unchanged, the Ministry is now trying to revise the junior high school curriculum.¹ In this case, it is valuable for Chinese educators to know some trends in the American secondary curriculum to keep abreast of the times.

The new curriculum standards for Chinese elementary schools have been in place for only four years. Yet the graduates from the elementary schools will enter junior high schools, so the Chinese must in advance make a careful plan for good articulation between both curricula.

Furthermore, the Nine-Year Compulsory Education Act was promulgated in 1979. According to the Act, equal emphases on the moral, intellectual, physical, social, and emotional development are placed at the junior

high and elementary school levels. The curricula are centered around the development of national spirit and life education. How to improve the basic courses and electives becomes a key point in revising the junior high school curriculum. Since the Republic of China will become a developed nation in the 1980's, a secondary school curriculum which keeps a balance between human values and technological advances is needed.

In his "Instructions of Educational Innovations," the late President Chiang Kai-shek of the Republic of China urged his educators that education be more active and vivid. As a result of this awareness, the Chinese have been making efforts to improve their education and system. The innovations in curriculum must be closely related to instructional improvement. For this reason, the Chinese wish to learn and use a variety of teaching methods and administrative devices which are widely used in the American secondary schools today.

In addition, the Republic of China is planning to extend the compulsory education program from nine years to twelve years, on a vocational education basis. The functions of senior high and senior vocational schools should be taken into further consideration. How to improve and connect both curricula with the junior high school curriculum is a major point of the future revision.

In an attempt to provide a better basis for the curriculum revision and to facilitate the curriculum innovations in the secondary school, the Taiwan Provincial Government, Republic of China, decided to select an educator to go to the United States for advanced studies in the field of secondary school curriculum. The author was selected and granted a 12-month scholarship by his government. He was admitted to the University of Northern Iowa in early June, 1981. This paper is one of his research projects on the American secondary school curriculum.

Purpose of the Research

The social studies has been changing during the last twenty years. Until the 1970's, more than 100 major social studies curriculum projects were financed by the U. S. federal government, foundations, and institutions of higher learning. However, there was little agreement on which concepts or ways of working in the social sciences were most fruitful and representative of accepted structure.²

In this paper, the author tries to 1) identify the influences on the curriculum and instruction, 2) recognize the rationale and goals of the social studies, 3) analyze the curriculum organization and content, 4) study the available curriculum materials, 5) observe instructional practices, 6) identify effective evaluation

approaches, and 7) judge teacher characteristics and student attitudes related to the subject area.

Finally, the promising emphases on the secondary social studies are identified through an analysis of the information produced by the steps stated above. From these sources suggestions are developed for the Chinese social studies curriculum projects.

Definition of Terms

Secondary school. The pattern of school organization varies throughout the United States. Rollins and others classify the American secondary school into the following types:

- 1) 8-4 system-- Grades 1 through 8 in elementary school, grades 9 through 12 in high school.
- 2) 6-6 system-- Grades 1 through 6 in elementary school, grades 7 through 12 in a six-year high school, sometimes called a junior-senior high school.
- 3) 6-3-3 system-- Grades 1 through 6 in elementary school, grades 7 through 9 in junior high school, and grades 10 through 12 in senior high school.
- 4) 4-4-4 system-- Grades 1 through 8 in elementary school with grades 5 through 8 called a "middle school" and grades 9 through 12 in high school.³

We find that the middle school, junior high school, and senior high school are the major types at the secondary level.

The term "secondary school," as it is used in this paper, refers to what are customarily called grades seven through twelve, and sometimes includes grade 6 in a middle school.

Curriculum. The word "curriculum" in its Latin root, "currere," means, literally, "a race course" or "runway." Through the curriculum, the student is brought along the paths of formal education.⁴ A literal translation from the Latin is one thing; a translation into operational terms is another.

Oliva views curriculum as all experiences of a student which come under the supervision of the school. He places emphases on all in-school and out-of-school experiences. In-school experiences include classroom learning experiences, student activities, use of the library, use of learning resource centers, assemblies, use of the cafeteria, and social functions. Out-of-school experiences refer to those directed by the school, including homework, field trips, and use of community resources.⁵

He further points out that curriculum and instruction cannot really be separated in practice. As he puts it, "Without a curriculum there can be no instruction; without instruction a curriculum is lifeless."⁶ Both are interdependent and equally important. Neither curriculum nor instruction can be subordinate to the other.

Doll defines the curriculum of a school as "the formal and informal content and process by which learners gain knowledge and understanding, develop skills, and alter attitudes, appreciations, and values under the auspices of that school."⁷

This definition includes both formal and informal aspects of schooling, what one learns (content) and how one learns (process), and products or outcomes in the forms of knowledge, understanding, skills, attitudes, appreciations, and values. The curriculum "happens," whether planned or hidden, under the auspices or general sponsorship of the school, which is able to legislate and control it only in part. The definition is rather broad.

Trump and Miller describe curriculum as a vital, moving, complex interaction of people and things in a free-wheeling setting. It includes questions to debate, forces to rationalize, goals to illuminate, programs to activate, and outcomes to evaluate.⁸

The definition of curriculum seems to include everything. In this paper, the author defines curriculum as all experiences that students acquire under the supervision of school, including in-school and out-of-school experiences, formal and informal aspects of schooling, and especially, involving instruction and programs that schools provide to meet the needs in a changing setting.

Social studies. Wiley observed that "there is a lack of agreement as to what social studies really is, what it should be, and how it should be taught." This problem has typically been "solved" by including "any-

thing" and "everything" in the social studies program.⁹ Social studies is indeed an evolving, changing field, so we must be flexible and receptive to changing emphases. However, it is necessary to define social studies; otherwise, just about anything may be included under the title.

In defining social studies, the relationship between social studies and the social disciplines should be delineated. One definition might be that social studies includes the social disciplines simplified for younger learners. Social studies is not tied to any one social discipline; rather, it represents an interdisciplinary combination of all social disciplines.¹⁰ Therefore, social studies becomes a covering term for several subject matters including history and social sciences.¹¹

Trend. Finally, the term "trend" should be defined. According to Webster's Dictionary, the word "trend" means many things--"direction or movement," "a prevailing tendency," "a general movement," "a current style or preference," and "a line of development."¹² In spite of these different expressions, they are all lexical terms. As a matter of fact, some trends do not last very long. In this paper, defining them in terms of promising practices or promising development is more useful and appropriate, given the purpose of the author's assignment in this country.

Procedures Used

The author has drawn his information from three sources. He relied principally on the writings of social studies educators, curriculum theorists, and social studies theorists. In addition, he has visited schools and classrooms in the United States to observe social studies curriculum, instructional materials, and classroom practices. Finally, he has interviewed American educators in an effort to gain additional insight into the thinking of those in charge of educational programs in the United States.

In Chapter 2 the author examines some of the social studies developments which have taken place in the United States during the past twenty-five years. That chapter serves as a background against which specific aspects of social studies programs may be viewed.

In Chapter 3 the author first identifies and discusses some societal trends which have influenced the social studies curriculum in the United States during the past few years. He then summarizes the thinking of those individuals and organizations that have provided broad directions for social studies education in the United States. Finally, Chapter 3 is focused on classroom-related matters of curriculum organization and content, instructional materials, classroom practices, and evaluation procedures; some observations related to teacher and student characteristics and attitudes complete the chapter.

In Chapter 4 the author identifies and discusses certain emphases which he judges to hold implications for social studies education both in the United States and in Taiwan, Republic of China.

In Chapter 5 the author summarizes some of the more significant dynamics of contemporary social studies education, then closes with a set of recommendations which are directly related to the revision of the secondary social studies curriculum in the Republic of China.

Chapter 2

BACKGROUND OF CONTEMPORARY DEVELOPMENTS

The "New Social Studies"

Social studies and social studies education have attracted writers in the United States since the beginning of those two fields. During the past twenty years, however, the literature dealing with these two fields has increased sharply, both in quantity and diversity of viewpoint.

Starting in the early 1960's, a relatively new phenomenon appeared in the literature, reflecting the emergence of what were known as "national social studies projects." The majority of those projects, in their many forms, comprised what came to be called "the new social studies."

In 1970, Sanders appraised the twenty-six national social studies projects and concluded that a number of emphases were common to them. They included:

- 1) Greater emphasis on ideas and methodology from anthropology, sociology, political science, economics, and social psychology.
- 2) An interdisciplinary integrated approach to curriculum development.
- 3) Concern for the structure of knowledge.
- 4) Discovery or inquiry teaching strategies.
- 5) A concern for values.
- 6) More social realism and conflict in the curriculum.
- 7) More creative, subjective, and divergent patterns of thinking required of students.

8) Cross-cultural studies as a medium for achieving such goals as contrasting values, establishing simpler models for understanding more complex cultures; demonstrating major abstractions, or perceiving the uniformity in human behavior.

9) A greater emphasis on the non-Western world.

10) In-depth studies of selected topics rather than general surveys to study periods of history, geographic areas, or major subject in the discipline.¹

Regardless of these characteristics, no clear consensus existed among the new social studies projects. One of the reasons is that social scientists knew little about the literature of social studies education. Armed with vast supplies of U. S. federal money and a zeal for reform, they nevertheless developed the projects for the "new social studies."²

Certain of the new social studies projects have had great influence on the secondary social studies curriculum. Gross points out that the projects that have had most impact in the secondary school curriculum are the High School Geography Project, Carnegie-Mellon History Project, Sociological Resources for Secondary Schools, American Political Behavior, Harvard Paperbacks, and Anthropology Curriculum Project.³

Ironically, however, Weiss' study notes that the materials from the federally-funded New Social Studies Projects of the 1960's and 1970's are not being widely selected now for classroom use.⁴

In addition, a study by Gross indicates that major changes and tendencies affecting the secondary social studies

programs include the "new social studies" as only one of the ten major forces which have contemporary impact:

- 1) Growth of senior high electives;
- 2) Drop in required social studies;
- 3) Choice or options within social studies requirement;
- 4) Impact of New Social Studies Projects;
- 5) Back to Basics, more time to reading;
- 6) Growth of mini-courses;
- 7) New valuing emphasis;
- 8) Emphasis upon law and citizenship;
- 9) Pressures for consumer and career education;
- 10) Performance objectives/competencies.⁵

In short, there is little to suggest that the "new social studies" has had the impact its sponsors sought.

Theoretical Approaches

Part of the problem in generalizing about the social studies is that there are many ways in which we can view social studies curriculum and instruction. In 1967, Brubaker identified two major camps of the social studies curriculum: the good citizenship position and the social science inquiry position.⁶ Generally speaking, they reflected the different goal orientation of educators and social scientists. In 1970, the two concepts were expanded by Barth and Shermis into a model with emphasis upon three traditions: 1) social studies as citizenship transmission, 2) social studies as social science, and 3) social studies as reflective inquiry.⁷

Patterns of curriculum organization tend to be interdisciplinary or multidisciplinary approaches. Dante pointed out that the new social studies of the Sixties stressed the structure of separate discipline and centered around cognitive learning; while the

social studies of the Seventies gave more emphasis to the affective domain. He suggests that the new direction in the social studies will be a movement of interdisciplinary or multidisciplinary approaches.⁸ It is generally agreed that the social studies today involves much more than the separate social science discipline simplified for instruction.

Brubaker further extended the previous concepts and organized a five-camp model for analyzing social studies curriculum and instruction. This model consists of five concepts: 1) social studies as knowledge of the past as a guide to good citizenship, 2) social studies in the student-centered tradition, 3) social studies as reflective inquiry, 4) social studies as structure of the discipline, 5) social studies as socio-political involvement.⁹ The model provides a basis for determining the rationale and goals of social studies curriculum.

Gagnon conducted a study in an attempt to design a 9-12 social science curriculum based on the needs of adolescents. Significant flaws were found in the existing 9-12 program of study. She suggested that these deficiencies should be rectified by designing a curriculum that:

- 1) provides the structure and foundation necessary for students to acquire the thinking and writing skills necessary for citizenship education;
- 2) adapts the content, methods, and materials to meet the needs of students assigned to the various levels according to their capacities and achievements;
- 3) requires all grade nine students to take an introductory course in the social sciences to give them a firm grounding in the basic concepts and processes of the social sciences; this overview and exploratory course will lay the foundation for the more comprehensive elective courses;
- 4) requires students to fulfill the U. S. history requirements in grade ten: this two-year required block will give

structure and discipline to the social studies curriculum and validate the grades 11-12 elective system since the foundation will have been provided;

5) provides two distinct strands to the curriculum--a strong history orientation for able and interested students and a strong social science orientation for students who need a more direct and concrete learning experiences, and

6) enables students to master reading comprehension skills necessary to read in a specific discipline area. Since approximately fifty percent of the reading on the S. A. T. test deals with the social sciences, it is important that students expand their experiential background and increase their content vocabulary in the social sciences.¹⁰

Instructional Practices

An increasing number of social studies teachers are using different teaching methods, particularly inquiry, conceptual, broad-field, and simulation game approaches. Historically, the era of the 1950's and 1960's saw a large, sustained effort to reform curriculum and instruction. These twenty years, states Anderson, would be considered, "one of the major turning points in American public education."¹¹ Team teaching, individualized instruction, and educational television are widely used in the secondary schools.

Reading skills receive much attention in the American social studies courses today. A study by Coppenhaver reveals that the general reading difficulties experienced by many secondary school students add to the particular reading problems raised by social studies materials. Therefore, it is important that social studies teachers in secondary schools teach reading skills. According to Coppenhaver, specific reading skills can be organized under four headings: vocabulary, critical analysis, organizational, and research skills. She adds that teachers should consider them in relationship to textbooks. Among other activities, she suggests that students

might draw, diagram, or chart information in order to to be able to use it effectively.¹²

The evaluation programs of social studies courses include cognitive, affective, and psychomotor domains. Academic skills seem to be more important than the other learning areas. Lawlor developed a test and measured the selected social studies skills of students in six Indiana public high schools. The following are the social studies skills he used in the test:

1) acquiring information through reading; 2) drawing inferences; 3) cartoon interpretation; 4) reading tabular data; 5) graph interpretation; 6) identifying time relationships; 7) reading a ballot; 8) classifying information; 9) recognizing a point of view; 10) validity of sources; and 11) recognition of cause-effect relationships.¹³

His conclusions based on the twenty-fifth percentile criteria were listed below:

1) In the reading behavior measured, the suburban and metropolitan students had difficulty in recognizing a point of view and drawing inferences. Rural students, on the other hand, experienced difficulty in the abilities to acquire information through reading and to recognize a point of view.

2) In certain segment, students in all three corporations displayed an inability to use a general election ballot. Furthermore, there was a general inability to handle material requiring recognition of cause-effect relationships and identifying time relationships.¹⁴

The Students and Teachers

A recent study by Itsko reveals that social studies teachers in Delaware County, Pennsylvannia are generally positive in their attitudes toward a variety of social studies emphases and components, including innovations in curriculum and instruction. They are also flexible and eclectic in their choice of teaching objective

"New " social studies. Age is an indicator of the degree of teachers' satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their existing teaching situation. According to the study, the 21-30 and 41-50 year old teachers are relatively dissatisfied compared to the 31-40 and 51-70 year old teachers who are generally satisfied with their condition.¹⁵

Wallace assessed the attitudes of public high school teachers regarding moral education in public high schools. It was found that the teachers surveyed agree that moral education should have a role in public high schools, and it should be integrated into the entire school program.¹⁶

Another study by Green indicated that teachers had not effectively communicated the goals of their social studies programs. The study suggested that the objectives of the social studies programs described by the people surveyed do not agree with the workshop members' consensus that social studies should focus on social behavior.¹⁷

According to a survey by Remy, a large number of high school students are dissatisfied with existing instructional practices and materials. They do not want to learn facts only and use school classrooms solely as training grounds for political action. Specifically, these students want to study important social problems as well as political institutions. More students are interested in studying national and international topics than state or local matters. They need a learning environment characterized by a variety of teaching techniques and materials rather than a single text,

and they want to be "involved" rather than simply "passive" learners.¹⁸

The diversity of thinking among social studies educators and the concerns they express underscore the complexity of the social studies field. Chapter 3 begins with an identification of some of the trends in the United States which have further complicated the field.

Chapter 3

THE CURRENT STATUS OF SOCIAL STUDIES EDUCATION IN THE AMERICAN SCHOOLS

Societal Trends

Curriculum workers must have a clear conception of what constitutes a valid design for a curriculum for students. Yet, such concepts must recognize the power of societal trends which demand recognition in the social studies curriculum. This section presents some developments that influence the American secondary social studies curriculum today.

The accountability movement. The accountability movement in public education first became visible in 1970 when American President Nixon announced, "School administrators and school teachers are responsible for their performance, and it is in their interest as well as in the interests of their pupils that they be held accountable."¹ The President was probably influenced by Lessinger, the Assistant Commissioner of Education, who openly stated his intention to make public education accountable.

The doctrine of accountability was generated out of theory espoused by Lessinger and others. The theory is that Americans are becoming increasingly fed up with public education: it is too costly, too nebulous, many children have been failed, and nobody is accountable.²

"Input" and "output" have been part of the language of the accountability movement. Increasingly, educators are being held accountable for a certain amount of output. Therefore, the movement is compelling educators to take a renewed interest in measuring learning. Behavioral objectives become an integral component of most accountability programs. The concept of accountability centers around stating instructional outcomes in observable and measurable terms and then measuring pupils performance after instructional intervention.

Back-to-basics movement. Back-to-basics is another movement that began in the early 1970's and has grown rapidly in the United States. There are at least 5,000 fundamental schools throughout the nation, and their numbers are still growing.³

This type of school was initiated by parents and citizens who were alarmed over low scores of students on standardized tests, the devaluation of the high school diploma, and what they claimed to be an overly permissive atmosphere in regular public schools. Some schools were established as a reaction to the growing racial integration of the public school.

Fundamental schools stress the fundamentals or basics, strict discipline, competition, letter grade, standardized testing, ability grouping, homework, and dress codes.⁴ Such schools also place emphasis upon moral standards, courtesy, respect for adults, and patriotism. Other characteristics often include teaching logical reasoning, one's history, heritage, and government structure.

The true "basics" of social studies are the skills required to master them. Skills such as chart interpretation, map usage, use of reference materials, and problem solving are commonly measured on standardized tests and are equally important in any curriculum structure.⁵

The concept of "back-to-basics" is associated with competency-based education. A study by the Education Commission of the United States revealed that at the close of 1976, seven states had enacted legislation in this area and another nine had taken state board action or state department of education action to mandate some form of minimal competency activity.⁶ A related movement is what is referred to as "early out" testing, and this plan has been promulgated in California.⁷

The middle school movement. A strong movement has been underway during the last decades to replace the junior high school with the middle school. This school combines into one organization and facility certain school years, usually including grades 5-8 or 6-8. The middle school concept has caught on widely with some 5,000 schools now using this organization in the United States today.⁸ These new schools were conceived in part as bridges from the childhood level served by the elementary school to the adolescent level served by the high school.

According to Swaim, the middle schools are characterized by greater emphases upon exploration, skill development, individualization, activity orientation, and advisement.⁹ Thus, social

studies teachers in these seconds give special attention to problem-solving strategies, self-direction, and values system.¹⁰ The critical issue in the middle school is to teach students the reciprocal elements of rights and responsibilities so that pre-teens have a complete basis for making judgments and acting upon them.

Career education movement. Since the early 1970's, starting with the personal commitment and driving force of the Commissioner of the U. S. Office of Education, Marland, Jr., special attention has been drawn to the career education movement.

Career development is self-development over the life span through education, work, and leisure. It is a way of describing and understanding total human development.¹¹ As Moore suggests, "Career development can become the lens through which educators view and understand students. Career development concepts can become the organizer for the total curriculum."¹²

The impact of career education movement on school curriculum may be found in the following features:

- 1) Career education is a continuous development process which includes all age groups and grade levels. It commences in early childhood and continues through life.

- 2) It combines all phases of education and it is for all students.

- 3) It is deeply concerned with the growth of individual self-awareness and self-concept, while assisting all individuals in achieving maximum potential and a satisfying life.

- 4) Career education focuses upon the decision-making process. It aids the individual in developing

skill and experience in the processes of decision-making.

5) Career education represents an effort to make school and education more relevant, challenging, and interesting.¹³

Futurism. In an American society that has undergone rapid change and what Toffler calls "future shock," curriculum development should be concerned more with the future than the past.¹⁴ The emphasis in curriculum planning and development must now be placed on forward looking programs rather than on those tied to tradition, according to those who are concerned with futurism.

As Howsam states, "By 2000, or before, 'teaching' as it is now commonly accepted will be dead, and the job of an educator will be transformed into that of a 'facilitator'... one who creates a rich, responsive environment that will elicit the most learning and change from a student."¹⁵

Future studies offers excellent opportunities for reinstilling a feeling of psychological well-being, and rekindling the belief that there is a great and good society which can meet adversity and prevail, which can correct its major faults while maintaining its basic democratic posture. Future studies can help give students a feeling of control as well as provide them with tools for gaining this control. Another major reason for future studies relates to the resolution of current problems. It will develop such skills as decision-making and problem-

solving. Finally, the future can provide an area of high interest for students. Captivating and exciting content exists.¹⁶

Fundamental necessities educators are going to have to face in redesigning curricula for the future include teaching the skills of "valuing" and "decision making," and "the fact of cultural pluralism" and "global studies."¹⁷

The impact of futurism on the social studies curriculum is particularly seen in the teaching techniques. Professional futurists use simulation as a means of searching for alternative life styles or solutions to problems and suggestions for positive uses of science and technology. For example, many students see a need to cooperate toward a world government or "Global Village" concept. Some students cite underwater dwellings or villages on the Moon as evidence of dealing with overpopulation. Others eliminate hunger by cooperative, planned farm programs throughout the world, not merely in one country.¹⁸

The concept of hidden curriculum. Giroux points out that the curriculum reform movement of the past decade has been dominated by its one-sided interest in the official curriculum. It has been ignored that schools are agents of socialization, particularly with respect to the role played by what is known as "hidden curriculum."¹⁹

The concept of "hidden curriculum" has been fashionable over the last decade. It goes by many names: unwritten, latent, tacit, and unstudied.

Gordon was one of the first to reveal the nature of an informal school system that affected what was learned-- a system with a hidden curriculum. In The Social Sysyem of the High School, he advances the idea that the individual behavior of high school students is related to their status and their roles in the school.²⁰ Further, he understands that the informal system is a subsystem within the community and the still larger complex of American society. He found that students were involved in three subsystems: 1) the formal scheme, curriculum, textbooks, classrooms; 2) a semiformal set of clubs and activities; and 3) the informal half-world groups. In his judgment, such unrecognized organizations controlled much of adolescent behavior both in school achievement and in social conduct. A major curriculum task is to analyze the context of adolescent society. Curriculum planners must keep closely in touch with out-of-school experiences of students.²¹

Jackson suggests in his book, Life in Classroom, that students learn a great deal from the cultural milieu of classroom life. Students, for example, learn to live in a crowd and live under conditions of power.²²

No one will deny the fact that education cannot be equated with schooling. Education is more pervasive; it

embraces and interpenetrates all of life. Students learn from their families, communities, television, radio, peer groups. formal and informal organizations. Curriculum developers must begin to view the school curriculum in a dynamic interdependent or ecological relationship with out-of-school curriculum.²³

Tyler, a curriculum theorist, emphasizes two vital aspects of curriculum development. He urges great recognition of the active role of the student in the learning process and a more comprehensive examination of the non-school areas of student learning. He points out that school leaders, particularly curriculum specialists, should work with community leaders to reestablish an effective educational system at the community level. On the other hand, the community should be responsibly organized to provide comprehensive educational opportunities for young people.²⁴

Rationale and Goals

A rationale for the social studies is a conception of what constitutes a good citizen and a good society. Of course, it is closely related to the values of the society. Gross asserts that the purpose of the social studies are to prepare students to be functional citizens in a democratic society and to help them make the most rational decisions possible about public as well as private issues under consideration.²⁵ To obtain these goals, the social

studies programs should provide students with the ability to understand and utilize data, concepts, generalizations, and the modes of investigation drawn from the various social sciences such as anthropology, economics, geography, history, political science, psychology, and sociology. In addition, students should be taught social studies through an inquiry approach, in order to help them participate in the societal decision-making process as well as in their individual lives.

Armstrong suggests that social studies programs should help students understand themselves in terms of their relationship to the world they live in.²⁶ Therefore, social studies programs must provide them with 1) personal education, 2) citizen education, and 3) intellectual education.²⁷

It is evident that to prepare students to be functional citizens in a democratic society is the major goal of the social studies. A good citizen should have the following qualities:

- 1) Knowledge about the past, present, and future;
- 2) Skills necessary to process information;
- 3) Development of values and beliefs; and
- 4) Some way of applying what has been learned in active social participation.²⁸

According to the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) of the United States, the basic goal of social studies education is to prepare young people to be human, rational, participating citizens in a world that is becoming increasingly interdependent.²⁹

Knowledge, abilities, valuing, and social participation are the four essential components of the social studies curriculum. The key points are expanded below:³⁰

Knowledge:

- 1) Knowledge about the real world and knowledge about the worthiness of personal and social judgments are basic objectives of social studies instruction.
- 2) A major task of social studies education is to demonstrate the power of rationally based knowledge to facilitate global rewardship and human progress.
- 3) The major sources of knowledge for social studies are the social science disciplines. However, social studies is something more than the sum of the social sciences. Ideally, various sources of knowledge, including the social sciences, the communication media, and the acceptions of students all contribute to the social studies program.
- 4) The knowledge component of the curriculum serves three particular foundations. First, it provides historical perspective. Second, knowledge helps a person perceive patterns and systems in the environment. Third is the function of knowledge as the foundation for social participation.

Abilities:

- 1) Abilities refer to intellectual, data processing, and human relations competencies.

2) Intellectual abilities include thinking competencies. These provide the prime path to acquiring knowledge. They are of paramount importance in resolving social issues.

3) Basic skills include competence to locate and compile information, to present and interpret data, and to organize and assess source material. Social studies teachers should assume special responsibility for instruction in reading materials directly related to the social studies. Higher levels of proficiency using the tools of social scientists--for example, identifying hypotheses, making warranted inferences, and reading critically should be developed and incorporated in the social studies curriculum.

4) Ability development concerns the competencies associated with social behavior. Effective interpersonal relations depend on a sensibility to the needs and interests of others. Students should be provided opportunities to work out social relationships at the face-to-face level. Students should have experience in the social arena in dealing with not only calm, rational requiry but also with controversial issues.

Valuing:

1) The school is properly one force influencing the values of the young. Social studies education neither can nor should evade questions of value.

2) Social studies education should avoid mere indoctrination. The school should provide opportunities for free examination of value elements underlying social issues and problems that affect the everyday lives of students.

3) Fair play, justice, free speech, self-respect, decision-making opportunities, the right of privacy, and denial of racism should be expected for all students and teachers in every classroom.

Social participation:

1) Social participation refers to the application of knowledge, thinking, and commitment in the social arena-- at the local, state, national, and international levels.

2) Programs ought to develop young adults who are able to identify and analyze both local and global problems and who are willing to participate actively in developing alternative and solutions for them.

3) Extensive involvement by students of all ages in the activities of their community is essential. The involvement may take the form of observation or information-seeking, such as field trips, attending meetings, and interviews. It may take the form of political campaigning, community service, improvement, or even responsible demonstrations. The school should not only provide channels for such activities, but build them into the design of its social studies program.

4) Social participation must be voluntarily chosen. Nor should social participation be undertaken without systematic, thoughtful deliberation.

The NCSS further developed the guidelines for social studies programs in 1979. These guidelines may be viewed as a set of standards for social studies curriculum. Instructional objectives should be established on the basis of these guidelines. The following are the key points of the guidelines:

1) The social studies program should be directly related to the age, maturity, and concerns of students.

2) The social studies program should deal with the real social world.

3) The social studies program should draw from currently valid knowledge representative of human experience, culture, and beliefs.

4) Objectives should be thoughtfully selected and clearly stated in such form as to furnish direction to the program.

5) Learning activities should encourage the student directly and actively in the learning process.

6) Strategies of instructional and learning activities should rely on a broad range of learning resources.

7) The social studies program must facilitate the organization of experience.

8) Evaluation should be useful, systematic, comprehensive, and valid for the objectives of the programs.

9) Social studies education should receive vigorous support as a vital and responsible part of the social studies programs.³¹

It is unlikely that any single statement can give direction to the social studies education in American schools. There is simply too much diversity of thinking among the country's social studies education and among

the goals adopted by the thousands of local school districts. Yet, the statement of the National Council for the Social Studies is the most definitive and useful of all the efforts to provide direction for social studies educators. It comes as close as possible to achieving consensus among that group, and it reflects a sensibility to the societal trends discernible in American society . It is the best guide currently available anywhere.

Curriculum Organization and Content

The actual classroom is, of course, the place where "curriculum" is applied. The impact of the curriculum is felt when a teacher and students enter a classroom and confront the challenges stated or implied by curriculum theorists and social studies educators.

This section of Chapter 3 is focused on the classroom--the courses offered in them, the materials used in instruction, the instructional practices employed, the evaluation approaches used, and the attitudes of teachers and students in them.

Social studies courses offered at the secondary school level vary throughout the United States. A study by Weiss indicates that U. S. History is clearly the most pervasive course. Less pervasive, but still widespread courses are 12th-grade American Government and 10th-grade World History. The following are the dominant social studies courses provided in the secondary school:³²

Grade 7-- World Geography or History

Grade 8-- American History

Grade 9-- Civics or World Cultures

Grade 10-- World History

Grade 11-- American History

Grade 12-- American Government

Daniels conducted a survey in an attempt to find out what social studies courses were provided in Missouri high schools. The survey indicated that one-half of Missouri high schools had reduced their social studies graduation requirements within the past few years. The number of different course offerings in social studies has increased considerably with American history topics, world history topics, anthropology, sociology, geography, and psychology registering the greatest gains. The courses reported as declining in offerings were civics, family relations, contemporary issues, and economics. The predominant patterns of social studies courses in Missouri secondary schools were World History in grade seven and two years of American History in grades eight and nine.³³

Patterns of curriculum organization may be classified into the following three types:

1) Interdisciplinary approaches are usually found in courses in secondary schools that deal with contemporary problems such as urbanization, international relations, or other topics that require the use of material drawn from several disciplines.

2) The separate-subject approaches are predominant in high schools in such courses as United States History, World History, Economics, and American Government.

3) In between the interdisciplinary and separate-subject approaches are multidisciplinary approaches that bring the perspectives of different disciplines to

bear on topics and problems in such units as the New England States, Changing Japan, Latin America, and the Middle East. In multidisciplinary approaches, the geographic, historical, economic, political, and social-cultural features of the area under study are considered and relationship among them highlighted.

In well-designed social studies programs, four strands provide for cumulative and spiral learning: 1) The conceptual strand includes the concepts and main ideas used to structure units. 2) The thinking processes include classifying, generalizing, and other processes. 3) The skill strand includes reading skills, map and globe skills and chronological skills, and other skills needed to gather and organize data from a variety of media. 4) The values strand includes the values and valuing processes needed to deal with value-laden topics and issues.³⁴

Alternatives to the "traditional pattern" have been proposed during the last decade. A number of secondary schools have offered mini-courses in their social studies programs. The advent of the mini-courses has resulted in a significant organizational change for the social studies. In 1975-76 school year, about one-third of Kansas public schools developed social studies mini-course programs in one or more subject areas.³⁵ Mini-course programs are most prevalent in American History, Government, Sociology, Psychology, and Non-American History. According to a study by Guenther and others, mini-course programs can:

- 1) provide more options, greater flexibility, and more varied experiences for students;

- 2) provide for better utilization of staff strengths and interest;
- 3) make it easier for students to work in their areas of interest and need--thus, helping to individualize instruction;
- 4) revitalize students interest in certain subject areas, particularly the language arts and social studies;
- 5) make it possible to offer more contemporary courses in various areas and to add depth and comprehensiveness to the curriculum; and
- 6) aid the failing student and lessen student-teacher conflicts.³⁶

An increasing trend is that core curriculum has the greatest popularity in middle/junior high schools. The core curriculum is employed as a pattern to allow students to make a smoother transition from the self-contained atmosphere of the elementary school to the departmentalized secondary school.³⁷ Its unique feature is the emphasis placed upon organization around life's problems. The design around "life" problems allows for the interdisciplinary approaches to planning and teaching.

Another salient trend is the intrusion of social sciences into the social studies curriculum. Many secondary schools offer such courses as sociology, economics, anthropology, psychology, social psychology, comparative political systems, and others. In addition, population education receives much attention today. It is taught through various courses. For example, in geography in grade seven, the topic is "The Oceans, The Air, and Space," while the population topic is "Ecological Consider-

ations." The American History topic in grade 8 is "Civil War," then the population topic is "The Changing Regional Balance of Population." The Civics topic in grade 9 is "State Government," then the population topic is "Family Planning/Population Policies of State Government."³⁸

Instructional Practices

Curriculum materials used in the secondary school may be grouped into two types: teaching materials and audio-visual aids. The major materials and aids are as follows:

Teaching Materials	Audio-Visual Aids
Textbooks	Films
Primary source materials	Filmstrips
Secondary sources	Slides
Newspapers	Video-tapes
Pamphlets	Audio-tapes
Popular magazines	Transparencies
Academic journals	Still pictures
References	Charts, tables, diagrams
Dictionaries	Posters
Programmed materials	Cartoons
Learning packages	Graphs, maps globes
Study guides	Cards
Other sources	Other aids

Among the curriculum materials, the textbook is viewed as the most important teaching tool. Most teachers rely on the textbook for their courses of study. The textbook is to the teacher what the Bible is to the preacher. Yet, some teachers use only bits and parts of the

textbook as the materials fit in with their personally developed courses.³⁹

A 1970 publication of the Educational Products Information Exchange Institute reported that "many educators and producers of instructional materials agree that the learning process can be improved by reducing the almost total dependence on traditional textbooks that now exist."⁴⁰ Yet, the textbook remains the basic instructional tool. However, the organizational structures of more and more texts emphasize conceptual learning, not fact accumulation, and they increasingly integrate social science disciplines in an interdisciplinary way. Many new texts are considering differential learning abilities of students. It is easy today to find textbooks containing exercises emphasizing higher level inquiry skills rather than lower level knowledge questions. Textbook programs often appear in several formats and have accompanying media to encourage versatility.⁴¹

The market conditions for instructional materials related to secondary social studies courses and topics tell us what most schools teach and what they use in their social studies programs. A survey by Schneider and Van Sickle indicates the following trends in the textbooks:

- 1) The "standard" hardback text dominates the market and demand is growing. All other forms of instructional materials are considerably less important.

- 2) The market for social studies instructional materials is in tune with the back-to-basics movement.

- 3) There is a less pronounced demand for broadening and humanizing the social studies.

- 4) Emphasis on decision-making in one's everyday economic affairs is viewed widespread publicity.⁴²

Social studies textbooks are generally characterized by the following features:

- 1) Most textbooks are compiled and published by the different book companies.
- 2) Most textbooks for the junior high schools are organized through interdisciplinary approaches.
- 3) Reading ability is stressed.
- 4) Pictures, charts, and graphs are commonly used in the textbooks.
- 5) Strong attention is given to developing major ideas and various important skills.

The development of learning packages is one of the most promising breakthroughs in curriculum materials. The learning packages can be used in conjunction with learning laboratories, lectures, discussion groups, and other forms of instruction, including independent study.⁴³ They are largely teacher-made, often with teams of teachers sharing in their construction. Some commercial packages are available and some package exchange arrangements are possible.

Within the last decade, some trends have developed that are helping to change the very nature of the production and the use of various instructional media. One has been the blending of artistry and pedagogy. Nowhere has this trend been more exemplified than in motion picture films. Another trend has been the move to identify and describe the components of so-called "visual literacy." In the United States, literacy still means basically the ability to communicate through the written or spoken word.⁴⁴

The computer is being widely used as an instructional medium. The most commonly used are Computer Assisted Instruction (CAI) such as Programmed Logic for Automatic Teaching Operation (PLATO), Time-Shared Interactive Computer Controlled Information Television (TICCIT), and Computer Managed Instruction (CMI).⁴⁵

Classroom Practices

A current study by Weiss indicates that the most extensively used instructional practices in social studies are lecture and discussion. More secondary teachers lecture more frequently than do elementary teachers. Other teaching techniques include student reports, library work, role plays, simulations, and even the use of "hands-on" materials.⁴⁶

In Malcolm Price Laboratory School, University of Northern Iowa, students are encouraged to express their knowledge and ideas through class recitations, discussions, panels, individual reports, and simulation activities. Student writing consists of outlines, essays, study guides, maps, and graphs as well as sketches, murals, cartoons and posters.⁴⁷

In Cedar Falls High School, Iowa, students are often given assignments. Such assignments consist of textbook-centered class activities, use of the Social Studies Resource Center with provided outside reading, class discussion, small group projects, role playing, simulation games, audio-visual materials, written papers, testing devices and, at the discretion of the instructor, independent projects.

Generally speaking, individualized instruction is stressed by most teachers. Independent study projects make it possible for students to select and pursue areas free of most class restraints. This may be done either during school time or on the student's time. However, independent study must not be the same as those tasks that have been typically assigned as homework.

The most frequently reported innovative pattern of organization for instruction is team teaching. Team teaching may occur in disciplinary and interdisciplinary patterns. The interdisciplinary team is a combination of teachers from different subject areas who plan and conduct instruction for particular groups of students. This pattern promotes communication, coordination, and cooperation among subject matter specialists. Students, therefore, benefit from instruction planned by specialists, and escape the fragmentation which characterizes many departmentalized plans.⁴⁸ The team teaching development appears to have reached its peak during the last several years and is now in a state of direction.

Recent research reveals that the most effective method in social studies education is the inquiry approach.⁴⁹ Inquiry imparts both a scientific skills and phenomenologic attitude to the learner. It has been described as "social sciencing" and, in a more general vein, as "critical thinking."⁵⁰ The inquiry approach, according to Beyer, is composed of the following steps:

- 1) Statement of the problem;
- 2) Construction of tentative answer or hypothesis;
- 3) Testing the hypothesis against relevant data;
- 4) Reaching a conclusion concerning the accuracy of the hypothesis; and
- 5) Generalization of the conclusion.⁵¹

Another popular method used in the social studies is the case study. This method is as old as Socrates, and yet as new as the need to provide effective basic instruction to today's student. It is the creation of a problem situation which raises issues in enough detail for learners to suggest possible solutions. The case method is widely use in analyzing court cases. Maximum benefit may be obtained from briefing the cases. The parts of a brief may include: 1) the title of the case, 2) background and facts, 3) the issues or central questions, 4) decision of the court, 5) majority opinions or reasons for the decision, 6) dissenting or concurring opinions, and 7) comments.⁵²

During the past decade there has been a marked increase in the use of simulation games in the social studies curriculum. Most educators suggest that simulation should be integrated with other modes of instruction and within a total teaching unit. Typical suggestions recommend that a simulation be used at or near the beginning, middle or end of an instructional unit. Most recommend that a game be used in a variety of ways.⁵³

Grouping has been used in the United States for more than 80 years. It is widely controversial and accepted practice in education. Yet, evidence of its effectiveness has never been conclusive.⁵⁴ Small group instruction may be the most promising grouping type. There is ample research to indicate that most people learn most effectively when they are actively involved in their own learning. Small group instruction can offer this active involvement and give many students a chance to become actively involved in a secure set-

ting. It also helps them develop both group member, recorder, and leader skills. Working in small groups helps develop the ability to listen to what others are saying.⁵⁵ Small group instruction may be classified into five modes: brainstorming group, didactic group, discussion group, inquiry group, and task group.⁵⁶ Teachers may choose an appropriate mode on the basis of needs.

Evaluation Procedures

Assessment of student progress toward desired objective is essential if teachers are to help students learn. Subject matter, learning activities, and teaching strategies are of no use if teachers have no systematic idea of student progress. Thus, effective evaluation approaches are sought constantly.

Social studies is closely related to the development of student attitude, beliefs, values system, skills, and critical thinking. Assessment of student progress needs to occur before, during, and after instruction.⁵⁷ One of the major functions of evaluation programs is diagnostic. This technique can be oral or written, used with an entire class or individuals. An effective way is to have the class ask questions concerning a specific topic. Diagnostic evaluation helps teachers to judge their students' level of understanding and identifying misconceptions they possess which need correcting.⁵⁸

Formative evaluation is conducted during a unit of instruction, but with a different purpose. It is to help teachers determine how well students are progressing toward desired objectives, and provide teachers and students with specific feedback on their degree of mastery of concern skills or knowledge studied up to this point.

At the end of a unit of instruction, teachers should conduct summative evaluation to determine how well and how much students have learned and to what extent desired objectives have been obtained. Such assessment, be it diagnostic, formative, or summative, can be done in a variety of ways, using different devices.

Objective tests and essay tests are the most commonly used methods. There is no clear-cut rule for using either objective or essay tests. It is helpful to be aware of the major characteristics of each type so we can decide which is the more suitable for different purposes. Generally speaking, essay tests are suitable for students to organize, analyze, and generalize the concepts and express their ideas, while objective tests consist of many rather specific questions requiring only brief answers and are easy to score. The most common forms of objective test items are true-false, completion, matching, and multiple choice.

Ellis points out that social studies teachers should make full use of various informal measures for reporting on student progress to parents and other interested persons. He suggests that some strategies should be used in the classroom.⁵⁹ They are:

Artifacts. In a course of problem-solving activities, students will draw pictures and maps, make graphs, charts, diagrams, models, and displays. They will write or dictate letters and statements of recommendation. When student work is collected, analyzed, and displayed, the teacher can make evaluations and diagnoses.

Interviews. Interviews give the teacher and an individual student something specific to talk about. Some students rarely get

an opportunity to talk personally with their teacher. An interview provides a teacher with formative, diagnostic information as well as summative information.

Observations. Direct teacher observation of student behavior in social studies courses is a valuable way to determine to what extent students are using certain skills to solve their problems.

"I learned statements." Occasionally it is beneficial to ask students what they think they are learning. Their responses can be quite revealing. "I learned statements" can be given orally and recorded on the board or, in the case of older students, they can be written. The strength of the "I learned statements" is that it represents a pupil-initiated response and does not ask learners to give the "right" answers. For example, "I learned how to vote and count votes."

Checklists. Checklists enable the teacher to identify basic skills and the extent of their use by students. By keeping a weekly class checklist during work on a unit, a teacher is able to diagnose both individual progress in the various skills and total group progress for each skill.

Flow of discussion charts. A flow of discussion chart is an extremely useful technique for small group discussion that last perhaps five to ten minutes. The chart indicates the number of people who have participated and also the flow of conversation. In ad-

dition, it can indicate to some extent whether the discussion is dominated by one person or if it is a cooperative sharing of ideas. The technique can be used to examine human relation skills of students.

Self-awareness exercise. Attitudes, feelings, and sensitivities can be measured through self-awareness exercise. The self-awareness exercise can be a useful vehicle for establishing communication and trust between teacher and student. Because it does deal with highly personal feeling of students, the teacher should use it with discretion and make sure that it is not put to improper use.

An effective evaluation program depends upon the use of different ways. Fraenkel suggests a series of basic steps that teachers can follow to increase their effectiveness in evaluation:

- 1) Clarifying instructional objectives;
- 2) Gathering data on learners that may hinder or help attainment of objectives;
- 3) Establishing evaluative criteria;
- 4) Selecting or developing appropriate devices for getting evidence of changes in students;
- 5) Translating evaluation findings into improvement of curriculum and instruction.⁶⁰

Regarding evaluation systems, an option which has been used by some teachers is the grade contract. In its most common form, the instructor specifies a relatively small number of assignments which are required of all students, with each higher level grade requiring one or more additional tasks. Generally, the student signs a contract at the start of the course for an A, B, or C. The grade contract is based on a criterion-referenced grading system. The following are some advantages of the system:

- 1) The responsibility for grades is the student's.
- 2) The grade contract provides for individualized instruction.

- 3) The teacher must determine what are basic objectives for a course and what are supplemental or enriching objectives.
- 4) The student is competing with himself/herself--not his/her peers.
- 5) The subjunctive elements of grading are minimized.
- 6) Student anxiety concerning grades is minimized.⁶¹

Recently, some middle school educators have taken steps to design a method of reporting to provide a more realistic summary of student progress. A trend is to use a multiple method of reporting, which includes not only an achievement indicator, but also an indicator of effort, positive work habits, negative work habits, and appropriate comments.⁶²

Teacher and Student Characteristics and Attitudes

In 1981 Ochoa made a survey of 403 social studies teachers randomly selected from six states including Kansas, Mississippi, New Mexico, Washington, Wisconsin, and Vermont. The survey contained four major parts: 1) demographic information and interests; 2) political participation; 3) controversial issues; 4) the profession on the profession. The major findings are given below:

- 1) 75% are moderately or very religious;
- 2) 80% have traveled outside the United States at least once;
- 3) An overwhelming majority of social studies teachers are white, and a substantial majority is male;
- 4) More men than women enter teaching, and men are more likely than women to leave teaching;
- 5) 52% of social studies teachers list the Bachelor's as their highest earned degree. Over 45% of social studies teachers have an M. A. or M. S. degree. Just over 1% of social studies teachers have a doctorate;
- 6) They participate in political activities at a considerably higher rate than does the general public;
- 7) They both enjoy teaching and take pride in it; yet one-third would consider leaving the profession;
- 8) Enjoyment tends to come from interacting with and teaching young people;
- 9) Their political and educational views are generally similar to those of the general public;

10) Most teachers surveyed do not belong to professional organization other than the NEA or AFT. They are not active in the professional social studies organizations;

11) A slight majority of the respondents support the use of state-wide competency exams in social studies as a criterion for high school graduation;

12) Slightly over half of these social studies teachers believe that teachers should be required to demonstrate their competency through examinations and/or continued in-service training;

13) An overwhelming majority of social studies teachers responding believe that schools should be allowed to provide sex education opportunities in the curriculum;

14) Social studies teachers possess a strong commitment to teaching traditional American values, to U. S. military preparedness and economic needs, and to balanced discussion of controversial issues in the classroom;

15) One half of the social studies teachers who responded in the survey do not believe that increased public involvement in the textbook-selection process should be encouraged.⁶³

With regard to student attitudes toward the social studies courses, some findings are revealed among the various surveys. Penkuche found that today's students are primarily interested in current social and political affairs, especially those affairs to which they feel some personal connection. Because a large majority of students are so "now" oriented, it becomes a difficult task for a teacher to have them jump back into history to the course of study's starting point without having them lose interest.⁶⁴

According to Kane, there is little difference in attitudes of students, white or black, in their desire to learn. When all outside influences are put aside and when society is then composed of teacher and student, color makes little difference.⁶⁵

Ferandez examined various questions in order to better understand the differences that students perceive among three academic subjects--social studies, math, and English--with a specific interest in and focus on social studies. He found that high school students

considered social studies courses less important than math and English for their occupational futures. Grades in social studies received greater relative importance compared with learning, since grades affect entry into future schooling and occupation.⁶⁶

In 1976 Collie conducted a survey of the attitudes of students enrolled in secondary religion studies courses. The survey indicates student interest and positive value attached to the experience of studying about religion in school.⁶⁷

Sanstead investigated the attitudes of North Dakota high school seniors to determine student-perceived political efficiency, knowledge of political process and system, and extent of satisfaction with civics and government instruction and curricula in their schools. He found that the high school seniors surveyed in the study generally expressed dissatisfaction with course curriculum and methodology of civics and government instruction. Strong correlations were also discovered between parental background characteristics and student sense of political efficacy.⁶⁸

Such student attitudes, diverse as they are, nevertheless, lend support to Morrissett's summary of the problems which will continue to face social studies educators into the present decade:

- 1) Too many students fail to learn important social studies knowledge, skills, and attitudes and do not like or value social studies.
- 2) Instruction in social studies is generally characterized by lack of variety in teaching methods and evaluation practices, limited kinds of learning experiences, and inattention to the implications of educational research.
- 3) The present social studies curriculum does not contribute as much as it could to learning that is useful for helping students understand and participate more effectively in the current and future social world.

4) The social studies profession is characterized by a lack of constructive interaction among the various participations, by limited opportunities for personal growth for teachers, and by confusion about the role of social studies in the education of young people.

5) The culture and organization of the school focus much on the energy of teachers and administrators on matters of management and control rather than on teaching and learning.

6) The public does not fully understand or appreciate the importance of social studies.⁶⁹

In Chapter 4 some of the emphases which in the author's judgment appear to hold potential as responses to those problems are discussed.

Chapter 4

PROMISING EMPHASES

An overview of related literature and an analysis of the current status of secondary social studies curriculum indicate that some trends dominate the social studies in the contemporary American secondary school curriculum. As stated earlier in this paper, however, often trends do not last very long.

The task which confronts the author is to select those emphases which appear meritorious and significant for the future. In this section, those emphases in the social studies which appear to hold promise for social studies education in Taiwan, Republic of China, will be identified and discussed.

More Concern for Citizen Participation in Public Life

Most social studies theorists believe that "social orientation" is a hallmark of the social studies curriculum.¹ Social studies is viewed as part of general education and is specifically concerned with the preparation of citizens for participation in a democratic society.

The National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) suggests that citizen participation in public life is essential to the health of the American democratic system. Social studies programs are to help prepare young people who can identify, understand, and work to solve the problems that face the increasingly diverse nation and

interdependent world.² As a civic participant, the individual must use appropriate knowledge, beliefs, and skills, and put them into action.

Some educators have been arguing that preparation of students for participation in civic affairs through exclusively classroom experiences is insufficient. What is needed are cross-disciplinary and social studies programs that provide students with actual participation experience in school and community affairs. They maintain that essential participation skills can be effectively learned only through direct student involvement.³ The social studies classroom must, of course, function as a micro-society within which values, experiences, and relationships that permeate school life can be discussed.⁴

Youth participation may take many forms. Among them are community studies, volunteer community service, internships in adult settings, participation in political campaigns, work with legislators or other political officials, and participation in special groups to influence school and community policies, norms and methods of operation.⁵

Focus on Social Roles

A harmonious society is composed of people who successfully play different roles. One cannot be isolated from the other. One must know oneself and understand others. One must know the relationships between oneself and others. An effective school program should provide the avenue by which an individual can become the most effective person possible.

The development of awareness is a central concept in the social studies program. It is necessary for students to develop self-

awareness in order to realize that they are important components of a society. It has been recognized that students should learn to assume responsibility. Social studies programs should provide many opportunities for young students to plan, assume responsibility, and work together. Particularly, social studies teachers should help students recognize the roles they will play in a social world. Morrisett suggests that the social studies curriculum should be focused on the major roles through which most young people and adults participate in the social world--citizen, worker, consumer, family member, friend, member of social groups, and self.⁶

According to Morrisett, at the junior high school level, major changes should occur in the seventh and ninth grades. The seventh-grade course should focus on the more personal roles--self, family member, friend, member of social groups. The ninth-grade course should stress primarily the social roles of citizen, consumer, and worker. In the eighth grade, history should be changed from a chronological survey of political and military events to a topical treatment of the social roles.⁷

Increasing Need for Humanized Social Studies Education

Jarolimek has noted that the great challenge facing social studies and, indeed, all of education in the years ahead is to teach young human beings how to live with each other peacefully, compassionately, and, above all, charitably.⁸

To achieve this lofty goal, social studies should emphasize and amplify the dignity, worth and uniqueness of each individual learner. The social studies curriculum is greatly concerned with

helping children and youth clarify their values system, attitudes, and beliefs. This value education is closely tied to the need to personalize programs and make them more human-centered.⁹ Martorella suggests that social studies programs involve an interplay of head (cognitive), the hand (psychomotor), and the heart (affective).¹⁰ However, as a result of competency-based education, some teachers ignore affective education. An increasing use of alcohol and drugs, more pregnancies and suicides, and the effects of a growing number of "one parent" families exist in the United States. The need for affective education at the secondary level cannot be denied.

A recent national study conducted by the Kettering Foundation provided some startling statistics for the curriculum developer to consider: "According to the U. S. Census Bureau, the rising divorce rate means 48 percent of school children during the next decade will come from one parent homes."¹¹ This study also shows that children from these one parent homes represent more discipline problems, a higher drop out, more expulsion, and a higher incidence of children classified as juvenile offenders. Contemporary life issues, concerns, and problems have awakened people to notice the need for a more humanized social studies education.

Interdisciplinary, Multidisciplinary, and Ecological Approaches to Curriculum Organization

Previously, the emphasis was placed on discipline, or separate subject matter lines. That is, the whole is studied from its parts. Students view their disciplines as separate bodies of knowledge. Most high school students are not satisfied with such courses

as history and sociology. They are more likely to be interested in current issues. The better social studies curriculum, then, will be more likely based on synthesizing the parts into a whole. The most promising trend is an interdisciplinary or multidisciplinary approach to reorganizing social studies curriculum, with an emphasis on comprehensive interaction, community involvement, and civic action.

Goodlad submits a similar approach and he calls it "an ecological model." He suggests that such a model is concerned primarily with interaction, relationships, and interdependencies with a defined domain or environment.¹²

Nowadays, it is quite evident that there is more intrusion of social sciences into the social studies. In addition, such problems as energy and air pollution have been discussed in the social studies courses. The potential unity of science and social studies should be central to environmental studies of the secondary schools. For example, historical studies of the industrial revolution and the resulting social, economic and physical changes in man's environment can readily be related to scientific studies of biotic changes which are brought about by physical changes linked to industrialization. Such interdisciplinary application to the problems of environment can expand the understanding of both science and social science without reducing the strength of either.¹³

Greater Attention to Futures Studies

As a result of rapid social change, futures studies have gained advocates at the secondary level. There is an increasing trend for

schools to give greater attention to programs in futures studies. Since learning takes place in a social context, learners will need to develop certain futuristic-oriented techniques of analysis. They should be taught how to deal with futures, to make decisions, and to solve their problems.

In curriculum organization and content, the elements of futures should be infused into the social studies programs. Social studies teachers can introduce the futures perspective through traditional courses such as World History, U. S. History, Government, Economics, and Geography. Franks suggests that this could be accomplished by:

- 1) identifying futures concepts which can be followed through the course;
- 2) introducing a futures unit during a course;
- 3) selecting learning experiences in such a way that students use community resources to learn about and become involved in futures planning;
- 4) focusing on varying approaches to futures issues; and
- 5) providing opportunities for students to apply basic skills when studying a future topic.¹⁴

Witters recommends that forecasting tools or techniques of professional futurists should be used in secondary classroom. These tools are the Delphi method, scenario writing, and simulation.¹⁵

The Delphi technique is a methodology for organizing and sharing forecasts about the future by experts.¹⁶ It usually involves a questionnaire, mailed to respondents who first identify statements of events and then second, make a prediction as to when these events might happen in the future. After the data are collated, the correspondents are given a third chance to revise their original estimates to correspond to what others have suggested, or justify their ori-

ginal positions. There are other variations where respondents can rate the desirability of events and can speculate about the impact of the events.¹⁷

Scenarios are plans. Scenario writing skills are developed by learners when they are given the opportunities to be creative and imaginative, preparing papers describing one or several possibilities. However a future proposal must be based on a logical explanation supporting the plausibility of the forecast.¹⁸

Simulations and games increase learner cooperation and discussion about the future. Some common feature of simulations and games are: 1) emphasis upon future planning and change; 2) audio-visual orientation; 3) divergent thinking and other problem solving process; 4) value conflict situations; and 5) student-centered activities.¹⁹

A Balance between Content and Skills in the Social Studies

During the past twenty years, educators have developed many social studies programs. Many new social sciences are infused into secondary social studies courses, such as economics, sociology, political science, psychology, anthropology, and other humanities. On the other hand, new thinking has opened exciting new directions in the social studies--simulations, games, inquiry, and valuing. Being held accountable for student outcomes and facing competency testing, social studies teachers have to do more. They always keep busy with selecting, evaluating, and adapting the social studies courses. Most teachers have become eclectics. No one method has been found clearly superior.²⁰

There is a growing need for a balanced approach to organizing the content and skills crucial for the social studies. A common concern about the status of the social studies in the United States is the general lack of a coherent, systematic curriculum.²¹ Therefore, the tasks of developing a balance between content and skills in the social studies should be given high priority. Ferro points out that the balance between desired instruction in skills and content is not easy to put together. However, it is time now to organize for a more balanced curriculum.²²

More Emphasis upon Instructional Materials

Since the textbook is an indispensable teaching tool, it becomes quite apparent that the quality and suitability of a textbook given to a student for classroom use can play an important role in his learning. Accordingly, there is growing trend to create instructional materials to maximize the effectiveness of textbooks. If we want our students to learn better, and if we want them to think independently and critically, we must, first of all, design the instructional materials which accompany the textbook in a heuristic way.

The potential of pictures, graphs, and other forms of visual illustrations has long been recognized by social studies educators. It has been accepted that pictures can make ideas more real, bring far-away places closer, and stimulate creativity.²³ It becomes common sense that a picture is worth a thousand words.

The type of visual format utilized also has an important role to play in increasing the effectiveness of social studies texts.

Among the common visual formats found in social studies texts are: color and black-and-white photographs; copies of daguerreotypes and tintypes; full color copies of artwork representative of the period or place being studied; original artwork designed for the text; copies of graphics such as maps, charts, tables, and posters; simplified drawings of complex objects; political cartoons, etc.²⁴

Since learning is often increased when students are presented with relatively novel learning situations, it is important for the text to contain as many different visual formats as possible. That is, pictorial illustrations in the textbook need to be complex enough to attract and maintain attention. Waller found that there are seven functions of pictorial illustrations: descriptive, expressive, constructional, functional, logico-mathematical, algorithmic, and data-display.²⁵ They should be presented according to different situations and needs.

Textbooks often employ some learning aids to assist the student in learning the subject matter. Such aids include learning objective subject matter outlines, chapter summaries, review questions, vocabulary, etc. All are meant to help the student process the text more effectively and thus maximize learning. The margin in the text can serve these purposes.

Some textbooks provide references and readings at the end of a unit. This technique can be used to lead students to enrich their lessons and encourage them to study independently.

Regarding instructional materials, mass media instruction has played a vital part in the social studies programs. A study by Calkin reported that while children spent approximately 10,000 hours in the

classroom from kindergarten through the 12th grade, during the same period they watched over 15,000 hours of television.²⁶ It is evident that the American society is inundated with information and opinion through the mass media, particularly television. There is a growing need for the use of mass media in the classroom. Another trend is that an increasing number of secondary schools have begun successfully to use computers of various types. As the cost of purchasing equipment and software has decreased, more schools have increased their use of computers for both instruction and administration. How to teach students to learn through various mass media is an important task of social studies programs.

Strong Emphasis on Student-Centered Social Studies Education

Some educators consider social studies exclusively group-oriented. However, most teachers would say no, because lots of programs and activities are designed for individuals. Individualized instruction has been a central technique used in the social studies teaching.²⁷

Over the past years, several forms of individualized instruction have been developed: individually diagnoses and prescribed instructions; personalized instruction; independent study; and self-directed study.²⁸ Searles argues that individualized instruction is an idea whose time has come, both in general education and in social studies education in particular.²⁹

In order to meet the individual difference and the needs of students, most schools offer a variety of social studies courses. In Cedar Falls High School, Cedar Falls, Iowa, 13 courses are provided

for students in grades ten through twelve. It is worth noting that most of them are electives.³⁰

Mini-courses and learning packages are being widely used in most secondary schools. Students are seekers, not receivers; they are self-directed. They want to learn through various strategies in their own way at their pace.

A majority of high school students are primarily interested in current affairs. As a result, there is a growing trend that history may not be programmed in its traditional forms. Rather it will be issues-centered, relevant to the past.

Developing A Sense of Reality

Bauer points out that today's school curriculum is often geared to fragments, pieced together around some point that is current. Parent-child relationships, life in the city, futures, and energy are examples.³¹ She suggests that the primary task of social studies instruction should stress a sense of reality. To develop the sense of reality, teachers should enrich social studies. This can be achieved through student action and development of attitudes and skills necessary to positive human relations. Students need a great many case studies in the lives of real people, dead and live, American and "others," to know how to describe a new situation realistically.³²

Another effective way to develop a sense of reality is through application. When students apply some concepts or knowledge to a real situation, they experience a sense of reality.

Secondary school students must face up to the world as it is. They must recognize, as anthropologists and historians do, that every time, place, and individual is different from all others. Thus, in such courses as history, anthropology, sociology, political science, and economics, role playing techniques can be used to develop the sense of reality.

Many types of role playing are used in the classroom. These action-oriented experiences include spontaneous role playing, pantomime, structured role playing, and creative dramatics. Each has its own unique features.³³

Equal Emphases on the Informal and Formal Approaches to Evaluation and Reporting

Evaluation of students in some form is necessary. Teachers and students want to obtain some measure of their progress. Diagnostic, formative, and summative evaluation vary in their functions. Many formal tests and informal tests are used to measure students' knowledge, skills, attitudes, and valuing.

Some teachers have strong feelings about formal tests. These include essay tests and objective tests. However, such tests cannot measure accurately the affective domain. Therefore, there is an increasing demand for such unobtrusive measures as checklists, observations, and interviews. Evaluation is simply a guide. Teachers do not judge students solely on the basis of one evaluation.³⁴ The effective way is to use a variety of measures.

A current positive trend is the involvement of students in the evaluation process. Parent-teacher conferences are now includ-

ing the child. Students are being allowed to write open-ended answers to test questions and encouraged to defend their point of view.

Formats for reporting student progress seem to fall into two basic categories, coded and narrative. Most report cards use some form of code systems such as letters, numbers, or checkmarks to indicate student achievement. Narrative formats have included both written prose descriptions of student's progress and parent-teacher conference.³⁵

The frequency of reporting to parents is also breaking with past traditions. Rather than follow a six, nine, or ten week marking period, educators are recognizing that students and parents vary in their personal needs to view student growth. Thus, flexibility is now being incorporated into marking schedules. Some teachers are using a flexible reporting frequency which follows a weekly or monthly schedule. Other teachers are developing efficient tear-off notes which are given to students each time they complete a skill or unit assignment successfully.³⁶ In some cases, a telephone call can be an effective way of reporting student progress. In addition, some schools send "happy-grams" to parents when students do something especially positive. Because a happy-gram is small in cost and easy to use, teachers are encouraged to make available happy-gram forms that have space for short notes. They are mailed by the office after being written by teachers. Such a technique not only stimulates students to work harder, but also wins the support from parents.³⁷

Self-Actualization As An Indicator of the Effective Social Studies Teacher

Because of the nature of social studies, the self-actualization level of social studies teachers could be unusually important. It is the social studies teachers who have the primary responsibility for helping students to clarify their own values and to learn how to take a stand on social and political issues. The psychological health of the social studies teachers could influence the behaviors of students.

A study by Farmer indicates that degree of self-actualization is positively related to teacher success. The degree of self-actualization can be increased through therapy, sensibility training, and self-study.³⁸ If we want to upgrade the quality of social studies teachers, the best way is to help them become more self-actualizing through in-service training. As Jackson puts it, "Successful teaching stems from the teacher's desire for self-fulfillment rather than from his mastery of a collection of techniques."³⁹

Principals and supervisors are viewed as catalysts of a change. We know that staff development programs involving an interactive process between supervisors and teachers can lead to a better understanding and acceptance of individual teachers. Clinical supervision could be used effectively to nurture rapport with teachers and improve their instruction.⁴⁰

Better Programs for More Students

As the number of students seeking admission to colleges and universities swells, the institutions are forced to set up more rigid systems of selection and performance. Secondary schools must develop more challenging programs to prepare students for advanced edu-

cational opportunities. For this reason, special classes and programs are created for the gifted and talented learners. Schools are providing for flexible assignments in heterogeneously grouped classes, developing accelerated classes, and offering advanced placement courses for college-bound students in order to qualify them for college credit.⁴¹

Some secondary schools are offering a course, "Introduction to the Social Sciences." Seven major areas are explored: psychology, sociology, anthropology, geography, history, political science, and economics. In addition, there are some units that deal with vital topics not usually taught in school: logical reasoning and study skills. The course provides students a better basis for social studies.

We Chinese have an old saying, "Feed a man a fish and he will eat for the day; teach a man to fish and he will eat for a lifetime." This applies directly to the needs for students to become independent learners. Many secondary schools have provided planned programs of independent learning. Students may participate in homework and depth projects, work-about challenge projects, enrichment courses, regularly scheduled classes, informal discussion, and other activities that are consistent with the purposes of the independent study phases of instruction.⁴² In some schools, students are permitted to spend ten or twelve hours a week in independent study.

Whitmer High School, Toledo, Ohio, devised an independent study program which encourages the student to take initiative and accept appropriate responsibility. The program was conducted by a team com-

posed of six members: the Director of Independent Study, the Heads from the Science Department, the Mathematics Department, the Social Studies Department, the English Department, and the Foreign Language Department. The team members assist students in specific subject matter projects. Each member serves as a general advisor to five independent study students.⁴³

In addition to these promising emphases, the social studies curriculum is influenced considerably by certain other emergent trends in subject areas. These areas include: ethic education, cultural pluralism, law-related education, sex education, and global education. They have, more or less, been infused into the social studies curriculum.

Curriculum change is often a reaction to social change. Thus, social studies curriculum workers should be fully aware of social change. In short, when we plan curriculum, we need to take into careful consideration the philosophical, psychological, and sociological bases for the curriculum.

We must keep in mind as we move into the future such questions as these: Can we meet the goals of the social studies curriculum? Can we meet the needs and interest of students? Are there any effects of the new learning on the social development of the child, as well as on the attitudes and behaviors of teachers, parents, and community groups?

In Chapter 5 recommendations are made for the social studies programs in Taiwan, Republic of China. These recommendations are

designed, in part, to increase the likelihood that the questions above can be answered positively.

Chapter 5

CONCLUSIONS

Summary of the Study

The Ministry of Education, Taiwan, Republic of China, is undertaking the revision of the junior high school curriculum. In attempts to provide a better basis for curriculum revision and to facilitate the educational innovation in the secondary school, the author was selected to go to the United States for advanced studies in the field of secondary school curriculum. Since his admission to the University of Northern Iowa, he has studied the American secondary curriculum.

Particular attention has been given to the influences which affect curriculum and instructional practices, the goals and rationale of social studies programs, the patterns of program organization and content, the instructional materials, the practices employed by classroom teachers, the evaluation procedures used, and the characteristics and attitudes of both teachers and students.

In Chapter 2 the author discusses some of the developments which have affected social studies programs in America during the past twenty-five years.

In Chapter 3 he identifies the six influences dominating the social studies curriculum. They are: accountability, back-to-basics, middle school movement, career education, futurism, and the concept of hidden curriculum. He also recognizes that the major goals of the

American social studies are to prepare students to be functioning citizens in a democratic society and to help them make rational decisions. To obtain these goals, social studies curriculum should be composed of four components--knowledge, skills, valuing, and participation.

In curriculum organization and content, he found out that World Geography, American History, Civics, World History, and American Government are widely offered by most secondary schools. These courses tend to be organized through interdisciplinary, multidisciplinary, and ecological approaches. Core curriculum and mini-courses programs are quite prevalent in some schools.

Regarding curriculum materials, the textbook has been an important teaching tool. Learning packages and other instructional materials such as video-tapes and computers are used in an increasing number of schools.

Most teachers use a variety of teaching strategies. Individualized instruction, inquiry approach, simulations, games, role playing, case studies, and small group instruction are the most promising teaching methods and techniques.

Diagnostic, formative, and summative evaluations are conducted with different purposes. Both formal tests (such as essay tests and objective tests) and informal measures (such as observations, interviews, and checklists) are stressed by most teachers.

The majority of social studies teachers enjoy their teaching, yet one-third would consider leaving the profession. Most students are primarily interested in current social and political affairs, but some high school students considered social studies

courses less important than mathematics and English for their occupational futures.

In Chapter 4, the major promising emphases in the social studies are discussed. The author concludes that educators should view the social studies curriculum in a broader and forward-looking way. The future social studies curriculum at the secondary school level should be directed toward:

- 1) more concern for citizen participation in public life;
- 2) focus on social roles;
- 3) an increasing need for humanized social studies education;
- 4) interdisciplinary, multidisciplinary, and ecological approaches to curriculum organization;
- 5) greater attention to futures studies;
- 6) a balance between content and skills in the social studies;
- 7) more emphasis on instructional materials;
- 8) strong emphasis on student-centered social studies education;
- 9) developing a sense of reality;
- 10) equal emphases on the informal and formal approaches to evaluation and reporting;
- 11) self-actualization of the social studies teacher; and
- 12) better programs for more students.

Recommendations

The author's reason for coming to the United States was to investigate thoroughly the current status of social studies education here, the developments which have influenced the social studies cur-

riculum, and the trends which are identifiable in the social studies. The contemporary social studies literature was studied, schools and classrooms were visited, and social studies educators were interviewed.

From these sources, the author has identified those specific practices which he believes are particularly important to the improvement of social studies education in the Republic of China. They are listed below:

- 1) Social studies teachers, social education educators, social scientists, and even scientists should work together to redesign the social studies curriculum.

- 2) Social studies programs should focus on the preparation of students as effectively functioning citizens in a democratic society. Such programs should provide students knowledge, skills, valuing, and put them into action.

- 3) Social studies curriculum at the secondary school should be reorganized through interdisciplinary, multidisciplinary, and ecological approaches. Current issues such as political controversies, economic affairs, air pollution control, and traffic problems should be infused into the social studies programs.

- 4) Social studies curriculum in elementary, junior high, and senior high schools should be planned comprehensively, rather than fragmented by isolated, smaller school units. Chinese planning should be 1-12, rather than elementary, or junior high, or senior high school.

- 5) Mini-course programs should be offered in conjunction with the co-curricular activities.

6) The college-bound students, particularly those who will major in social sciences should be offered a course, "Introduction to Social Sciences," in order to lay a good foundation for college education.

7) Advanced placement courses should be offered for students in grade twelve in the senior high school. On the one hand, college-bound students may develop their potential fully and be qualified for college credits; and on the other hand, this will attract more competent instructors to teach in a senior high school.

8) To meet student needs and motivate a strong interest in the social studies curriculum, the school should provide more elective courses for students in grade nine at the junior high level and grade twelve at the senior high level.

9) Law-related education, population education, energy education, and global education should be integrated with the course, "Civics and Moral Principles," currently required in Taiwan, Republic of China.

10) Learning package and independent study programs should be offered in an attempt to eliminate cramming sessions.

11) Textbooks should be further refined. The curriculum designer should maximize the effectiveness of textbooks at minimum cost. If we want our students to learn better and to think independently, we should improve the content and pictorial illustrations. We should also employ some learning aids such as marginal notes, references, and readings, to assist them in learning the subject matter.

12) Mass media instruction has played an important part in the social studies education. Schools should provide various curricu-

lum materials such as video-tapes, televisions, and computers. At the senior high school level, computer course could be provided.

13) Teachers should use a variety of teaching strategies such as inquiry approach, simulations, games, case studies, community surveys, and problem-solving skills. Futures studies and techniques such as Delphi technique and scenario used frequently by the futurists should be taught in the classroom.

14) The best way to evaluate student progress is to use a variety of measures. Teachers should use formal and informal approaches to evaluation and reporting. Checklists, observations, interviews, and flow of discussion charts can be utilized to measure student' attitudes, beliefs, and other affective domains. Happy-grams are handy and easy to make. Teachers should be encouraged to use in reporting student progress.

15) Junior high students should take competency tests at the end of grade eight, and senior high students at the end of grade eleven. Competency test scores could be used as a guide for helping students choose their career, and as a tool for measuring their standards. Students with low scores should be given remedial instruction. This will lead to the improvement of instruction and the upgrading of student outcomes.

16) Grade contract could be used for the underachievers at the junior high school level. This will help them re-build self-confidence and reduce their frustration.

17) Social studies teachers should be offered more opportunities for advanced studies in order to promote their professional

dedication. This could be obtained through in-service education. They should be permitted to work in part toward Master Degrees or Doctorates at the university.

18) Secondary schools, professional organizations and associations, teacher education institutions, and many other universities should be encouraged and supported to conduct various surveys regarding social studies curriculum in the Republic of China, as American groups do in the United States.

LIST OF REFERENCES

Chapter 1

¹Gwoyeu Ryhbaw, (Taipei, Republic of China, December 11, 1980), p. 2.

²John D. McNeil, Curriculum: A Comprehensive Introduction, (Boston: Little, Brown & Company, 1977), p. 248.

³Sidney P. Rollins and Adolph Unruh, Introduction to Secondary Education, (Chicago: Rand McNally & Company, 1973), p. vi.

⁴Ibid., p. 5.

⁵Peter F. Oliva, Supervision for Today's Schools, (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1976), pp. 227-28.

⁶Ibid., p. 228.

⁷Ronald C. Doll, Curriculum Improvement, (4th Edition, Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc., 1978), p. 6.

⁸J. Lloyd Trump and Delmas F. Miller, Secondary School Curriculum Improvement: Meeting Challenges of the Times, (3rd Edition, Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc., 1979), p. 17.

⁹John D. Haas, "The Uses of Rationales, Goals, and Objectives in the Social Studies," The Social Studies, 72:249, November/December, 1981.

¹⁰Richard E. Gross, "Status of the Social Studies: Facts and Impressions," Social Education, 41:194-200, March, 1977.

¹¹John D. McNeil, p. 247.

¹²Philip Babcock Gove, Webster's Third New International Dictionary, (Springfield, Massachusetts: G. & C. Merriam Company, Publishers, 1971), p. 2438.

Chapter 2

¹Norris M. Sanders and Marlin L. Tank, "A Critical Appraisal of Twenty-Six National Social Studies Projects," Social Education, 34:383-88, April, 1970.

²Terry Northup, "Philosophical Analysis of the 'New' Social Studies--A Response," The Social Studies, 63:315-17, December, 1972.

³Richard E. Gross, p. 199.

⁴Douglas P. Superka, Sharry Hawke, and Irving Morrissett, "The Current and Future Status of the Social Studies," Social Education, 44:366, May, 1980.

⁵Richard E. Gross, p. 200.

⁶James Barth and Samuel Shermis, "Defining the Social Studies: An Exploration of Three Traditions," Social Education, 34:743-51, November, 1970.

⁷Ibid.

⁸Harris L. Dante, "Status of History in Modern Social Studies," NASSP Bulletin, 58:108, November, 1974.

⁹Dale Brubaker, Lawrence Simon, and Jo Watts Williams, "A Conceptual Framework for Social Studies Curriculum and Instruction," Social Education, 41:201-05, March, 1977.

¹⁰Patricia Anne Gagnon, "The Design of A 9-12 Social Studies Curriculum Based on Needs of Adolescents," Dissertation Abstracts International, 41:2051-A, November, 1980.

¹¹Allan C. Ornstein, "Curricular Innovations and Trends: Recent Past, Present, and Future," Peabody Journal of Education, 59: 46-47, October, 1981.

¹²Charlotte Ann Coppenhaver, "Teaching Reading Skills in Social Studies in Secondary Schools," Dissertation Abstracts International, 38:2032-A, October, 1977.

¹³James Edward Lawlor, "An Assessment of Selected Social Studies Skills and Variables in Six Indiana Public High Schools," Dissertation Abstracts International, 41:3980-81A, March, 1981.

¹⁴Ibid.

¹⁵Mitchell Sidney Itsko, "A Study of Selected Beliefs and Attitudes of Secondary Social Studies," Dissertation Abstracts International, 42:650-A, August, 1981.

¹⁶Michael Vincent Wallace, "A Survey of the Attitudes of Public High School Teachers Regarding Moral Education in Public High Schools," Dissertation Abstracts International, 41:2547-A, December, 1980.

¹⁷Judith Green and Cynthia Wallat, "From Theory to Practice; What Is Social Studies?" Contemporary Education, 49:85-90, Winter, 1978.

¹⁸Richard C. Remy, "High School Seniors: Attitudes Toward Their Civics and Government Instruction," Social Education, 36: 590-97, October, 1972.

Chapter 3

¹C. A. Bowers, "Accountability From A Humanist Point of View," The Educational Forum, 35:479, May, 1971.

²Girard D. Hottleman, "The Accountability Movement," The Education Digest, 39: 17, April, 1974.

³John Martin Rich, Innovations In Education: Reformers and Their Critics, (3rd Edition, Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc., 1981), p. 316.

⁴Shirley Boes Neill, "Pasadena's Approach to Classic School Debate," American Education, 12:6-10, April, 1976.

⁵R. T. Voyten, "Back to Basics and the Social Studies; Making Program Decisions," American Secondary Education, 8:4-6, January, 1978.

⁶Gordon Cawelti, "Requiring Competencies for Graduation--Some Curricular Issues," Educational Leadership, 35:86-91, November, 1977.

⁷Ibid., p. 89.

⁸William M. Alexander, Paul S. George, The Exemplary Middle School, (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1981), p. 12.

⁹John H. Swaim, "Middle School Curriculum: An Identity Crisis," Contemporary Education, 52:139-141, Spring, 1981.

¹⁰Hershel D. Thornburg, "Developmental Characteristics of Middle Schoolers and Middle School Organization," Contemporary Education, 52:134-38, Spring, 1981.

¹¹Earl J. Moore, Norman C. Gysbers, "Career Development: A New Focus," Educational Leadership, 30:257, December, 1972.

¹²Ibid., pp.257-260.

¹³Julia E. DeCarlo, "Defining Career Education," Language Arts, 57:60, January, 1980.

¹⁴Alvin Toffler, Future Shock, (New York: Random House, Inc., 1970), pp.1-6.

¹⁵Don M. Beach, "Futurism and Implications for Education," Contemporary Education, 52:230, Summer, 1981.

¹⁶Sheldon Brown, "Future Studies and the Bicentennial," The Social Studies, 67:200-203, September/October, 1976.

¹⁷Lenoard H. Clark, Raymond L. Klein, and John B. Burks, The American Secondary School Curriculum, (New York: Macmillan Company, 1972).

¹⁸Barbara G. Olmo, "Futurism in the Curriculum," American Secondary Education, 6:4-6, June, 1976.

¹⁹Henry A. Giroux, "Developing Educational Programs: Overcoming the Hidden Curriculum," The Clearing House, 52:148-151, December, 1978.

²⁰Wayne C. Gordon, The Social System of the High School, (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1957.)

²¹John D. McNeil, Curriculum: A Comprehensive Introduction, (Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1977), pp. 209-211.

²²Phillip W. Jackson, Life in Classrooms, (Chicago: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1968.)

²³William H. Schubert, "Knowledge About Out-of-School Curriculum," The Educational Forum, 45:185, January, 1981.

²⁴Ralph W. Tyler, "Two New Emphases in Curriculum Development," Educational Leadership, 34:61-71, October, 1976.

²⁵Richard E. Gross, Rosemary Messick, June R. Chapin, and Jack Sutherland, Social Studies for Our Times, (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1978), pp. 8-10.

²⁶David G. Armstrong, Social Studies in Secondary Education, (New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1980), p. 14.

²⁷Ibid., p. 15.

²⁸Robert D. Barr, James L. Barth, S. Samuel Shermis, Defining the Social Studies, (Bulletin 51, National Council for the Social Studies, 1977), pp. 68-69.

²⁹NCSS, "A Basic Rationale for Social Studies Education," Social Education, 43:262, April, 1979.

³⁰Ibid., pp. 262-66.

³¹Ibid., pp. 266-73.

³²Douglas P. Superka, Sharryl Hawke, and Irving Morrissett, "The Current and Future Status of the Social Studies," Social Education, 44:365, May, 1980.

³³Stephen Emery Daniels, "The Social Studies Curriculum in Missouri Secondary Schools," Dissertation Abstracts International, 36:6590-A, April, 1976.

³⁴John U. Michaelis, Social Studies for Children in A Democracy, (6th Edition, Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1976), p. 38.

³⁵John Guenther and Patricia Hansen, "Organizational Change in the Social Studies," Educational Leadership, 35:66, October, 1977.

³⁶John Guenther and Robert Ridgway, "Mini-Courses: One Way to Provide More Humanistic School Programs," NASSP Bulletin, 60:12-15, April, 1976.

³⁷Daniel Tanner, Secondary School Curriculum, (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1971), p. 57.

³⁸George Skeyes, "The Decline of Social Studies: Changing Perspectives in Social Studies Education in the 20th Century," The Social Studies, 66:246, November/December, 1975.

³⁹Fay Metcalf, "The Textbook As A Teaching Tool," Social Education, 44:84, February, 1980.

⁴⁰Barbara Capron, Cheryl Charles, and Stanley Kleiman, "Curriculum Reform and Social Studies Textbooks," Social Education, 37:280-87, April, 1973.

⁴¹Ibid., p. 287.

⁴²Donald Schneider, Ronald Van Sickle, "The Status of the Social Studies: The Publishers' Perspective," Social Education, 43:461-65, October, 1979.

⁴³Larry W. Hughes and Gerald C. Ubben, The Secondary Principal's Handbook: A Guide to Executive Action, (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1980), p. 146.

⁴⁴Donald O. Schneider, "Instructional Media and the Social Studies," Social Education, 40:262-63, May, 1976.

⁴⁵Tom Perry and Ed Keyser, "The Computer As An Instructional Medium," The Clearing House, 53:172-74, December, 1979.

⁴⁶Douglas P. Superka, et al., p. 367.

⁴⁷Malcolm Price Laboratory School Course Description, (Malcolm Price Laboratory School, University of Northern Iowa, 1980), p. 30.

⁴⁸Jon Wiles and Joseph Bond, The Essential Middle School, (Columbus: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1981), p. 131.

⁴⁹Barry K. Beyer, Inquiry in the Social Studies Classroom: A Strategy for Teaching, (Columbus: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1971), p. 50.

⁵⁰John D. Haas and Richard Van Scotter, "An Inquiry Model for the Social Studies," NASSP Bulletin, 59:74, March, 1975.

⁵¹Barry K. Beyer, p. 50.

⁵²Norman McCumsey, School Laws Outline, (University of Northern Iowa, 1981), p. 7.

⁵³Allen D. Glenn, "Simulations in the Instructional Sequence," The Social Studies, 68:23, January/February, 1977.

⁵⁴Leon J. Lefkowitz, "Ability Grouping: De Facto Segregation in the Classroom," The Clearing House, 46:293-97, January, 1972.

⁵⁵Jerry Hauge, "A Second Look at Small Group Instruction," The Clearing House, 53:376-78, April, 1980.

⁵⁶Ibid., p. 377.

⁵⁷Jack R. Fraenkel, Helping Students Think and Value Strategies for Teaching the Social Studies, (2nd Edition, Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1980), pp. 280-81.

⁵⁸Ibid., p. 283.

⁵⁹Arthur Ellis and Janet Alleman-Brooks, "How to Evaluate Problem-Solving-Oriented Social Studies," The Social Studies, 68:99-103, May, 1977.

⁶⁰Jack R. Fraenkel, pp. 367-71.

⁶¹Ronald Partin, "Multiple Option: Grade Contracts," The Clearing House, 53:134, November, 1979.

⁶²Robert Malika, "Trends and Issues in the Middle School," Colorado Journal of Educational Research, 20:18, Winter, 1981.

⁶³Anna S. Ochoa, et al., "A Profile of Social Studies Teachers," Social Education, 45:401-21, October, 1981.

⁶⁴Craig L. Pennkuche, "A Modest Proposal for History Teachers," The Social Studies, 62:244, November, 1971.

⁶⁵Richard D. Kane, "Students React to A White Man Teaching Black History," The Social Studies, 61:318-323, December, 1970.

⁶⁶Celestino Fernandez, Grace Carroll Massey, and Sanford M. Dornbusch, "High School Students' Perceptions of Social Studies," The Social Studies, 67:51-57, March/April, 1976.

⁶⁷William E. Collie and Madeline H. Apt, "Attitudes of Secondary School Students Toward Religion Studies Courses," Educational Leadership, 35:547-550, April, 1978.

⁶⁸Wayne Godfrey Sanatead, "A Study of the Political Attitudes of North Dakota High School Seniors," Dissertation Abstracts International, 36:814-A, August, 1975.

⁶⁹Irving Morrissett, Sharryl Hawke, and Douglas P. Superka, "Six Problems for Social Studies in the 1980's," Social Education, 44:561-69, November/December, 1980.

Chapter 4

¹Herschel D. Thornburg, "Middle Level Social Studies: Curriculum Considerations," Contemporary Education, 52:154, Spring, 1981.

²NCSS, "Statement on Essentials of the Social Studies," Social Education, 45:162-64, March, 1981.

³Donald O. Schneider, "Tradition and Change in the Social Studies Curriculum," Journal of Research and Development in Education, 13:15, 1980.

⁴W. Van Til, Curriculum: Quest for Relevance, (Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1971)

⁵F. M. Newmann, T. A. Bertocci, and R. M. Landsness, Skills in Citizen Action, (Madison, Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin, 1977).

⁶Irving Morrissett, Douglas P. Superka, and Sharryl Hawke, "Recommendations for Improving Social Studies in the 1980's," Social Education, 44:570-86, November/December, 1980.

⁷Ibid., p. 572.

⁸John Jarolimek, "In Pursuit of the Elusive New Social Studies," Educational Leadership, 30:599, April, 1973.

⁹John J. Cogan, "Social Studies: Past, Present, Future," Educational Leadership, 33:293-95, January, 1976.

¹⁰P. H. Martorella, "Social Studies Goals in the Middle Grades," Journal of Research and Development in Education, 13:47-59, 1980.

¹¹Robert Malinka, "Trends and Issues in the Middle School," Colorado Journal of Educational Research, 20:18, Winter, 1981.

¹²William E. Doll, Jr., "A Structural View of Curriculum," Theory into Practice, 18:340, 1979.

¹³Mary A. Hepburn and Ronald D. Simpson, "Can the Curriculum Save Us?" The Social Studies, 65:65-69, March/April, 1975.

¹⁴Betty Barclay Franks and Mary Kay Howard, "Infusing A Futures Perspective into Standard Social Studies Courses," Social Education, 43:24-27, January, 1979.

¹⁵Lee A. Witters, "Plausibility of Future Studies in Secondary Schools," American Secondary Education, 37:21-24, September, 1973.

¹⁶W. Timothy Weaver, "The Delphi Forecasting Method," Phi Delta Kappan, 52:267-271, January, 1971.

¹⁷Lee A Witters, p. 22.

¹⁸Ibid.

¹⁹Ibid.

²⁰Judy Ferro, "Balance Content and Skills in the Social Studies," The Social Studies, 71:118-120, May/June, 1980.

²¹Donald O. Schneider, p. 20.

²²Judy Ferro, p. 120.

²³Philip J. Brody, "Does Social Studies Texts Utilize Visual Illustrations Effectively?" Educational Technology, 20:59-61, May, 1980.

²⁴Ibid., p. 60.

²⁵Philippe Duchastel, Robert Waller, "Pictorial Illustration in Instructional Texts," Educational Technology, 19:20-25, November, 1979.

²⁶Castell G. Gentry, Margart Shallcross, "Mass Media Instruction: A Missing Link?" Educational Leadership, 29:258-260, December, 1971.

²⁷Jack R. Fraenkel, et al., "Does Individualized Instruction Have A Place in Social Studies Instruction?" Social Education, 44:318-324, April, 1980.

²⁸Ibid., p. 318.

²⁹ Ibid., p. 319.

³⁰ Cedar Falls High School, Educational Planning Handbook, (Cedar Falls High School, Iowa, January, 1980), pp. 70-74.

³¹ Nancy W. Bauer, "Enriching Reality in Social Studies Education," Theory into Practice, 20:153, Summer, 1981.

³² Ibid., p. 154.

³³ H. Wells Singleton, Joe B. Hurst and Steven J. Weiss, "Role Playing in Consumer Economic Education," The Social Studies, 68:204, September/October, 1977.

³⁴ Robert J. Krajewski & R. Baird Shuman, The Beginning Teacher: A Practical Guide to Problem Solving, (Washington, D. C.; NEA, 1979), p. 122.

³⁵ Robert I. Wise, Betty Newman, "The Responsibilities of Grading," Educational Leadership, 32:253-56, January, 1975.

³⁶ James L. Leary, "Assessing Pupil Progress: New Methods Are Emerging," Educational Leadership, 32:250-52, January, 1975.

³⁷ Leslie W. Kindred, Don Bagin, Donald R. Gallagher, The School and Community Relations, (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.:Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1976), p. 283.

³⁸ Rodney B. Farmer, "Self-Actualization and the Effective Social Studies Teacher," The Social Studies, 71:231-36, September/October, 1980.

³⁹ Vito Perrone, "An In-Service Program for Teachers: The Teacher As A Student of Teaching," Today's Education, 65:50, November/December, 1976.

⁴⁰ Robert Goldhammer, Robert H. Anderson, and Robert J. Krajewski, Clinical Supervision, (2nd Edition, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1980), p. 19.

⁴¹ E. Dale Davis, Focus on Secondary Education: An Introduction to Principles and Practices, (Glenview, Ill.:Scott, Foresman and Company, 1966), pp. 179-180.

⁴² Larry W. Hughes and Gerald C. Ubben, The Secondary Principal's Handbook: A Guide to Executive Action, (Boston:Allyn & Bacon, Inc., 1980), p. 148.

⁴³ Ted Aceto and Don Bahna, "Independent Study at Whitmer High School," American Secondary Education, 3:21-23, June, 1973.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Periodicals

- Aceto, Ted and Don Bahma. "Independent Study at Whitmer High School." American Secondary Education, 3:21-23, June, 1973.
- Barth, James and Samuel Sherris. "Defining the Social Studies: An Exploration of Three Traditions." Social Education, 34:743-51, November, 1970.
- Bauer, Nancy W. "Enriching Reality in Social Studies Education." Theory into Practice, 20:153, Summer, 1981.
- Beach, Don M. "Futurism and Implications for Education." Contemporary Education, 52:230, Summer, 1981.
- Bowers, C. A. "Accountability from A Humanist Point of View." The Educational Forum, 35:479, May, 1971.
- Brody, Philip J. "Does Social Studies Texts Utilize Visual Illustrations Effectively?" Educational Technology, 20:59-61, May, 1980.
- Brown, Sheldon. "Future Studies and Bicentennial." The Social Studies, 67:200-203, September/October, 1976.
- Brubaker, Dale, Lawrence Simon, and Jo Watts Williams. "A Conceptual Framework for Social Studies Curriculum and Instruction." Social Education, 41:201-05, March, 1977.
- Capron, Barabara, Cheryl Charles, and Stanley Kleiman. "Curriculum Reform and Social Studies Textbooks." Social Education, 37:280-87, April, 1973.
- Cawelti, Gordon. "Requiring Competencies for Graduation--Some curricular Issues." Educational Leadership, 35:86-91, November, 1977.
- Cogan, John J. "Social Studies: Past, Present, Future." Educational Leadership, 33:293-95, January, 1976.
- Collie, William E. and Madeline H. Apt. "Attitudes of Secondary School Students Toward Religion Studies Courses." Educational Leadership, 35:547-550, April, 1978.
- Copenhagen, Charlotte. "Teaching Reading Skills in Social Studies In Secondary Schools." Dissertation Abstracts International, 38:2032-A, October, 1977.

- Daniels, Stephen Emery. "The Social Studies Curriculum in Missouri Secondary Schools." Dissertation Abstracts International, 36: 6590-A, April, 1976.
- Dante, Harris L. "Status of History in Modern Social Studies." NASSP Bulletin, 58:108, November, 1974.
- DeCarlo, Julia E. "Defining Career Education." Language Arts, 57: 60, January, 1980.
- Doll, William E. Jr. "A Structural View of Curriculum." Theory into Practice, 18:340, 1979.
- Duchastel, Philippe, Robert Waller. "Pictorial Illustration in Instructional Texts." Educational Technology, 19:20-25, November, 1979.
- Ellis, Arthur and Janet Alleman-Brooks. "How to Evaluate Problem-Solving-Oriented Social Studies." The Social Studies, 68:99-103, May, 1977.
- Farmer, Rodney B. "Self-Actualization and the Effective Social Studies Teacher." The Social Studies, 71:231-36, September/October, 1980.
- Fernandez, Celestino, Grace Carroll Massey, and Sanford M. Dornbusch. "High School Students' Perceptions of Social Studies." The Social Studies, 67:51-57, March/April, 1976.
- Ferro, Judy. "Balance Content and Skills in the Social Studies." The Social Studies, 71:118-120, May/June, 1980.
- Fraenkel, Jack R. et al. "Does Individualized Instruction Have A Place in Social Studies Instruction?" Social Education, 44: 318-324, April, 1980.
- Franks, Betty Barclay and Mary Kay Howard. "Infusing A Futures Perspective into Standard Social Studies Courses." Social Education, 43:24-27, January, 1979.
- Gagnon, Patricia Anne. "The Design of A 9-12 Social Studies Curriculum Based on Needs of Adolescents." Dissertation Abstracts International, 41:2051-A, November, 1980.
- Gentry, Castell G. and Margart Shallcross. "Mass Media Instruction: A Missing Link?" Educational Leadership, 29:258-260, December, 1971.
- Giroux, Henry A. "Developing Educational Programs" Overcoming the Hidden Curriculum." The Clearing House, 52:148-151, December, 1978.

- Glenn, Allen D. "Simulations in the Instructional Sequence." The Social Studies, 68:23, January/February, 1977.
- Green, Judith and Cynthia Wallet. "From Theory to Practice: What Is Social Studies?" Contemporary Education, 49:85-90, Winter, 1978.
- Gross, Richard E. "Status of the Social Studies: Facts and Impressions." Social Education, 41:194-200, March, 1977.
- Guenther, John and Robert Ridgway. "Mini-Courses: One Way to Provide More Humanistic School Programs." NASSP Bulletin, 60:12-15, April, 1976.
- Haas, John D. "The Uses of Rationales, Goals, and Objectives in the Social Studies." The Social Studies, 72:249, November/December, 1981.
- Haas, John D. and Richard Van Scotter. "An Inquiry Model for the Social Studies." NASSP Bulletin, 59:74, March, 1975.
- Hauge, Jerry. "A Second Look at Small Group Instruction." The Clearing House, 53:376-78, April, 1980.
- Hepburn, Mary A. and Ronald D. Simpson. "Can the Curriculum Save Us?" The Social Studies, 65:65-69, March/April, 1975.
- Hottleman, Girard D. "The Accountability Movement." The Education Digest, 39:17, April, 1974.
- Itsko, Mitchell Sidney. "A Study of Selected Beliefs and Attitudes of Secondary Social Studies." Dissertation Abstracts International, 42:650-A, August, 1981.
- Jarolimek, John. "In Pursuit of the Elusive New Social Studies." Educational Leadership, 30:599, April, 1973.
- Kane, Richard D. "Students React to A White Man Teaching Black History." The Social Studies, 61:318-323, December, 1970.
- Lawlor, James Edward. "An Assessment of Selected Social Studies Skills and Variables in Six Indiana Public High Schools," Dissertation Abstracts International, 41:3980-81A, March, 1975.
- Leary, James L. "Assessing Pupil Progress : New Methods Are Emerging." Educational Leadership, 32:250-52, January, 1975.
- Lefkowitz, Leon J. "Ability Grouping: De Facto Segregation in the Classroom." The Clearing House, 46:293-97, January, 1972.

- Malinka, Robert . "Trends and Issues in the Middle School," Colorado Journal of Educational Research, 20:18, Winter, 1981.
- Martorella, P. H. "Social Studies Goals in the Middle Grades," Journal of Research and Development in Education, 13:47-59, 1980.
- Metcalf, Fay. "The Textbook As A Teaching Tool," Social Education, 44:84, February, 1980.
- Moore, Earl J. and Norman C. Gysbers. "Career Development: A New Focus." Educational Leadership, 30:257, December, 1972.
- Morrissett, Irving, Douglas P. Superka, and Sharryl Hawke, "Six Problems for Social Studies in the 1980's." Social Education, 44:561-69, November/December, 1980.
- _____. "Recommendations for Improving Social Studies in the 1980's." Social Education, 44:570-86, November/December, 1980.
- NCSS. "A Basic Rationale for Social Studies Education," Social Education, 43:262, April, 1979.
- NCSS. "Statement on Essentials of the Social Studies." Social Education, 45:162-64, March , 1981.
- Neill, Shirley Boes. "Pasadena's Approach to Classic School Debate." American Education, 12:6-10, April, 1976.
- Northup, Terry. "Philosophical Analysis of the 'New' Social Studies-- A Response." The Social Studies, 63:315-17, Decmber, 1972.
- Ochoa, Anna S. et al. "A Profile of Social Studies Teachers." Social Education, 45:401-21, October, 1981.
- Olmo, Barbara G. "Futurism in the Curriculum." American Secondary Education, 6:4-6, June, 1976.
- Ornstein, Allan C. "Curricular Innovations and Trends: Recent Past, Present, and Future." Peabody Journal of Education, 59:46-47, October, 1981.
- Partin, Ronald. "Multiple Option: Grade Contracts." The Clearing House, 53:134, November, 1979.
- Pennkuche, Craig L. "A Modest Proposal for History Teachers." The Social Studies, 62:244, November, 1971.
- Perrone, Vito. "An In-Service Program for Teachers: The Teacher As A Student of Teaching." Today's Education, 65:50, November/December, 1976.

- Perry, Tom and Ed Keyser. "The Computer As An Instructional Medium," The Clearing House, 53:172-74, December, 1979.
- Remy, Richard C. "High School Seniors' Attitudes Toward Their Civics and Government Instruction." Social Education, 36:590-97, October, 1972.
- Sanders, Norris M. and Marlin L. Tank. "A Critical Appraisal of Twenty-Six National Social Studies Projects." Social Education, 34:383-88, April, 1970.
- Sanatead, Wayne Godfrey. "A Study of the Political Attitudes of North Dakota High School Seniors." Dissertation Abstracts International, 36:814-A August, 1975.
- Schneider, Donald O. "Instructional Media and the Social Studies," Social Education, 40:262-63, May, 1976.
- _____. "Tradition and Change in the Social Studies Curriculum." Journal of Research and Development in Education, 13:15, 1980.
- _____. Ronald Van Sickle. "The Status of the Social Studies: The Publishers' Perspective." Social Education, 43:461-65, October, 1979.
- Schubert, William H. "Knowledge About Out-of-School Curriculum." The Educational Forum, 45:185, January, 1981.
- Singleton, H. Wells, Joe B. Hurst and Steven J. Weiss. "Role Playing in Consumer Economic Education." The Social Studies, 68:204, September/October, 1977.
- Skeyes, George. "The Decline of Social Studies: Changing Perspectives in Social Studies Education in the 20th Century." The Social Studies, 66:246, November/December, 1975.
- Superka, Douglas P. Sharry Hawke, and Irving Morrissett. "The Current and Future Status of the Social Studies." Social Education, 44:366, May, 1980.
- Swaim, John H. "Middle School Curriculum: An Identity Crisis." Contemporary Education, 52:139-141, Spring, 1981.
- Thornburg, Herschel D. "Middle Level Social Studies: Curriculum Considerations." Contemporary Education, 52:154, Spring, 1981.
- Tyler, Ralph W. "Two New Emphases in Curriculum Development," Educational Leadership, 34:61-71, October, 1976.
- Voyten, R., T. "Back to Basics and the Social Studies: Making Program Decisions." American Secondary Education, 8:4-6, January, 1978.

- Wallace, Michael Vincent. "A Survey of the Attitudes of Public High School Teachers Regarding Moral Education in Public High Schools." Dissertation Abstracts International, 41:2547-A, December, 1980.
- Weaver, W. Timothy. "The Delphi Forecasting Method." Phi Delta Kappan, 52:267-72, January, 1971.
- Witters, Lee A. "Pausibility of Future Studies in Secondary Schools." American Secondary Education, 37:21-24, September, 1973.

Books

- Alexander, William M. and Paul S. George. The Exemplary Middle School. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1981.
- Armstrong, David G. Social Studies in Secondary Education. New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1980.
- Barr, Robert; James L. Barth; and S. Samuel Shermis. Defining the Social Studies. Bulletin 51, National Council for the Social Studies, 1977.
- Beyer, Barry K. Inquiry in the Social Studies Classroom: A Strategies for Teaching. Columbus: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1971.
- Clark, Lenoard H.; Raymond L. Klein; and John B. Burks. The American Secondary School Curriculum. New York: Macmillan Company, 1972.
- Davis, E. Dale. Focus on Secondary Education: An Introduction to Principles and Practices. Glenview, Ill.: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1966.
- Doll, Ronald C. Curriculum Improvement. 4th Edition. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc., 1978.
- Fraenkel, Jack R. Helping Students Think and Value Strategies for Teaching the Social Studies, 2nd Edition. Englewood, Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1980.
- Goldhammer, Robert; Robert H. Anderson; and Robert J. Krajewski. Clinical Supervision. 2nd Edition. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1980.
- Gordon, Wayne C. The Social System of the High School. Glencoe, ILL.: The Free Press, 1957.
- Gross, Richard E.; Rosemary Messick; June R. Chapin; and Jack Sutherland. Social Studies for Our Times. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1978.

Hughes, Larry W. and Gerald C. Ubben. The Secondary Principal's Handbook: A Guide to Executive Action. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc., 1980.

Jackson, Phillip W. Life in Classroom. Chicago: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1968.

Kindred, Leslie; Don Bagin; Donald R. Gallagher. The School and Community Relations. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1976.

Krajewski, Robert J. and R. Baird Shuman. The Beginning Teachers: A Practical Guide to Problem Solving. Washington D. C.: National Education Association, 1979.

McNeil, John D. Curriculum: A Comprehensive Introduction. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1977.

Michaelis, John U. Social Studies for Children in A Democracy. 6th Edition. Englewood Cliffs, Ill.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1976.

Newmann, F. M.; T. A. Bertocci; and R. M. Landsness. Skills in Citizen Action. Madison, Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin, 1977.

Oliva, Peter F. Supervision for Today's Schools. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1976.

Rich, John Martin. Innovations in Education: Reformers and Their Critics. 3rd Edition. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc., 1981.

Rollins, Sidney P. and Adolph Unruh. Introduction to Secondary Education. Chicago: Rand McNally & Company, 1973.

Tanner, Daniel. Secondary School Curriculum. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1971.

Til, W. Van. Curriculum: Quest for Relevance. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1971.

Toffler, Alvin. Future Shock. New York: Random House, Inc., 1970.

Trump, Lloyd and Delmas F. Miller. Secondary School Curriculum Improvement: Meeting Challenges of the Times. 3rd Edition. Boston: Allyn & Bacon Inc., 1979.

Wiles, Jon and Joseph Bond. The Essential Middle School. Columbus: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1981.

Others

BabcockGove, Philip. Webster's Third New International Dictionary.
Springfield, Massachusett: G. & C. Merriam Company, Publishers,
1971.

Cedar Falls High School. Educational Planning Handbook. Cedar Falls
High School, Cedar Falls, Iowa, January, 1980.

Gwoyeu Ryhbaw. Taipei, Republic of China, December 11, 1980.

Malcolm Price Laboratory School. Course Description. Malcolm Price
Price Laboratory School, University of Northern Iowa, 1980.

McCumsey, Norman. School Laws Outline. University of Northern Iowa,
1981.