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ABSTRACT

Recent innovations in the secondary school social studies curriculum require the immediate attention of school administrators. Five major areas of the instructional process which contribute to a new social studies product include: (1) objectives, (2) teaching strategies, (3) materials, (4) pupil deployment, and (5) evaluation. School administrators should anticipate changes which will accompany the new social studies in the areas of finance, space utilization, program supervision, and teacher preparation. This document contains a directory of 41 projects currently investigating social studies curriculum and an annotated bibliography of 17 related documents. (JH)

Research
Ideas
Practice

CURRICULUM **Report**

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THE NEW SOCIAL STUDIES

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A leading contributor to the "new social studies" movement tells where the action is and analyzes what it appears to consist of.

The New Social Studies

Implications for School Administration

EDWIN FENTON

LIKE the new math, the new science, and the new modern languages, the new social studies will jolt secondary schools. Their impact is almost upon us. Carnegie's social studies curriculum library includes materials from more than forty experimental projects. Moreover, a few innovative publishers have already marketed or have plans to market new-style materials largely developed outside the curriculum projects.

Within a few years every conscientious school administrator must decide which of the new curricular schemes, if any, best meets the needs of students within his school. This decision will imply many others: the types of materials required, the sort of teacher training, the patterns of pupil deployment, the arrangement of additional library space perhaps in the form of a social studies laboratory, and the problem of improving leadership and supervision.

The new social studies involve five major areas of the instructional process: (1) objectives, (2) teaching strategies, (3) ma-

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Edwin Fenton is professor of history at Carnegie Institute of Technology and Director of the Carnegie Education Center recently set up at the Institute with a grant of $1,000,000 from the Carnegie Corporation. *This article is based on research he carried on during 1965-66 when he was on leave to study the work of various social studies curriculum projects. A full report of his findings will appear in* The New Social Studies, *to be published in March by Holt, Rinehart and Winston.*

To: Kit Welsh
From: Clarice Watson, Ed. Admin.

RE: EA 002 646

Hope this is o.k. for RIE instead of CIJE -- because the Curriculum Report is undoubtedly of limited ~~cir~~ circulation and the date at which it appeared in the Nat. Assoc. of Sec. School Principals is 1967 and it does not seem logical to put anything that old in CIJE.

ects attempt to develop citizens who know where they are going in a world buffeted by change.

A useful, independent citizen also has inquiry skills with which he can separate truth from falsehood and acquire dependable new knowledge. The projects teach students to use a mode of inquiry from history and the social sciences. A mode of inquiry consists of a number of cognitive skills combined in logical order. At Carnegie, we have identified six essential steps in the entire process:

A Mode of Inquiry for the Social Studies

1. Recognizing a problem from data
2. Formulating hypotheses
   - Asking analytical questions
   - Stating hypotheses
   - Remaining aware of the tentative nature of hypotheses
3. Recognizing the logical implications of hypotheses
4. Gathering data
   - Deciding what data will be needed
   - Selecting or rejecting sources on the basis of a statement of logical implications
5. Analyzing, evaluating and interpreting data
   - Selecting relevant data from the sources
   - Evaluating the sources
     - Determining the frame of reference of the author of a source
     - Determining the accuracy of statements of fact
   - Interpreting the data
6. Evaluating the hypothesis in light of the data
   - Modifying the hypothesis, if necessary
     - Rejecting a logical implication unsupported by data
     - Restating the hypothesis
   - Stating a generalization.

Like the staffs of other projects, the Carnegie group has designed many lessons primarily to teach individual skills in the mode of inquiry. We devote other days to assessing the degree to which our students have mastered the entire inquiry process.

A mode of inquiry can be divided logically into two parts: hypothesis formation (steps 1 and 2) and proof process (steps 3 - 6). Viewed in this manner, the terms "mode of inquiry" and "structure of a discipline" are synonymous. In the social studies, structure amounts to the way in which historians and social scientists ask and answer questions.

Facts mean nothing by themselves. They assume meaning only as part of each person's frame of reference. The same

terials, (4) pupil deployment, and (5) evaluation. Each area impinges upon all the others; a change in one implies a change in all. Taken together, these cumulative changes will produce a distinctly new product. Each element of this product has an ancient lineage, at least in theory, but their combination into coherent programs will strike administrators as distinctly different, as different as the new math seems to bewildered parents.

What Are the Objectives?

What are the objectives of the new social studies? Their essential purpose is *to help the child develop into a useful, independent citizen.* This general objective can be divided for purposes of discussion into four major parts: attitudes, values, inquiry skills, and knowledge.

A useful, independent citizen has a set of cooperative attitudes towards society. He wants to participate actively in politics. He wants to hear all sides of a debate and to make up his mind about an issue through a rational decision-making process. The new social studies tries to generate attitudes like these by requiring students to participate in class discussion, and by encouraging them to use a rational decision-making process rather than rely on authority for proof of a proposition.

A useful, independent citizen also has a set of values consistent with a democratic creed. Many of the social studies projects assume a fundamental ethic based on the dignity and worth of the individual. The projects do not, however, try to get students to support a specific set of policies toward controversial public issues based on this ethic. Instead, the projects present controversial issues which consistently challenge students' values and encourage them to reflect upon their values in the light of evidence. Instead of consensus, the goal is reflection. If at the end of his study a student emerges with the same values he held at its beginning, he will still have amassed a body of evidence for his position, evidence which may support him in a crisis. He will also have learned techniques with which he can test and clarify values. If, on the other hand, he finds that some of the values he held failed to pass the test of evidence, he can abandon them for others. In either case he will be better off. By consistently raising issues involving values and by subjecting them to discussion under the rules of evidence, the proj-

piece of data can convey different meaning to two people with contrasting views of the world. Moreover, a person's frame of reference inclines him to notice some facts and to overlook others. Marx's firm conviction that class struggle explained history caused him to select certain facts as he read and to use them in particular ways as evidence for his argument. Adam Smith's dedication to the theory of the free market conditioned him to note other facts in the same body of data and to use them as evidence for different arguments. The way in which a person selects facts he will attend to helps to determine the kind of hypotheses he forms. His "body of imposed conceptions" conditions him to ask certain questions and to seek answers to particular problems. The pedagogical issue can be stated simply: How can we help a student to develop a "body of imposed conceptions" which will help him to formulate useful hypotheses about a variety of problems?

Is There a Single Structure?

The best of the social studies projects identify the hypothesis-making aspect of structure with concepts. By a concept they mean a category; social class, leadership, or supply and demand may serve as examples. A number of curriculum centers have tried to identify a small number of analytical concepts from all the social sciences. Although each has developed a workable list, the lists differ one from the other. This result suggests that the social studies do not have a single structure inherent in the discipline. Each person brings his own "imposed conceptions" to the task of selecting concepts; each person has his own structure. The problem for each of us, like the problem for curriculum centers, is to develop a structure based on the social sciences which will help us to analyze problems in such a way that our answers will probably be accurate.

Concepts As Guides to Analysis

Suppose, for example, that a student knows four concepts from sociology—social class, role, status, and norms—and he wants to investigate a problem in history or in contemporary society. For example, he wishes to describe the social structure of Boston, Massachusetts, in the middle of the eighteenth century. As he reads diaries, autobiographies, newspaper accounts,

and similar source materials, the student's knowledge of social class, status, role, and norms will help to guide his search for data. He will ask himself how many social classes existed in the society. He will try to learn the relative position on the social scale which each occupational, racial, and religious group occupied. He will examine the roles of groups and individuals in society to determine, for example, whether housewives in seventeenth-century New England had the same roles as housewives in our own world. He will be alert for clues about norms, the behaviors expected of various people of different statuses and roles. Knowing these concepts guides his search for data along productive lines which social scientists have found useful to analyze society.

Concepts imply questions. The concept of leadership may serve as an example. Since modern political scientists recognize the vital role which leaders play in any political system, they want to know a number of things about political leaders.

- How are they recruited?
- What are their personal characteristics?
- How do they gain and maintain support from their followers?
- How can a citizen get access to them?

The overwhelming majority of analytical questions used in the social studies either come from social science concepts or can be related to social science concepts. Taken together, concepts and analytical questions constitute an extremely useful notion of the hypothesis-forming aspect of structure. They are tools, a part of the process of inquiry.

Proof Processes Indispensable

The remaining part of structure consists of proof process. Once a person has developed a hypothesis, he must revise, reject, or validate it. Within the past decade a number of scholars, both within and outside of the curriculum projects, have worked hard to develop schemes of validation. Much of their work stemmed originally from the model of reflective thinking posed by John Dewey in his classic volume *How We Think.* The projects have refined and simplified this model to bring

greater precision to the enterprise. They have identified each of the steps in the proof process and devised ways to teach individual skills of critical thinking on which these steps depend.

A discipline consists of three parts: a body of facts and generalizations, a group of concepts which guide the search for data, and a proof process. In the past, teachers have often organized their courses of study around a list of generalizations which students learn. But *generalizations tend to shut off inquiry.* They tempt teachers to choose, smorgasbord fashion, from a long list of generalizations and to teach them as product. Organizing a course of study around concepts and proof process, however, stresses the way in which people learn and equips them to analyze personal problems, public issues, and the interpretation of the past.

Selecting Content

The structure of the social studies disciplines—their mode of inquiry if you prefer—makes up the single most important criterion for the selection of content in the new social studies curricula. Only if a student knows how to inquire can he cope with the knowledge explosion. The total quantity of knowledge known to mankind doubles with each decade. Unless a student knows how to amass new knowledge and how to correct misconceptions which he has learned in the past, he cannot live intelligently. In order to train future citizens well, in order to teach students to cope with their personal problems, in order to help them analyze contemporary public issues, and in order to teach them to interpret the past, we must teach them a structure of the social studies disciplines.

In addition to teaching students to use the structure of a discipline for independent inquiry, the social studies projects have identified three additional criteria for the selection of content in order to produce the useful, independent citizen which is their ideal.

- They choose materials which fill the needs and touch the interests of the child as he grows in modern American society.
- They investigate problems in the past, such as economic growth in eighteenth-century Britain or the history of the Negro in the United States, which throw light upon con-

temporary problems, such as the needs of underdeveloped countries or contemporary racial tensions.

- They emphasize a body of knowledge which will help future citizens to read books intelligently, to visit museums with understanding, and to participate as widely as possible in the rich cultural life of a democracy.

Teaching Strategies

These objectives raise five questions for teachers:

1. What is the best way to teach a concept?
2. What is the best way to teach students to arrive at valid generalizations?
3. What is the best way to instill certain attitudes such as the willingness to participate and a preference for rational proof-processes?
4. What is the best way to help each student learn to justify values?
5. What is the best way to teach a body of knowledge?

Obviously, no one teaching strategy is best for all of these objectives.

One fruitful way of thinking about the relationship of objectives and teaching strategies places strategies along a continuum. Exposition lies on one end. In the expository mode—the lecture is the best example—the teacher supplies all the cues. He states the generalizations he wants students to learn, tells them the evidence which supports the generalization, and connects evidence and generalization by a logical argument. For comparatively mature students, exposition provides a sound and efficient way to convey a body of knowledge or to tell a student what a concept is so that he can recall the definition and cite some examples of it. But exposition is not an efficient way to teach a student how to use a concept for hypothesis formation; it is not a reliable way to help him learn how to validate a generalization; and exposition is not adequate to show him how to justify a value, or to develop attitudes such as willingness to participate in class.

On the other end of the continuum lie nondirective techniques in which the teacher provides a minimum of cues. The

library research paper provides one example; discovery exercises in which the teacher presents material and students interact with minimal intervention by the teacher are another. Neither research papers nor discovery exercises are an efficient way to convey a body of knowledge or to get students to justify a value, but they can help a teacher learn whether his students can use a concept for hypothesis formation or whether they can use the cognitive processes essential to validate a generalization. They may also encourage students to participate in class discussion.

Between these two extremes lie various forms of directed discussion in which the teacher gives cues in the form of questions. Directed discussion is less efficient than exposition for teaching a body of knowledge. It is not as useful as are nondirective techniques in evaluation, but probably is the most useful of the three major strategies for teaching students to use concepts for hypothesis formation, for teaching them the cognitive processes involved in validating a generalization, for encouraging attitudes such as preference for a scientific proof process, and for teaching them to justify a value.

Materials: Pupil Deployment: Evaluation

In addition to implying a range of teaching strategies, the new social studies demand a wide variety of materials. Textbooks, sound films, and programs are probably the most efficient materials to teach a body of knowledge. Simulations, role playing, and a great variety of audiovisual materials may provide the greatest stimulation for the formation of such attitudes as willingness to participate. Case studies in which two conflicting values clash probably provide the best opportunities to challenge students to justify a value. Source materials of great variety challenge them to use concepts for hypothesis formation and to develop generalizations from evidence.

Similarly, the objectives of the new social studies imply a variety of ways to deploy students. A teacher can lecture or show a sound film as effectively to a hundred students as to thirty. Efficient exposition implies large-group instruction. Directed discussion and nondirective discovery exercises can best be carried on in relatively small classes. Research is clearly designed for individual efforts. Moreover, the social studies

projects are developing a host of materials from which students can learn efficiently without the intervention of a teacher—materials such as programs, supplementary readings, film loops, recordings, and many others.

Finally, the objectives of the new social studies imply a variety of evaluating instruments. Multiple choice tests remain an efficient way to check recall or recognition of knowledge. They can also be used to evaluate the ability to recognize a concept or to use certain cognitive skills involved in validating a generalization. Research papers and essay test questions can assess the ability to use concepts and to employ evidence to arrive at a valid conclusion. The remainder of the objectives—attitude formation and the justification of values—can be assessed primarily by analyzing classroom discourse, either by listening to tape recordings of a class session or by examining a script taken from a tape recording.

Predictable Changes

A few products of the social studies curriculum projects have already been published. More will appear in a steady stream during the next few years. No school administrator can afford to ignore their implications. Fortunately there is still time to plan, still time to anticipate the changes ahead. Four types of changes seem inevitable.

In the first place, *the new social studies will demand a greater expenditure of money for books, other teaching materials, and equipment.* Most of the projects plan entire educational systems which consist of printed materials, an audio-visual component, extensive teachers' manuals, tests, and so forth. Many of the products of the curriculum centers will be expensive, two or three times as expensive as the traditional social studies text. Moreover, each classroom will require audio-visual equipment; an overhead projector, a tape recorder, and a filmstrip projector at least. Per-student costs are bound to rise.

Secondly, *the new social studies require more flexible arrangements of instructional space.* The materials from the projects can be adapted to large-group instruction, small-group instruction, and individual study. Libraries will have to increase in size and to include instructional centers. The most advanced schools will need social studies laboratories housing a variety

of audiovisual equipment as well as the simulations which are a feature of so many social studies projects. A few projects are already developing computer-assisted instruction in the social studies. More may embrace this trend in the future. All this new equipment must be housed somewhere. As a minimum, every classroom will require a large storage closet.

Third, *no school will be able to keep up with curriculum development in the social studies without a department head who has most of his time free for a variety of jobs:* to keep track of new materials coming out of the social studies projects; to purchase methods books and make them available in a department library; to select interesting articles from journals such as *Social Education* for distribution among his faculty members; to plan in-service workshops around model units put out by projects; to show films of classroom demonstrations which a number of the projects are producing; to encourage teachers to try new ways, and to supervise the members of his staff. A department head using a tape recorder with a directional microphone or, better still, a portable videotaping machine, can help teachers examine their own classroom performance in ways which will yield rich dividends in better instruction. None of these jobs can be done well without an excellent department head whose teaching load is reduced to one or two classes a day in order to free him for these demanding tasks.

The most serious implication of the new social studies for school administrators, however, will be in the area of teacher preparation. Teaching the new social studies requires far more than a warm body, a teaching certificate, and a few college history courses. *Adequate preparation for the new social studies involves knowledge of anthropology, sociology, political science, economics, and geography, as well as a sound background in the history of the United States, Europe, and the non-Western world.*

The social studies have for too long been the dumping ground for poorly prepared faculty members whose major interest was in some other school activity, such as coaching. Poorly prepared teachers have never been able to teach social studies well; they will be helpless with the new social studies, which demand knowledge of a sophisticated conceptual scheme from the social sciences as well as the ability to use and teach the cognitive processes involved in validating a generalization.

Possibilities for Staff Growth

Most teachers who have had no graduate work for five or six years will need in-service work to prepare for the new social studies. Some of the in-service work can come through NDEA institutes financed by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare during the summer. These institutes are now being held in history, geography, civics, and economics. Many institute directors collect materials from social studies projects and make them available in curriculum libraries during the summer. Key members of a high school faculty may also profit from the Experienced Teacher Fellowship Program supported by the U.S. Office of Education, which sends teachers with more than three years' experience for a full year's study at a major university. The directors of most of these programs also introduce their Fellows to the work of the curriculum projects. Finally, many experienced teachers can use sabbatical leaves granted by many schools for study in a university with a curriculum project. Carnegie, for one, is designing special programs for career teachers on sabbatical leave in order to introduce them to the work of curriculum projects as they study toward a new doctor of arts degree.

The teacher who has studied in an NDEA institute or an Experienced Teacher Fellowship Program or who has worked during a sabbatical in a curriculum project should be well prepared to lead in-service workshops in his school. A few schools have already organized in-service work around teaching experimental units from the curriculum projects. For example, all the teachers in one course—say, eleventh-grade American history—have used a unit from a curriculum project, such as the ones at Amherst or Carnegie, in place of the work on a particular subject they might ordinarily do from their text. The workshop leader has helped orient them to the new material by discussing its principles or by teaching a demonstration class. This direct experience with new materials and new ways of teaching equips a faculty to make a judgment about which of the new projects, if any, it wishes to adopt. Several of the projects have already produced, or plan to produce in the near future, classroom films in which experienced teachers use new material and teaching techniques with typical students. A score

of films like these will soon be available for in-service work in the schools.

Two other sorts of in-service work seem desirable. More schools should pay the expenses of teachers who wish to attend national and state meetings of professional organizations, such as the National Council for the Social Studies. Many such meetings are devoted to the curriculum projects and to the principles behind them. Schools should also pay teachers to visit curriculum libraries which many of the projects maintain. Although project staffs are too busy to spend a large amount of time with individual teachers, they usually invite teachers to work in their curriculum libraries where the new materials are housed.

The new social studies present problems to school administrators. They also hold out promises. Surveys of student opinion usually rank the social studies as the least interesting and least useful of school subjects. This situation has worsened as other disciplines reformed their curricular offerings during the last decade. Now a new social studies—creative, carefully tested, sound, interesting, and useful—is emerging from more than fifty major curriculum development projects. Introduced properly by school administrators, the products of these projects can work a revolution in social studies instruction which can equip students to become the useful, independent citizens our democracy demands.

Other Sources

A Social Studies Bibliography

Selected and Annotated
by
Edwin Fenton

BAUER, NANCY W., RICHARD E. STARKEY, editors. *Revolution and Reaction: The Impact of the New Social Studies.* Bloomfield Hills, Mich.: Cranbrook Press, 1966. 135 pp. $2.95. Papers by three advocates of curriculum reform in the social studies and an abstract of key questions and answers from conference participants make up most of this volume. It also includes a 55-page bibliography of nontextual material for the social studies.

BERG, HARRY D., editor. *Evaluation in Social Studies,* Thirty-fifth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies, Washington, D.C., 1965. 247 pp. $5.00, paper $4.00. Eleven contributors discuss problems of evaluation in the social studies. The volume includes a bibliography of social studies tests.

BRUNER, JEROME S. *The Process of Education.* New York: Vintage Books, Random House, 1960. 92 pp. $2.75. Bruner's volume remains essential to an understanding of social studies curriculum reform since it raises most of the issues which the social studies curriculum projects have been concerned with.

CLEMENTS, H. MILLARD, WILLIAM R. FIELDER, B. ROBERT TABACHNICK. *Social Study: Inquiry in Elementary Classrooms.* Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1966. 402 pp. Cloth $6.50. A text for elementary school methods teachers, this interesting volume combines text material with a large section which contains readings. Individual teachers can use it profitably.

FENTON, EDWIN. *Teaching the New Social Studies in Secondary Schools: An Inductive Approach.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1966. 514 pp. $7.95. Each of the 30 chapters in this volume contains one or more articles about the new social studies. Intended primarily for preservice or in-service methods courses, the book may also be used by individual teachers.

GOODLAD, JOHN I., RENATA VON STOEPHASIUS, M. FRANCES KLEIN. *The Changing School Curriculum.* New York: Fund for Advancement of Education, 1966. 144 pp. No charge. A revision of an earlier volume, this book discusses the principles behind curricular reform in all subject areas, analyzes the work of key projects, and suggests further reading.

JAROLIMEK, JOHN, HUBER M. WALSH, editors. *Readings for Social Studies in Elementary Education.* New York: Macmillan, 1965. 481 pp. $3.95. The editors have collected 69 articles from recent literature and arranged them under six headings. Some, but not all, of the articles reflect current trends in elementary school curriculum practices.

JOYCE, BRUCE R. *Strategies for Elementary Social Science Education.* Chicago: Science Research Associates. 302 pp. $5.25. Intended as a text for in-service and preservice courses in methods of teaching elementary school social studies, this excellent volume will also be useful to individual teachers.

MAGER, ROBERT F. *Preparing Instructional Objectives.* Palo Alto, Calif.: Fearon Publishers, 1962. 62 pp. $1.75. This brief programed book defines behavioral objectives and makes a plea for teachers and curriculum workers to state objectives in behavioral terms.

MASSIALAS, BYRON G., C. BENJAMIN COX. *Inquiry in Social Studies.* New York: McGraw-Hill, 1966. 339 pp. $6.95. A textbook designed for in-service and preservice methods courses, this book is also useful to individual teachers. As the title implies, it stresses inquiry techniques as the heart of social studies instruction.

MASSIALAS, BYRON G., ANDREAS M. KAZAMIAS, editors. *Crucial Issues in the Teaching of Social Studies.* Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, 1964. 278 pp. Paper $4.50. The editors have collected 38 articles about elementary and secondary school social studies. Drawn from recent literature, these articles raise many of the questions central to the new social studies.

MEHLINGER, HOWARD D. *The Study of Totalitarianism: An Inductive Approach, A Guide for Teachers,* Bulletin Number 37. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1965. 107 pp. $2.00. This slim volume contains nine basic generalizations about totalitarianism, suggestions about how to teach them, and a few samples of materials.

MORRISSETT, IRVIN, editor. *Concepts and Structure in the New Social Science Curricula.* Lafayette, Ind.: Social Science Education Consortium, 1966. 151 pp. Cloth $3.50, paper $2.00. Morrissett's volume contains the papers and proceedings of a conference of social

studies curriculum reformers to discuss the use of concepts and structure in current curriculum projects.

OLIVER, DONALD W., JAMES P. SHAVER. *Teaching Public Issues in the High School.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1966. 326 pp. $4.50. This volume reports the results of a decade's research on techniques of teaching public issues in high school. Oliver and Shaver are particularly concerned with the effective domain and with the development of techniques which can help students to resolve value conflicts.

PRICE, ROY A., WARREN HICKMAN, GERALD SMITH. *Major Concepts for Social Studies.* Syracuse, N.Y.: Social Studies Curriculum Center, Syracuse University, Nov. 1965. 62 pp. 75¢. A progress report from the Syracuse curriculum center, this pamphlet identifies 34 concepts divided into three types: substantive, value, and method. The Syracuse group has not tried to develop a comprehensive conceptual scheme for the social studies. Yet this report does identify an extremely useful list and contains suggestions about how it might be used.

SANDERS. NORRIS M. *Classroom Questions: What Kinds?* New York: Harper and Row, 1966. 173 pp. Paper $2.50. Sanders' volume explores the types of classroom questions which demand more than recall of information from students. His organization parallels Bloom's *Taxonomy.*

THOMPSON, JOHN M., editor. *Teachers, History, and NDEA Institutes, 1965.* Washington, D.C.: The American Council of Learned Societies, 1966. 39 pp. No charge. A report of a team which surveyed the first year's NDEA institutes in history, this pamphlet assesses their strengths and weaknesses.

For several years, Professor Michaelis has been maintaining what has come to be regarded as practically the official listing of the major projects operating in the social studies curriculum area. We appreciate his willingness to let us publish the latest draft of his directory. Granted a project's title is not an especially rich source of information about the project's activities or products. Nonetheless, the editor concluded that this list would, at the least, add somewhat to the reader's awareness of the variety of studies in progress. More than that, the list may suggest to schools possibilities for contact, now or in the future, with developments and developers.

A Directory of Social Studies Projects

JOHN U. MICHAELIS

Anderson, Wallace. *Intercultural Studies (K-16)*. State College of Iowa, Cedar Falls, Iowa 50613. (Ford) *

Angell, Robert C. *Sociological Resources for Secondary Schools*, 503 First National Bldg., Ann Arbor, Mich. 48108. (NSF)

Bailey, Wilfred, and Marion J. Rice. *Development of a Sequential Curriculum in Anthropology for Grades 1-7*. College of Education and Department of Sociology and Anthropology, University of Georgia, Athens, Ga. 30601. (USOE)

Becker, James M. *Foreign Relations Project (Secondary)*. North Central Association, First National Bank Bldg., Suite 832, Chicago

*Parenthetical items such as this indicate primary sources of financial support. NSF: National Science Foundation; USOE: U.S. Office of Education

John Michaelis is professor of education in the School of Education, the University of California at Berkeley. He is the director of one of the projects included in this list.

Ill. 60603. (NCA foreign relations pamphlets available from Laidlaw Co.)

Berlak, Harold, and Timothy R. Tomlinson. *Development of Elementary School Social Science Curriculum (1-6); Implementation Project (9-12).* Metropolitan St. Louis Social Studies Center, Washington University, MacMillan Hall 303, St. Louis, Mo. 63130. (USOE)

Bernstein, Edgar. *Chicago Social Studies Project (9-10)* The University of Chicago Laboratory Schools, 1362 East 59th St., Chicago, Ill. 60637.

Brown, Richard H., and Van R. Halsey. *Committee on the Study of History (The Amherst Project), (9-14).* Box 72, Amherst, Mass. 01002, or The Newberry Library, Chicago, Ill. 60610. (USOE). Earlier pamphlets edited by Halsey available from D.C. Heath and Co.

Cawein, Paul E. *Harvard-Newton Project in Business History and Economic Concepts.* Newton Public Schools, Newton, Mass. 02159. (Harvard, Newton schools, industries)

Collier, Malcom C. *Anthropology Curriculum Study Project (Secondary).* 5632 South Kimbark Ave., Chicago, Ill. 60637. (NSF)

English, Raymond. *The Greater Cleveland Social Science Program (K-12).* Educational Research Council of Greater Cleveland, Rockefeller Bldg., 614 West Superior Ave., Cleveland, Ohio 44113.

Fenton, Edwin, and John M. Good. *A High School Social Studies Curriculum for Able Students.* Carnegie Institute of Technology, Baker Hall 240, Pittsburgh, Pa. 15213. (USOE)

Fox, Robert S., and Ronald Lippitt. *Michigan Social Science Education Project, (4-6).* Center for Research on Utilization of Scientific Knowledge, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich. 48107.

Gibson, John S. *The Development of Instructional Materials Dealing With Racial and Cultural Diversity in American Life.* Lincoln Filene Center for Citizenship and Public Affairs, Tufts College, Medford, Mass. 02155. (USOE) *Ideology and World Affairs: Resource Unit.* Boston: Houghton-Mifflin, 1965.

Gill, Clark C., and William B. Conroy. *Development of Guidelines and Resource Materials on Latin American (1-12).* 403 Sutton Hall, University of Texas, Austin, Tex. 78912. (USOE)

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