DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 042 684 SO 000 255

| | |
|---|---|
| AUTHOR | Cassidy, Fr. Thomas |
| TITLE | Political Science in the New Social Studies: Comparison of Content Materials; Secondary Level, Developed by the Social Studies Curriculum Projects. |
| INSTITUTION | Catholic Univ. of America, Washington, D.C. Graduate School of Arts and Science. |
| PUB DATE | Jul 70 |
| NOTE | 65p.; M.A. Dissertation, Catholic University of America |
| EDRS PRICE | EDRS Price MF-$0.50 HC-$3.35 |
| DESCRIPTORS | Affective Objectives, Behavioral Objectives, Citizenship, Cognitive Objectives, Concept Teaching, Course Content, *Curriculum Development, Fundamental Concepts, *Inductive Methods, Instructional Materials, Learning Theories, Material Development, *Political Science, *Political Socialization, *Projects, School Role, Social Studies |

ABSTRACT

This thesis attempts to analyze one particular aspect of the development activities of some fifty social studies projects, namely, the role of political science and its materials within the projects. The paper is divided into four chapters. The first seeks to give a brief analysis of the curriculum development projects in recent years in terms of: 1) the analysis of the structure of each social science discipline; 2) the characteristics and improvement goals of the projects based on studies by Bruner and others; 3) concepts, generalizations, and an inductive approach which are common to all projects; and, 4) the methods for achieving the goals of social education, i.e. effective citizenship --political socialization through effective content selection and organization, value education, cognitive and affective skill development, both behavioral and traditional approaches to content and materials, an interdisciplinary view, and an active school role in the socialization process. The second attempts to define the role of political science within this movement. The third analyzes content material and methods employed by the projects using political science. The final chapter offers some possible implications for college and university political science curriculum. (Author/SBE)

# POLITICAL SCIENCE IN THE NEW SOCIAL STUDIES: Comparison of content materials: secondary level, developed by the Social Studies Curriculum Projects

by

Fr. Thomas Cassidy, S.C.J.

A Dissertation submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School of Arts and Sciences of The Catholic University of America in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts.

July, 1970

Washington, D.C.

CONTENTS

## INTRODUCTION

Many events have occurred in recent years changing the nature of social studies curricula in primary and secondary schools. The development of some fifty social studies projects will soon have an impact on our school systems. This thesis attempts to analyze one particular aspect of this development, namely, the role of political science and its materials within the projects.

The paper is divided into four chapters. The first seeks to give a brief analysis of the curriculum development projects in recent years. The second attempts to define the role of political science within this movement, giving particular emphasis to how political science is looked upon by the new social studies movement. The third analysis content material and methods employed by the projects in using the discipline of political science. The final chapter offers some possible implications these projects may have within the near future upon college and university political science curriculum.

CHAPTER I

## THE NEW SOCIAL STUDIES

Since the rise of Sputnik in 1957, American education has gone through an age of renewal and innovation. The first areas affected were, of course, science and mathematics. Through efforts of the National Science Foundation and the Federal Government, these courses of study in elementary and secondary education have undergone a transformation in both methodology and content. These courses are now a part of our American education system: from "the new math" to numerous science courses at all levels of education. Now it is time for the social science disciplines to undergo this transformation. This evolution in social sciences has long been called for. Professor Shirley Engle gives a clear indication of this call to change when he stated:

> What is to be done in the social studies in the face of the changing nature and massive quantity of dependable knowledge, as well as that which is not so dependable, in the social sciences? Two possibilities are suggested. One is a matter of accepting an intelligent and discriminating attitude toward knowledge. The other involves the way in which we organize information so that it may be put to use in forming the beliefs upon which action rest.[1]

In the last few years the approach suggested by Dr. Engle has been underway in all aspects of social science disciplines. Presently there are about fifty projects actively engaged in seeking improvement in social studies. Some

---

[1]Shirley H. Engle, "The Social Studies Look to the Future," in New Frontiers in the Social Studies, Vol. II: Action and Analysis, ed. John S. Gibson (New York: [illegible]tation Press, 1967), p. 274.

projects go so far as to seek a full K-12 (kindergarten through grade twelve) approach to social science. The various social studies projects have been funded from several sources, chiefly the Federal Government under the direction of the U.S. Office of Education. The projects vary in their approach to each discipline, some quite specific, others general in scope. All are based on the "knowledge explosion." This explosion has forced a rethinking of what is importnat and what is best in social studies education for our schools. This was pointed out in 1965 by Heffernan and Bishop:

> The dramatic onrush of new knowledge created a greater gap between the producers and the consumers of knowledge, between the generalist and the specialist, between those who appempt to move in accordance with the new knowledge and those who would cling to 'conventional wisdom. To know, to structure, to relate, to understand-- these are the imperatives. What is the important knowledge to know, how is it best ordered and produced, how does it relate to other knowledge, and does it contribute to perspective and understanding.[2]

The movement can be traced back to several key individuals; perhaps the most important of these is Jerome Bruner. Bruner was principally interested in the learning process and in ways in which education could improve by using the knowledge gained from his study of learning. Because his influence upon the projects has been profound, any understanding of what these projects are attempting to do must begin with him. His analysis of the learning process is extremely important. If his analysis is correct, much can be accomplished by adapting education to the learning process. Bruner states that the essential way to preserve and use memory is through structured patterns:

> Perhaps the most basic thing that can be said about human memory, after a century of intense research, is that unless detail is placed

---

[2]Heffernan and Bishop, "Utilising 'Structure' to Cope With New Knowledge," in Structure in the Social Studies, eds. Louis J. Herbert and William Murphy (Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1967), p. 19.

> into a structured pattern, it is rapidly forgotten. Detailed material is conserved in memory by the use of simplified ways of representing it. These simplified representations have what may be called 'regenerative' character. (To give an analogy to the physical scientist, he carries with him a formula to regenerate the details on which the more easily remembered formula is based.)[3]

A key then to new social studies is its analysis of the structure of each social science discipline. This is seminal and cannot be stressed enough--to understand the new social studies one must understand the idea of structure. The structure of political science will be discussed later.

According to Howard Mehlinger all social studies projects proceed under two basic assumptions: first, that social studies instruction needs improvement; second, that it is possible to improve instruction by improving the materials students use while learning. All the projects are concerned with, and operate under, these assumptions. While the particular characteristics and immediate goals of each project are not common to all, each proceeds from a number of beliefs based on the studies of Bruner and others. Terms, such as "concepts," "generalizations," "inductive approach," etc. are common to all projects and are necessary for analyzing their work. While it is true each project may look at these terms in slightly different shades of meaning, a common agreement of their importance in prevalent.

In the final analysis, however, the entire argument of social studies evolution stems from an understanding of what is or can be the best method to achieve the goals of social education, i.e. effective citizenship. There are

---

[3]Jerome S. Bruner, The Process of Education (New York: Vintage Press, 1960), p. 24.

varying opinions as to what extent social studies should play within the school curriculum, but there is agreement to its role in developing citizenship.

Raymond Mussing lists seven goals for the social studies which will be used here. While other lists do exist, they all tend to agree in principle with Mussing. Differences are found but these tend to be one's of emphasis.

1. The social studies curriculum must reflect the nature and needs of our democratic society and the world in which our children live.

2. The social studies curriculum should provide for both general and specific needs, stages of growth and development, interests, aspirations and abilities of children and youth.

3. The social studies curriculum needs to be as faithful as possible to the purpose, theories, discoveries, insights, major ideas, methods tools, and materials of the social sciences in general, various combinations of two or more particular social sciences, and individual academic disciplines found under the social science aegis.

4. The social studies curriculum ought to be based upon rigorous criteria for content selection.

5. The social studies curriculum should achieve some balance and blending in the development and utilization of understanding, skills, attitudes, and appreciations.

6. The social studies curriculum must be both ordered and expansive in its makeup.

7. The social studies curriculum ought to be shaped around a series of imperatives, consistent and persistent ends while leaving room for a variety of means suited to the realization of these ends.[4]

How to achieve these goals is the concern of each project. No longer is it

---

[4]Raymond H. Mussing, "Basic Characteristics of a Good Social Studies Curriculum," New Frontiers in the Social Studies, Vol II: Interpretation and Analysis, ed. John U. Gibson (New York: Citation Press, 1967), pp. 233-234.

possible to teach only in a descriptive pattern forcing students to memorize lists of often unrelated facts which will soon be forgotten by most of them. To achieve true civic education other means must be employed. Instead of inculcating in students a list of what a good citizen should or should not do, the object of social studies should be to develop the habits and traits a citizen needs in our fast changing world.

If we were to consider a set of goals developed thirty, forty, or even fifty years ago, little difference would be noted in the ultimate aim sought, i.e. good citizenship. What is happening today is a shift in techniques of education to arrive at this ultimate goal. In addition to Bruner, another area of research has added to the argument in favor of new educational techniques.

This area of study or research known as political socialization has helped to guide the thinking of many social studies projects and educational research in general.[5] The conclusions reached by these studies point out the need for reworking curriculum.

This research has helped to shed light on what happens to students in the educational process, especially in the area of acquired political values or beliefs. These studies have shown that much more than formal education helps to shape the student as a citizen. In fact, the role of our schools is often that of reinforcing the political norms children acquire from their families:

> What should be the role of the schools in providing the youth with a fund of competence for the performance of the necessary roles that

---

[5]John J. Patrick, Political Socialization of American Youth (Bloomington, Indiana: University of Indiana Press, 1966), p. 65.

> must be filled in the operation of our political system? First, one should be clear that this is a question that cannot be avoided. One does not need to be a follower of Plato's to recognize the critical importance of the schools in transmitting the cultural and molding attitudes of the young toward the public life. To the extent that this reinforces family apolitical norms, two of the most powerful institutions of our society are engaged in sabotaging the development of democratic leadership . . ."[6]

Gibson points out that, though students can continue to learn about their society, the educational process becomes less effective in shaping student values and attitudes as the educational process progresses from the lower to upper levels of education.[7]

In effect, the studies done in socialization have helped to convince social science researchers and developers of the necessity for reform in both content and materials. The aim of these projects is no less worthy than the social science curriculum of years past. What has changed is the realization of what is and what is not possible in developing citizenship.

The projects are now attempting to develop citizenship through better understanding of cognitive and affective skills necessary in the world today. Excellent work in this area has been done by Bloom and Krathwohl.[8] By attempting to develop these skills the projects believe they will better accomplish the task of developing effective citizenship.

---

[6]Norton E. Long, The Social Studies and the Social Sciences (New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1962), p. 97

[7]John S. Gibson, New Frontiers in the Social Studies, Vol.I: Goals for Students Means for Teachers (New York: Citation Press, 1967), pp. 142-143.

[8]Bloom and Krathwohl, Taxonomy of Educational Objectives (New York: David McKay Co., 1967).

This shift seems quite justified in light of modern research. It is not, as some might suggest, a deviation in educational goals; rather, it is a realization of what education can and cannot accomplish. It is not, as some might suggest, removing the schools from the concern of developing citizens; rather it is a realization that much more than the school enters into the making of a citizen, and a realization of the specific role the school has to play and how that role can best be accomplished.

> Political socialization is by no means a function primarily of particular secondary school social studies courses, or even of the formal educational system. Nevertheless, the school is a very important agent of political socialization in American society, and social studies courses, particularly civics and government, are consciously intended to further the adaptation of young people to the American political culture.[9]

The second part of this paper deals with the particular role political science has to play in the educational process. Let it suffice here to say that it has a contribution to make toward developing effective citizenship. An analysis of the various projects developing political science materials shows that, while both traditional and behavioral approaches to the discipline are employed, a majority of the projects use the behavioral method.

Factors which may explain this tendency toward a behavioral approach are:

1. The important development of behavioral political science since World War II.
2. The facility with which behavioral techniques lend themselves to specific objectives a project wishes to develop.
3. The introduction of other behavioral techniques and courses into elementary and secondary education.
4. Many of the project people come out of the behavioral tradition.

---

[9]Robert E. Cleary and John S. Patrick, Political Socialization of American Youth: Implications for Secondary School Social Studies. (Washington, D.C.: NCSS, 1967), p.5.

Behavioral and traditional political science should be defined in order to clarify their differences before discussing political sciences role in the social studies projects. Frank J. Sorauf gives an excellent descriptive definition for traditional political science:

> Although it would be a colossal mistake to say that these four traditions (legalism; philosophical; activism and reform; elements of science) comprise the totality of the 'traditional' political science, they unquestionably dominated American political science at the advent of the second world war. Despite their different approaches to political phenomena, these traditions had some directions in common. They were all chiefly concerned with political and governmental institutions --with legislatures, executives, and courts; with political parties and elections; with international organizations and tribunals, with constitutions, public law, and international law. Conversely, they devoted little attention to behavioral decisions and processes within institutions-- to the political behavior of individuals or to the role behavior of office holders, for example. Secondly, they shared a common disposition to historicism and chronology as a way of organizing their materials. Most of the textbooks in American government even today begin with the founding fathers and the writing of the American constitution. Lacking a systematic body of data, political scientists drew on historical examples; and lacking a body of theory and concepts, they sought the sequential developmental analysis of history. Finally, these traditions shared a distrust of generalizations and the probing for systematic explanation. Political scientists considered themselves practical men of action with a mission in the real world.[10]

Behavioral political science on the other hand can be described in the terms offered by James Robinson:

> Although it (behaviorism) implies that the behavior of politicians is the object of political analysis (as distinguished from the form or organization of governmental institutions), that is only one of the significant features of the 'behavioral approach.' At least three other tendencies also characterize 'the behavioral persuasion' --the tendency to be interdisciplinary, to be quantitative, and to be scientific.[11]

---

[10]Frank K. Sorauf, Perspectives on Political Science (Columbus, Ohio: Merrill Books, 1966), p. 13

[11]James A. Robinson, "The Behavioral Approach To The Study of Political Science," in Political Science in the Social Studies...Donald H. Riddle and Robert E. Cleary, eds. (Washington, D.C.: Thirty-sixth Yearbook of NCSS, 1967), p.50.

We might conclude by pointing out that what becomes the criteria for political science in secondary or primary education as used in the projects is not traditional or behavioriał political science *per se*, but what works in light of the specific educational objectives necessary to be consistent with the goal of civic education. Tradition and behaviorism both play a role, though it would seem that most projects favor the behavioriał political science approach

## CHAPTER II

## POLITICAL SCIENCE IN ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION

The place of political science within the context of the social sciences in elementary and secondary school curriculum is somewhat clouded. That it has a place cannot be doubted, but to what extent and what role it has to play is disputed. There are three basic views on this matter. The first would have political science studied within the context of social studies courses:

> It has been the contention of this paper that political science could make its best contribution in the schools by applying its perspective and methods to the interpretation of history. All the social sciences would profit immensely by being able to take for granted a first-class grounding in political, economic, social and intellectual history. This grounding, however, should be given by teachers of social studies who are themselves keenly aware of the relevance of the various social sciences to the interpretation of history. History should not be allowed to remain at the level of plausible common-sense narrative with a literary criterion for truth. The problems approach so successfully used in many of the colleges might with profit be extended to the secondary schools.[12]

The second view takes a strictly interdisciplinary approach:

> This type of program offers a concept of curriculum development which promises to tear down the barriers built up by subject-matter departmentalization. . . American studies programs may therefore, find many advocates in the ranks of secondary school teachers, with

---

[12]Morton E. Long, The Social Studies and the Social Sciences (New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1962), p. 103

the high schools than with the universities,[13]

The third advocates a separate place for political science within the total content of a social studies curriculum:

> One of the most important responsibilities of the secondary school teacher is to inform students about the existence of a field of inquiry into the government and politics and to give them some indication of the complexity and difficulty of many public problems. . . (While it is not) possible to make political scientist out of our secondary school students . . . it is possible to teach secondary school students something about political science: what it is, what it does, the complexity and the difficulty of the problems it deals with.[14]

What particular role political science has to play in lower education is then an important question which should be considered by curriculum designers, political scientist, and other interested persons. The various projects will take one of the above positions.

As noted earlier there is much dissatisfaction with present social studies courses. Civics and other directly related political science courses are no exception. An analysis of present textbooks reveals a glarring discrepancy between what is being taught in these books and what political scientists themselves are now dealing with. Howard Mehlinger lists the weaknesses of current civics courses as:

1. Courses in civics and government often lack a clear focus.
2. Undue attention is given to the formal structures of government thereby obscuring the less, formal, but no less real, aspects of politics.
3. Controversial issues are often avoided in civics and governmental classes.

---

[13]Byron G. Massialas and Frederick R. Smith, New Challenges in the Social Studies (Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing, 1965), p.50.

[14]Byron and Jeane Kirkpatrick, "High School Studies in Perspective," in Political Science in the Social Studies, ed. Donald H. Riddle and Robert E. Cleary (Washington, D.C.: Thirty-sixth Yearbook of NCSS, 1966), p. 9.

4. Existing courses in civics and government lag far behind research in political science.

5. There is little or no effort to develop skills of inquiry in a rigorous and systematic way.

6. Civics and government courses are unsuccessful in advancing students' understanding about American political values.

7. Existing courses in civics and government are redundant for the majority of students.[15]

Professor Mehlinger is not the only one concerned with the present state of "political science" courses in our American schools, others have suggested ways of improvement. Much of their concern and belief that a change is needed is based upon the studies in political socialization spoken of in chapter one. These studies tend to point out the weaknesses of present courses much along the line of what Professor Mehlinger listed in his indictment of existing programs.[16]

The conclusions reached by these studies as well as the critic given by competent members of the political science profession and other related social science disciplines have led to the development of materials based on the "inquiry" approach to social studies.

Inquiry as the approach taken by most projects entails a consideration of structure, concepts, and generalizations.[17] But can a structure of political

---

[15]Howard D. Mehlinger, The Study of American Political Behavior (Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana University, 1967), pp. 9-12

[16]Shirley H. Engle, "Objectives of The Social Studies," in New Challenges in the Social Studies...Byron G. Massialas and Frederick R. Smith, eds., (Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing, 1965), p. 8.

[17]John Schwab, "The Concept of Structure of a Discipline," in Structure in the Social Studies...ed. Louis J. Herbert and William Murphy, (Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1967), p. 48.

science be identified which will meet with the requirements of lower education? Likewise can the major concepts of political science as well as important generalisations be agreed upon to fit the needs of political science in secondary and primary education?

The problem of structure is very real considering the present state of American Political Science. It is possible to identify structures of political science, but to identify one acceptable to all cannot be done. However, the differences between these structures are differences of emphasis, and not substance. Sorauf points out this situation when speaking of Lasswell and Easton:

> . . . the complex of processes and institutions which make the authoritative allocation of values is society. The operative word here, of course, is authoritative, for it sets the political above the other allocative systems. The Easton formulation sees the political system as the inter-relationships by which men decide which competing goals and aspirations will be written into public policy and thus enforced in society.
>
> For Harold Lasswell this allocative system can be better understood by examining the power and influence of participants in it, by examining the ability of people to affect the allocation.[18]

Though no one structure will satisfy all concerned there are two which seem popular within the curriculum movement, and deserve illustration. The two structures will serve to point out both the variations in structures and at the same time close similarities. The structures presented are David Easton's (suggested by Lawrence Senesh as a possible structure for political science in secondary and primary education), and John Gibson developed at the Lincoln Filene

---

[18]Frank K. Sorauf, Perspectives on Political Science, (Columbus, Ohio: Merrill Books, 1966), p. 4.

Center for Citizenship and Public Affairs.[19]

The key idea in Easton's structure is the authoritative allocation of values in society. The emphasis upon authoritative allocation separates this from other allocative systems. If this structure were to be adopted in our school systems it would be a radical departure from present "institutional" or "descriptive" approaches to political science now being employed. Easton's system contains the following elements:

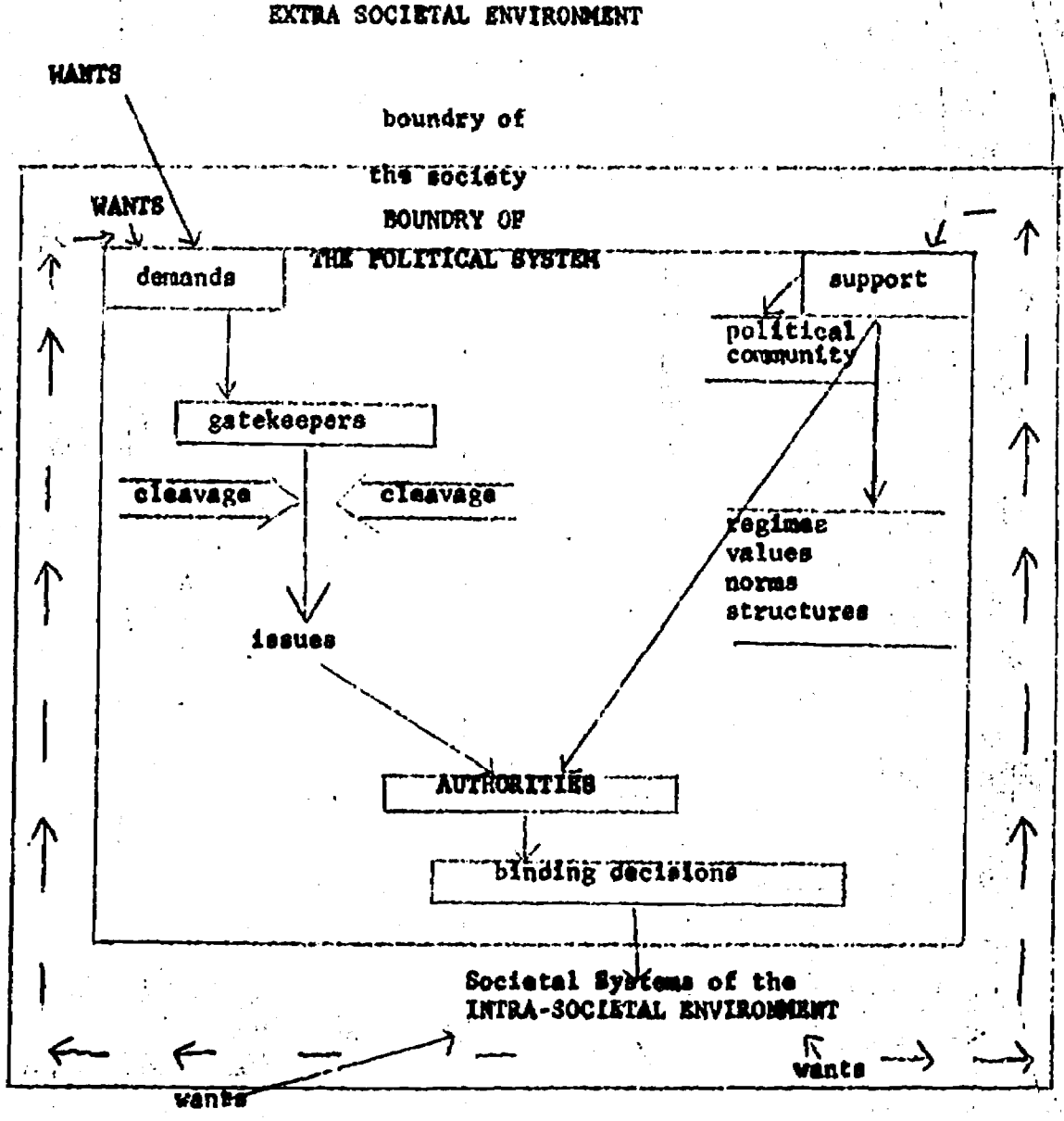
1. Members of society have many wants which they hope to satisfy.
2. Some of these wants will be satisfied through the economic system, family system, educational system, and religious system. Wants that cannot be satisfied by any of these systems are channeled to the political system.
3. As the people's wants enter the political system for satisfaction they become demands. These demands are screened.
4. The screening process operates through formal or informal organizations. These organizations act as gatekeepers. Some of the demands vanish. Others become issues debated in the political community . . .
5. The issues are molded by cleavages in the political community and by the authorities which translate these demands into binding decisions.
6. The binding decisions affect the social system and the participants in them, generating positive or negative support.
7. The support may be directed toward the political community, toward the regime (a political system which incorporates a particular set of values or norms and a particular structure of authority), and/or toward the authorities (the particular persons who occupy positions of political power within the structure of authority).
8. The binding decisions generate new wants which appear again at the gate of the political system asking for recognition.

---

[19] Lawrence Senesh, "Organizing a Curriculum Around Social Science Concepts," in New Frontiers in the Social Studies: Vol. II, Action and Analysis, ed. John S. Gibson (New York: Citation Press, 1967), pp. 81-82.

9. The source of the support for the political community, regime, and authorities may originate from the social systems in the form of education, patriotism, and other mechanisms.[20]

The following presents this system in graphic form to better illustrate the structure or design of Easton's system.




[20] Lawrence Senesh, "Organising a Curriculum Around Social Science Concepts," in New Frontiers in the Social Studies, Vol. II: Action and Analysis, ed. John R. Gibson (New York: Citation Press, 1967), pp. 79-82.

In addition to centering attention on allocation of wants by authoritative society this design also gives careful attention to the many influences placed on authority in its search for decisions reflecting the desires of society, as well as reflecting the desires of those who hold influence over authority.

Use of this structure in an educational framework would give students a better grasp of how our political society operates in fact as well as in theory. However like other aspects of education this structure by itself would not solve all the problems of political science in secondary or primary education. It can provide a partial answer educators are looking for in better relating to students the realities of the world in which the student does operate. Its value rests on the fact that as a structure it provides a framework for political science in our schools.

The design of John Gibson involves the inter-relationships between and among the fundamental components of governing within a "polity" and among "polities." Gibson calls his design the process approach. It implies an essential structure for the discipline of political science and can be visualized in an elementary or increasingly complex manner. The process principle also lends itself to various pedagogical designs which are useful in teaching political science.

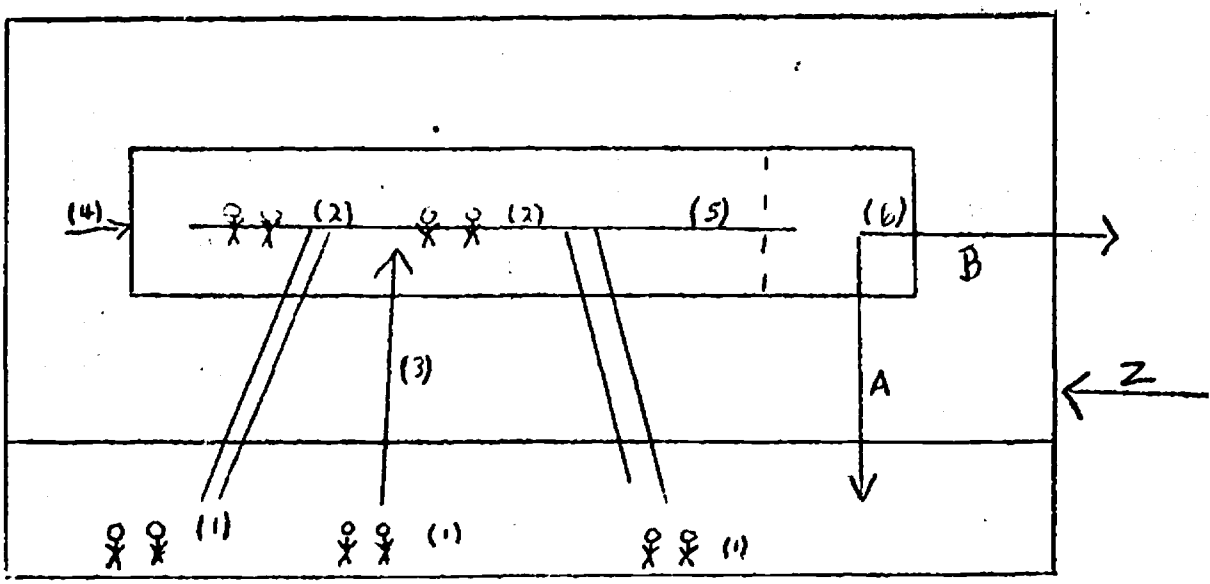
The process structure contains the following six components:

1. Members of the national society, the people or the governed.
2. Authoritative officals who govern, and who may or may not be subjected to the same authoritative policy as the governed.
3. The political process or the procedure which elevates officals to their positions of authority and which helps to shape the formulation and application of offical policy.

4. The structure of government, in which the officals make authoritative decisions and which, by its nature, is policy itself.

5. The shaping of authoritative policy, or policy making.

6. The laws, rules, and regulations (authoritative policies) which serve to regulate people and institutions within the polity and which allocate things of value with a view to furthering the security and well-being of the polity (as determined by many variables), or offical policy, and application thereof by officials. Policy is both domestic (a) and foreign (b) although the latter is less controled by authoritative officials than the former. The external arrow (z) is the impact and operation of the policy of an external polity upon the diagramed polity.[21]



Something must be said about generalizations and concepts used within the curriculum movement before considering the projects. It is impossible to establish a set list of generalizations or concepts agreeable to all.

> A complete list of concepts that is acceptable to all scholars has yet been developed; perhaps it never will be. Likewise the structure (the way ideas are related within a discipline) of the disciplines cannot be fully agreed upon by scholars.[22]

Some states have developed guide lines for generalizations and concepts such as California, New York, and Wisconsin. More will be said concerning concepts and generalizations when dealing with the project material in the next chapter. But in order to avoid confusion the following definitions for these two terms will be employed:

a. Concept

> A social studies concept is a word or phrase which has associated with it certain salient, inalienable features. The understanding and proper use of the concept depends on the mastery of the inalienable features as well as the common definitional meaning of the word.[23]

b. Generalization

> Generalizations are sometimes more technically referred to as 'inclusive statements of broad applicability based upon an organization of facts in two or more concepts.' . . . The difference between concepts and generalizations are largely differences of degree and complexity.[24]

---

[22]Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, A Conceptual Framework for the Social Studies (Madison: Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, 1966), p. 3.

[23]James C. Womack, Discovering the Structure of Social Studies (New York: Benziger Brothers, 1966), p. 20.

[24]California Department of Education, Report of the State Central Committee on Social Studies to the California State Curriculum Commission (Sacramento, California: Department of Education, 1961), p. 15.

## CHAPTER III

## NEW POLITICAL SCIENCE MATERIALS DEVELOPED BY SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM PROJECTS

The social studies projects (about fifty in number) actively engaged in developing new materials for the social studies classroom vary in scope and activity, covering the entire range of material within the social science domain. Some of these projects deal with specific areas of social science, i.e. history, sociology, political science, psychology, anthropology, while others have sought to develop an entire range of materials for social studies education in the schools. Some may seek to develop a core curriculum while Cleveland, for example, in its Greater Cleveland Social Science Program has developed an entire K-12 social studies program including course outlines, class materials, audio-visual aids, etc. Thus it is quite difficult to generalize about their work. However, after a brief study of the fifty projects fourteen were found as having a direct or indirect bearing in developing materials for political science. A few others also deal with political science but there materials were not sufficiently developed to be able to make a fair judgement. The fourteen projects this paper deals with are:

1. Those having a direct relationship to political science*:

   a. Bock, Edwin
      The Inter-University Case Program, Inc.;

*By direct bearing is meant a complete course or parts of courses sufficient to judge as a "political science entity."

b. Coleman, James
The John Hopkins University
Department of Social Relations;

c. Dow, Peter
Social Studies Curriculum Program
Education Development Center, Inc.;

d. English, Raymond
Greater Cleveland Social Science Program
Educational Research Council of Greater Cleveland;

e. Fenton, Ewin and Good, John
Social Studies Curriculum Development Center
Carnegie Institute of Technology;

f. Gibson, John
Lincoln Filene Center for Citizenship and Public Affairs;

g. Leppert, Ella and Fayette, Roland
University of Illinois Curriculum Laboratory*;

h. Mehlinger, Howard
High School Curriculum Center in Government
Indiana University;

2. Indirect relationship to political science:

a. Halsey, jr., Van
Amherst College;

b. Holburn, Nicholas
High School Geography Project;

c. Michaelis, John
School of Education, University of California;

d. Moore, Jerry
NCA Foreign Relations Project;

e. Oliver, Donald
Harvard Social Studies Project;

f. Rorvene
Department of American Studies
Amherst College.

*Failed to respond.

## Social Studies Projects With a Direct Relationship to Political Science

A. THE INTER-UNIVERSITY CASE PROGRAM, INC., Edwin Bock, Director.

Purpose: This program was established to provide and stimulate the use and production of case studies especially as a tool in teaching public administration and formation of public policy. The Inter-University Case Program states its aims as:

1. Enlarging the existing basis for realistic generalizations about administrative organization and behavior;
2. Exploring the manner in which insights developed by the various social sciences and disciplines can be marshaled in administrative policy;
3. Making generally available a body of varied case materials useful for teaching purposes, for scholarly inquiry, and for analysis by practitioners in the field of public administration;
4. Securing widespread acceptance of the case study technique as a scholarly tool of research and reporting for use in theses, dissertations, and learned articles.[25]

Theme: Under the broad question of public policy and administration there is much room for discussion and insight. The ICP program covers a wide range of materials dealing with policy and administration. The case studies have been designed for college use, however certain cases can be used within secondary education. This use will depend on an instructor's intention; his class abilities and limitations; the design of an individual case study; or any other factor a good instructor must take into account before presenting material to

---

[25]Edwin Bock, Number 66: A Question of Religion (Indianapolis, Indiana: Bobbs-Merrill Publishing Company, 1966), p. 1.

PAGE 22 IS NOT AVAILABLE
FOR FILMING AT THIS TIME

In reviewing the topical areas covered by ICP it is possible to use these cases within a structure of political science. For example, in both Easton's and Gibson's structure the question of public policy (its formation and implementation) are considered. Easton's structure number five speaks specifically about public policy or administration. "The issued are molded by cleavages in the political community and by the authorities which translate these demands into binding decisions.[28] The same could be said for Gibson's structure number five. "The shaping of authoritative policy, or policy making."[29] Thus some of the cases developed by ICP can be developed within the structural framework of political science.

The cases themselves tend to be single-concept centered. That is they tend to develop one particular aspect of public policy and/or administration. Because of this narrow focus these case studies can be most valuable in the education of students to the complexity and difficulty of an area such as public administration and policy.

Materials Reviewed: As stated before not all these materials can be used on the secondary level. A careful reading of the summary index provided by Bobbs-Merrill will indicate what materials may be of interest and use to a secondary social studies program. The cases which can be, or will be used, offer a rich

---

[28]Lawrence Senesh, "Organizing a Curriculum Around Social Science Concepts," in New Frontiers in the Social Studies: Vol. II: Action and Analysis, ed. John S. Gibson (New York: Citation Press, 1967), p. 80.

[29]John S. Gibson, "The Process Approach" in Political Science in the Social Studies, eds. Donald H. Riddle and Robert E. Cleary (Washington: Thirty-sixth Yearbook of NCSS, 1966), p. 66.

experience for teacher and student. This area is not covered to any great extent today in secondary education. Citizens of all ages come into contact with public administration by helping students to understand some of the methods as well as problems of operation the ICP has contributed to the development of a better social studies curriculum.

Comments: The ICP program has given secondary school teachers useful materials in an area of political science not often treated at this level. The many and varied cases on public policy and administration (1968 one hundred and six cases were available) offer a wide area of concern for both teachers and students.

B. SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM PROGRAM, Peter B. Dow, director.

Purpose: To develop a comprehensive social studies curriculum based upon recent advances in educational research using the inductive approach. The program is not limited to secondary education, nor to the field of political science. The upper division courses (grades seven-nine) are still in the planning stage, but a general outline and guide for these courses exist in Occasional Paper no 4: Man and Politics; which gives a clear indication of the trends and developments of this program.

Theme: The three year program under development for grades seven to nine has as its central theme "Man as a Political Being." The central organizing concept for the three year program is power. Using this power concept some vital questions are considered which will help students to look at man and his world. Some of the questions this program plans to use are:

1. What is power in human society?

2. Why is power a part of human society?

3. What does power rely upon?

4. What are the values of power?

5. What are the evils of power?

6. How do people protect themselves against excesses of power?

7. How does power operate to survive?

8. What are the conditions under which power sickens and dies?

In conjunction with the notion of power the program also plans to develop the notion of political culture using the work of Almon and Verba. Political culture is used in the project as follows:

1. parochial political culture,

2. subject political culture,

3. the participant political culture.

Power and culture are developed within the framework of the three planned courses for grade seven through nine:

grade seven-- Inventing the Western World

grade eight-- From Subject to Citizen

grade nine-- The Civic Culture

Structure: The courses as planned do indeed follow a definite structure and central theme, as noted above. It is not difficult to see how these courses could be placed within the context of Gibson's or Easton's structural design. Both Easton and Gibson would use power and political culture within their designs. Easton, for example, bases his design on "authoritative allocation." However, until the courses take a final form it is somewhat premature to speculate on the internal structure of the program or how closely it correlates with Easton or Gibson.

Some knowledge of the internal structure of this project's material can be seen by looking at the planned framework for its eight grade course. This course, the project feels, is pivotal within the three year program. It will consist of six units:

1. Elizabethan Society 1558-1610,
2. England in Crisis and Civil War 1629-1660,
3. The Glorious Revolution 1685-1714,
4. Colonial America 1630-1750,
5. The Making of the American Revolution 1763-1783,
6. The American Constitution 1778-1801.

These units are so planned as to relate the English revolutionary experience to its American counterpart.

Materials Reviewed: Because the program is still under development, student and teacher materials were not available. The project did make available some materials they developed concerning the Negro in America. From these materials a notion regarding the type and thrust the seventh to ninth grade programs may take can be developed.

The Negro in America is an eight part unit designed to present to students some idea of contributions Negros have made to our American way of life; and to raise the difficult question of race and prejudice from an historical and contemporary point of view. These materials place heavy emphasis upon historical documents and their interpretation by students.

For example the section dealing with slavery makes use of prints and pictures of that era. In addition, copies of letters, documents, ads, etc.

from the slave era are used to develop within the student a notion of slavery as it truly was. The materials seek to develop a fair and honest impression of slavery: its uses, abuses, advantages and disadvantages.

Comments: Because the three year program is a developmental stage it is difficult to comment on its value. However, if the materials develop along the lines set for them by the project, a rather interesting program looms in the offering.

In relation to political science it provides another viewpoint upon which students can discover and develop their ideas about the world of politics. Certainly a number of techniques used in political science will be employed for the students use. For example the heavy reliance on source materials seems an effective tool for both historians and political science. By using this technique for seventh through ninth grade these students will also develop the skills historians and political scientist need with source materials.

When the designed program does become available, it should provide an interesting program for this grade level. Especially by pointing out the importance of politics in our history and culture --as well as point out the impact history and culture have had, and does have on politics and society of today.

C. DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL RELATIONS, JOHN HOPKINS UNIVERSITY, James Coleman, director

Purpose: This project concerns itself with the use of games as a tool in student learning. The term game while adequate does not fully express the concept employed, the term "simulation" would be more adequate. Simulations are not

new to the social studies area, but it is only in recent years that their wide use and exploration has come about. John Gibson points out what role simulation may play in a social studies program when he stated:

> A game may be incorporated into a social studies program, course, or unit to simulate reality and stimulate investigation.[30]

The department of social ..lation : at John Hopkins has not restricted itself to a particular aspect of social studies, but have developed programs within the area of economics, psychology and political science, to name a few. Of interest here is a series of games entitled Democracy which seeks to have students act out the role of legislatures. Three basic games are suggested with advanced versions of the game which are based on the original basic game "Legislative Session." "Legislative Session" has as its object the role of representatives (played by the students) who are seeking to meet the demands of their constituents.

Theme: The general tone of each of these games is to place students into a "simulation" or environment similar to that which the instructor is attempting to convey to his students. The reasoning behind this is obvious: By placing a student in a situation similar to the "real situation" much more can be understood and learned by him than merely if the instructor related the information. Man being what he is learns more readily from experience than theory. This basic fact is exploited by the simulation experience.

Besides the basic game there are seven others in the Democracy series. Games two and three are considered simple variants of game one, while the last

---

[30]John S. Gibson, New Frontiers in the Social Studies, Vol. I: Goals for Students, Means for Teachers (New York: Citation Press, 1967), p. 154.

five are advanced versions:

1. Legislative Session,
2. Citizens' Action Meeting,
3. Representative Democracy,
4. A Legislator's Own Convictions,
5. The Power of the Floor Leader in a Legislature,
6. Passage of Legislative Program,
7. Committee Structure in the Legislature,
8. Taxation and Public Expenditure.

Structure: The simulations developed at Hopkins work well within the Easton and Gibson structures. In "Legislative Session" for example the question of public policy is considered, or the question of voter influence for example. In Easton this would fall under the category of the screening process or gatekeepers, as well as the area of issues and their resolve. Under Gibson this would be a question of how elected officials remain in office; how policy is made, and how the populace can influence public decision. And in some ways this game could be used to discuss with the students the entire spectrum of the political process (or political science model) while focusing attention or direction on the legislature and its role in public policy.

Materials Reviewed: The Game of Democracy, a description of it has already been given.

Comments: The question of games and their use or function in education is a complex one. It would seem that they will in the future play a greater role in the education process. The games described here are rather simple tools easy for

teachers and students to grasp. They are in a real sense the first generation of a new education tool. The future holds many variants of these simple tools.

Political science has many aspects, such as conventions; legislative action, citizen participation, executive action, which can very readily be adopted to simulation. These areas of political science can thus be explained in several ways. The task before teachers and political scientist today is to sort out what can and cannot be taught best, or most effectively through the simulation technique.

D. GREATER CLEVELAND SOCIAL SCIENCE PROGRAM, Raymond English, director.

Purpose: The Cleveland program has developed, and is developing a comprehensive social science program from kindergarten through grade twelve. Materials as of 1969 were available up to and including grade nine. The ninth grade program centers around political and economic issues. The planned twelfth grade course will also consider politics to a great extent, but this material is still under development.

The Cleveland program is based on three principles. First: a conceptually centered program where learning is centered around key ideas. Second: a program of integrated learning which includes all social science disciplines. Third: a sequential program from kindergarten through grade twelve. The plan is to have children who complete the entire spectrum of materials to have an ordered knowledge of the social sciences. The program also hopes that the child should acquire the values this curriculum is trying to foster:

> The program stresses the American heritage of freedom; it develops respect for human dignity; it instills the sense of social responsibility; and it tries to inculcate a spirit of life-long interest in the welfare

of the community, state, nation, and mankind.[31]

Themes: In order to understand the purpose and goals of grade nine a comparison of the U.S. and U.S.S.R. in government and economics,,one must first look at what has preceded it. The council provides a rather interesting guide to their program (GCSSP Program Brochure) which covers all its materials. From information provided in this brochure it can be seen that questions about politics have also been considered in seventh and eighth grade. Grade seven considers the following questions:

The Challenges of our Times

I-II The Recent and Contemporary World,

III-IV The Recent and Contemporary World.

Grade eight is a course in American History. Its central theme is, of course, important historical questions found in U.S. History and the question of politics does receive attention insofar as politics has played a role in our history.

Structure: It would seem the Cleveland Council has developed its own conception of a structure for political science, or at the very least centers of concentration and interest in politics. This can be observed in the guides given for the total curriculum. Within the curriculum the following themes found deal with Political science:

The nature of government,

The nature of law,

Constitutionalism vs. arbitariness,

---

[31]Raymond English, ed., Greater Cleveland Social Science Program Brochure (Cleveland: Education Research Council of Greater Cleveland, 1966), p.1.

Political obligation,

Values in politics,

Domestic political struggles,

Types of government,

International politics,

Political ideologies,

American government.

These themes do not seem to contradict either Gibson or Easton in analysis of political science's structure. However, the structure the Cleveland program has developed covers the entire K-12 program. Gibson and Easton work in a refined and narrow presentation for political science. Cleveland on the other hand has twelve years in which it presents politics to students. Cleveland also takes an interdisciplinary approach to social science (though the ninth grade program does deal specifically with political science.

Materials Reviewed: The ninth grade course was used for this evaluation. This course deals not only with politics but also considers economic questions and issues in comparing the United States to the Soviet Union. Part of the ninth grade course considers geographic data (for each of the grades the Cleveland program has developed area studies). Within the ninth grade the following areas consider political science:

I-II Analyzing Politics,

III-IV The Federal System,

VII The Soviet Union,

VIII International Politics.

Part one and two are interesting in that they provide a structure for political science that students will use during this course. The structure is put in the form of questions political science ask and the students will use in this course. The questions used are in many ways similar to Gibson's structure, though with little adjustment they could also be applied to Easton. These questions are:

1. Why are governments necessary?
2. What functions do governments perform?
3. Are governments liable to abuse their powers?
4. How can governments be prevented from abusing their powers?
5. Are there different kinds (or 'forms') of governments? How can they be classified?
6. Do different forms of government use power in different ways?
7. What makes certain men and women strive to play a part in government or to control government?
8. Can you have government without politics? And what is 'politics'? How do political parties and other political groups arise? How do they operate?
9. How do ideas influence government and politics? (For example: moral values, culture patterns, religion, patriotism, ideology.)
10. What are (and what ought to be) the relations between 'nations' (or 'sovereign states')?
11. Why and how do people obey their governments?[32]

This "structure" is immediately applied in the course, as for example, part two considers the question of local politics. From local politics the question shifts to the federal system. In part seven the Soviet Union is contrasted

---

[32]Sherwood J. B. Sugden, ed., Analyzing Politics I-II (Cleveland: Educational Research Council of Greater Cleveland, 1967), pp. 17-18.

with the United States. Finally the course concluden with an analysis of international politics and the question of "obligations" from a political point of view.

Comments: This was the only K-12 program considered. There are a few others under development, but only Cleveland has reached such a degree of completion. Developing such an extensive program can have its advantages and disadvantages. Certainly with the time available in the course of twelve years of study much material from each social science can be presented in one form or another. The difficulty such a program has to overcome is trying to establish a complete or adequate analysis for each of the social sciences. From the materials used for this study the program has accomplished this goal for political science. Perhaps one other problem a K-12 program faces is its partial use by other school districts. Just how successful would be the use of the ninth grade course without prior use of materials from kindergarten through grade eight is difficult to judge without reliable data.

E. SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT CENTER, Edwin Fenton and John M. Good, co-directors.

Purpose: The development of a high school social studies program based on the "inquiry technique" to aid students in the development of attitudes, values, inquiry (skills of learning), and knowledge of selected generalizations from history and the social sciences. The program contains the following course sequence:

1. Grade Nine: Comparative Political Systems, Comparative Economic Systems,

2. Grade Ten: The Shaping of Western Society, Studies in the Non-Western World,

3. Grade Eleven: A New History of the United States,

4. Grade Twelve: Introduction to the Behavioral Studies, The Humanities in Their Social Settings.

The program began in 1953 in a joint effort by Carnegie Institute of Technology and the Pittsburgh public school system. Since that time the center has received funds from the U.S. Office of Education to aid in developing their program. In 1966 Holt, Rinehart, and Winston contracted to publish their materials. Publication of the four year social studies program was completed in September of 1969.

The four year program seeks to aid students in forming and using hypotheses as used by scholars of various social science disciplines in analyzing society. In addition to forming students in hypothesis technique the program also is interested in the development of attitudes, values, and knowledge content. The teacher's guide to this social studies curriculum makes this point quite clear:

> Attitudes
>
> The good citizen wants to participate actively in politics. He wants to hear all sides of a debate and make up his mind about an issue through reasoned investigation, not through reliance on authority or prejudice. The Holt Social Studies Curriculum fosters such attitudes by requiring students to join in class discussion and by encouraging them to use a scientific method of inquiry.
>
> Values
>
> The good citizen also has a set of values consistent with democratic creed. The Holt Social Studies Curriculum presents controversial issues which challenge the student's values and which encourage him to reflect upon his values and to resolve value conflicts in the light of evidence. The goal is reflection, not consensus. If a student emerges from the curriculum with the same

values he held at the beginning of his study, he will have learned how to support his values intelligently. If, on the other hand, he finds that some of the values he has held have failed to pass the test of evidence, he can abandon them for others. In either case, he will gain a better knowledge of himself and of the world around him.

Knowledge of Content

Four objectives governed the selection of content throughout the curriculum. First, the development team chose material which helps students to learn a conceptual scheme from the social sciences which is essential to a method of inquiry. Second, they chose material that fills the needs and touches the interests of modern American students. Third, they chose problems in the past, such as economic growth in eighteenth-century Britain or the history of the Negro in the United States, which illuminate such contemporary problems as the needs of underdeveloped countries or racial tensions. Finally, they tried to present a body of knowledge that will help students to read books intelligently, to view exhibits in museums with understanding, and to participate fully in the rich cultural life of a democracy.[33]

Themes: In the previous discussion of the four goals of this program we have considered the basic themes. The same four goals appear in the Comparative Political Systems Course. An advantage to this course within the context of the four year sequence is its place as the first course taught. The concepts and principles dealt with during the first year will repeat themselves during the next three years in the world history course taught in second year, in American History of third year, and in the Behavioral Science course (on a very limited basis) and in the Humanities course of fourth year. The tools students learn in the first year will be used and refined as the curriculum developes. Students who enter the program at a later date will find it difficult at first to develop these concepts but because of their repeated use within the total context of the program, these students should be able to develop an understanding of their significance.

---

[33]Mindella Schultz, Teachers Guide for Comparative Political Systems an Inductive Approach (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1967), pp. x-xi. permission of publisher.

The ninth grade course tries to present a system or structure students can use to compare governmental systems. It also serves as a basic introduction to the American and Soviet systems; these two basic models are used throughout the course. The five concepts spoken of earlier are the tools used for comparison. These concepts are: political leadership, decision-making, institutions, ideology, and the role of a citizen. After a brief introduction of all five concepts and a short exercise in using these concepts to consider a primitive Indian society and how the concepts serve to analyze a government; the five concepts are then considered at length comparing the American and Soviet systems.

Structure: The five concepts serve as the structure of this course. Around them is built an analysis of political systems. The structure may not be as highly developed as Gibson's or Easton's but it does serve as an excellent framework upon which political knowledge can be developed. The five concepts are also the same key elements considered in the two model structures used, namely: government officials, policy decisions, institutions, and ideological framework, as well as citizen participation.

Materials Reviewed: Much has already been said about the course. It consists of sixty readings divided into six units;

1. Introduction to Comparative Political Systems,
2. Political Institutions and Ideologies: US and USSR,
3. Political Leadership: US and USSR,
4. Political Decision-Making: US and USSR
5. The Role of the Citizen: US and USSR,
6. Rights and Liberties in Democracy.

The readings vary from historical accounts, excerpts from newspapers, and readings developed by the center itself. Along with the text is an extensive use of audio-visual aids ranging from film strips to student handouts and a complete testing program.

Comments: As perhaps the first complete program of the projects now on the market, this offers the first real test of the success of a new approach compared to what we might term "traditional" social studies. However, it is still too early to tell how successful this program will prove to be.

Before proceeding to the next project something should be said about the "comparative" nature of this program, a feature found also in the Cleveland social studies program. In many ways it follows the scheme set forth by Almon (Comparative Politics). The design attempts to set forth common characteristics of governing systems and then analyze the systems for similarities and differences. The ninth grade course does this using the five concepts first by developing a clear understanding of what is meant by the concepts and then using these to consider the U.S. and Soviet systems.

F. LINCOLN FILENE CENTER FOR CITIZENSHIP AND PUBLIC AFFAIRS, John S. Gibson, director.

Purpose: This project seeks to relate current affairs to the various social studies disciplines used in secondary schools. It places particular emphasis upon history and political science. Political science is used as the basis for a civics course closely related to the theme of current events. Four underlying principles guide the center's program:

1. closely relating current affairs to social studies matter,

2. employing the theme approach in linking the "here and now" to social studies courses,

3. utilizing the governing process (structure) design as the central framework in teaching and learning,

4. relying extensively upon "Newsweek" magazine as the main source of current affairs information.

Themes: Current affairs can be seen in light of certain central themes which form a basis for all social studies programs on the secondary level and as a part of the core of knowledge the social studies seeks to impart. The Filene Center has identified sixteen themes which it feels have a definite political connotation and which provide a basis in linking current affairs to the high school curriculum. The themes are as follows:

1. The national character of the people of a polity,
2. Human rights,
3. The moral domain,
4. The humanities,
5. Economic issues,
6. Science and technology,
7. Nationalism,
8. The political process,
9. Revolutions,
10. Due process of law,
11. Government social regulation,
12. Conflict,
13. Resolution of conflict,
14. International organization,
15. Ideologies,
16. Exploration.

This list is not exhaustive, but the center feels it can provide an adequate framework upon which the teacher can build and link the past with the present.

Structure: Gibson's political process model has been discussed previously. It is not difficult to see how the above themes work within the political process framework he has worked out. The merit of this structure is its simplicity, which presents in a clear manner a description of the political process. However, as in any description or analogy it cannot be mistaken for the real life situation. How to relate the conceptualized analysis of the system is one of the basic tasks for an instructor.

Materials Reviewed: Certain of the center's materials used within the civics course were available for analysis. The course itself is divided into six segments which relate closely to Gibson's structure. The basic technique is to use case studies from literature and history:

1. Citizenship Behavior: Diary of a Young Girl,
   Narrative of the Life of Frederick Douglas,
2. Politics: The Making of the President 1960,
3. Organization of Government: They Made a Nation,
   Mandate for Change,
4. Legal Processes: Gideon's Trumpet,
5. Role of Government: The Jungle,
   The Real Voice,
6. Foreign Policy: The Missle Crisis.

In the case study based on The Jungle by Sinclair for example the role of government and citizens within the policy making process is developed. This case is divided into two parts: one is a simplified version of The Jungle;

the other attempts to show how this book helped to shape this countries federal meat inspection legislation. The object of the study is to help students understand what citizens can do in the formation of government policy.

Comments: The Filene Center has developed an interesting program. It is in many ways similar to other projects in its aims and purpose. Its chief advantage is a rather clear and precise explanation of what the course is seeking to do, how it should be accomplished, and what can be done within its context. The program also has flexibility in which other important political science concepts and materials can be developed by a teacher.

C. HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM CENTER IN GOVERNMENT INDIANA UNIVERSITY, Howard D. Mehlinger, director.

Purpose: To develop high school political science courses based on studies done in political socialization of youth. This project is one solely interested in pursuing the matter of political science on the secondary level. Though it is somewhat late in relation to other projects discussed, and its materials are still in a formative stage, there is much that can be discussed about the work done by this group.

The center is presently working on courses for the ninth and twelfth grades, with the program for grade nine in a more advanced stage of development:

American Political Behavior (two semesters) - - grade nine

The American Political System (two semesters) - - grade twelve

Comparative Political Systems

The ninth grade course is not at a stage were experimental materials are being tested by certain school systems.

The center sees political science courses as a means of comparing values, attitudes, and beliefs with others, thereby aiding students in grasping political culture, socialization, and the relationship between political attitudes and behavior. Instead of opting for an entirely new social studies curriculum (either K-12, or grades 9-12) the center has decided to work within the existing framework, that is, the courses which it is now developing can be used within existing social studies secondary school curriculum sequence.

Theme: The ninth grade course may be used as a high school introductory course to the social sciences, or it can be used as a civics course. The central theme of the program is politics, which should be kept in mind. The course seeks to develop contemporary themes in political science to use what the center considers prevalent in political science discipline today. Their approach more than any of the other projects centers on a behavioral method as used in the social sciences and in political science. This is the reason the center believes this course can serve as an introduction to the social sciences. This position is in agreement with many voices within the political science discipline:

> The techniques of political analysis are not distinctively political. Indeed, except for content analysis, invented by Harold Lasswell, no method owes its origins to a political scientist. To be sure, important adaptations have been made by political scientists in the use of surveys, interviews, simulation, and computers. These adaptations, like the original methods, are not peculiarly political.[34]

The center recognizes the fact that few teachers at present are trained in this manner, but feel they can become accustom to it.

Structure: Mehlinger and the center take issue with Burner's thesis on structure, though they do not disagree with it entirely. They contend that no one structure exists for political science, though one might wonder if Burner would not say the same thing. Instead of focusing their work on a given structure the center approaches political science from a conceptual standpoint. Both Easton and Gibson, it seems, would not disagree with this assumption. They have in fact offered alternative structures or approaches to the study of political science. The Indiana programs offer a third alternative based on a concept centered structure.

Materials Reviewed: The experimental ninth grade text was used for this review. The fact that it is experimental should be kept in mind. The course as it now exists consists of four nine week units:

1. The Context of American Political Behavior,
2. How Americans act in their role as citizens,
3. Individual citizens occupying "unofficial" political leadership roles,
4. "Official" political leaders: (Bureaucrats, legislators, judges, executive officials).

Emphasis is placed on the inquiry approach to the study of this material. Students are guided through the program using the concepts which the center feels makes up the structure of the program. These materials are as interesting and equal to those of the other projects (considering their present experimental nature.)

The behavioral aspects of this program can be seen in the day to day activity used in this course. Many laboratory exercises are employed to help develop particular themes of the course, and help the students gain experience in behavioral techniques such as surveys, statistics, interviews, etc.

Comments: Depending on how soon the center can evaluate their material and make it available to the public, a new and exciting program will be available. The center takes a different stand on the notion of political science and what should be taught within secondary social studies. Political science can be approached from various directions. With the addition of this program another of these directions can be employed. At present most secondary political science courses use a very traditional approach to the subject and content of political science, with the introduction of this material a behavioral approach will become available for those who care to use it.

Social Studies Projects With An Indirect Relationship To Political Science

Six other projects were reviewed because it was felt that they had at least an indirect relationship to political science materials being developed for secondary education. Two of these projects will be discussed to give an indication of the direction these areas of research are taking. A "social studies" course often tends to be an ambiguous umbrella covering many social science disciplines. Thus there tends to be overlaping of materials in each project.

The two projects offer a fair sample of the techniques employed by these projects. They are not attempting to develop political science materials, but in the course of working within the social studies context, or their own particular discipline, political science becomes an issue. The two projects discussed are:

A. Harvard Social Studies Project,

B. The High School Geography Project.

Some areas of the social sciences are more concerned with political science than others. This is pointed out by the fact that four out of the six projects reviewed deal with history. The other two are the geography project and area studies developed by the NCA Foreign Relations Project.

A. Harvard Social Studies Project, Donald W. Oliver, director.

Purpose: The Harvard project concerns itself with an analysis of public issues. It attempts to help students analyze and discuss "persisting human dilemmas related to public issues." Most of the materials are directed at average students to help clarify and justify positions of students on public issues and to develop student positions on public issues. The Harvard project uses various techniques, such as; historical, fictional, and present day accounts or situations which will illustrate basic value conflicts of man.

The project sees its material as useful in a number and variety of secondary social studies programs-- history, current events, civics, etc. Though most material has special meaning to the history teacher, with not too much difficulty these booklets can be used well in most social studies programs.

Themes: The one central theme throughout the series is an analysis of public issues and basic human values. As of the fall of 1968 the following titles were published:

Taking a Stand.

The American Revolution.

Religious Freedom.

The Railroad Era.

The Rise of Organized Labor.

The Immigrant's Experience.

The New Deal.

Negro Views of America.

Community Change.

Rights of the Accused

The Lawsuit.

Municipal Politics.

A look at each title would reveal what public issue was being discussed along with its application to social science courses in the secondary school curriculum. For example, The American Revolution concerns itself with the question: "Is violence ever justified in the pursuit of a political goal?" If so how do people make such judgements to support such a movement? Along with this central theme some other topics suggest themselves, according to the Harvard Project. These topics would include: the right to revolt; nature of treason; nature of violence; the question of law and order. Therefore, a teacher would have to be careful not to over look an application of one or more of these themes in using this case study. The same, of course, could be said of the others; many of them have multipurpose uses within social studies. For example, The Railroad Era has its application to political science in its analysis of the problem of public interest or in its consideration of the relationship between private enterprise and government.

Structure: There is, of course, no structure in the sense described previously; rather, there is the central theme of "public issues" which unites these widely scattered case studies into workable proportions. It seems that the most obvious application of this program would be supplemental use within the context of an existing social studies program. However, the Harvard project believes their material could likewise form a separate course within a secondary

school social studies curriculum. These units could likewise be developed within the context of Gibson's or Easton's structure. For example, the question of political process dealt with in the unit, Municipal Politics, would work well within the process approach of Gibson's structure.

Materials Reviewed: All of the titles listed were available for review. Municipal Politics will be briefly discussed here. The pedagogical methods and materials in this unit are similar to what is available in each of the other units.

Municipal Politics discusses three basic issues centering around the story of the development of a public beach in Jasper City. The story is fictional, though the question asked is quite common to city politics. Three issues receive extensive treatment in this unit:

1. How political decisions are actually made?
2. What tactics or methods people use to operate successfully in politics. Whether these tactics are fair and democratic?
3. Informal political pressures and the question of conflict of interest.

The materials demand interest and thought for the student to follow its argumentation and questions basic to the issues discussed. The issues are revelant and reveal much of what goes on in the day to day handling of problems by officials in city government. Especially revealing in this account is the attention given to "informal political pressures" and how they operate upon the system and people within the system.

Comments: One of the real advantages presented in this program is the intense interest it seems to generate in the materials to capture students interest.

This is an attempt to have students correlate materials presented with present day issues and problems. It is an attempt to develop in students the tools or skills needed to understand public issues and problems. This is perhaps its major contribution to political science or other social sciences. These units attempt to give students an understanding of major problems; to have the students practice applying various techniques in understanding issues; and to have students see problems within the context of their historical setting, and the ways and means society and government can or do attempt to handle these questions. If these goals are accomplished it is not too difficult to see their importance for political science.

B. High School Geography Project, Nicholas Helburn, director.

Purpose: This secondary school social studies project concerns itself with the development and clarification of high school geography. Like many other projects, heavy emphasis is placed on inductive thinking, problem solving, use of generalizations. It is based on Bruner's thesis, with its attempt to relate facts to structure, emphasis on conceptual knowledge, and the acquisition of skills. Unit 9: Geography in an Urban Area is of interest to this thesis.

Theme: Unit 9 attempts two things. First, to instill in the student the idea that politically organized groups operate within a well defined political territory. Second, that there is a "spatial" structure to political organization and the political process. The units begin with local territorial considerations familiar to students building up to the concept of world politics.

Structure: The internal structure of Unit 9 can readily be understood. It is a logical progression from what is known and familiar to a student, towards that

which is unknown and remote to him. It is not a structure of political science, but it does offer a perspective on political science. In looking at the question of political territory from a geographer's point of view, students can broaden their knowledge of this topic and understand it from more than one disciplines understanding. This particular insight into the question of political territory could be viewed from the structures of Gibson and Easton. Within Gibson's structure the matter of political geography can be studied in relation to the aspects of (1) members of the national society; (6) domestic and foreign policy. To a lesser degree the topic would work within Easton's entire framework.

The value of this unit in relation to structure lies in a conception of political territory from a geographer's viewpoint. This gives students insights and notions which tend to broaden their concept of territory and politics.

Materials Reviewed: Unit 9 consists of nine activities designed to instill the concepts pertaining to political geography. The activities carry out the theme of going from the known to the unknown.

Although guidelines given for this unit do not include student materials, they do provide the general direction these will take, as well as providing suggestions for classroom instruction.

Comments: Social studies on the secondary level tends to be an intertwining of many social studies disciplines. Even considered separately each social science discipline to a greater or lesser degree either presumes or uses materials, concepts, methods, etc., of other social science disciplines. This is also true of political science, and so it is not strange to find geographers talking

and writing about political matters. The value then of this unit to political science is having another social science discipline look at particular aspects of political matters. Considering territory and political process from a geographer's point of view adds a new dimension to a high school social studies course, or a high school political science course, for it gives students deeper insights into complex questions which can be examined from many different points of view using different social science disciplines.

## CHAPTER IV

## POSSIBLE IMPACT ON THE COLLEGES

Within the next five years, as the new social studies program, and their new political science courses takehold within grade and high school curricula, a new generation of students will be entering our colleges and universities. These students will have a different perspective of political science and will in a sense have a different content base than present college students. What will all this do to existing programs within our colleges? Will it demand new techniques, new courses, new teaching aids? A tentative answer would seem to affirm this.

It was difficult throughout this paper to separate content from method. This is one of the characteristics of the new social studies. In considering their materials, one must above all consider their techniques in presenting material. The content, while being somewhat different from that which is still found in our schools will not be as dramatic in change as are the techniques employed. If anything, students coming to our colleges should have a better grasp of the content and structure of political science in particular and the social sciences in general, because of the way in which the courses were presented in the lower grades.

When consideration was given to projects directly concerned with the formation of political science curricula for secondary schools, a central factor discovered in each of these projects was the structuring in some form or other of the discipline of political science. Each project in its own way attempted to make the broad spectrum of politics intelligible to students by providing them with a structure upon which to build a comprehensive program. These projects may have given differing views and insights into the structure of political science; they may have presented individual structures with which their programs were developed; in spite of these differences, each program gives students a structure upon which to develop a knowledge of politics.

Therefore, as these students begin their higher education with a structured framework for political science already understood, professors will be able to use this basic knowledge around which their courses can be developed. A student who already understands the scope of political science; some of its methods of investigation, and some of the important questions political science deals with, can be expected to begin his college work at a different level from those with little or no previous contact with the discipline.

In a similar fashion a greater attention will have to be paid in the college program to the matter of concepts. As the conceptual approach takes hold within grade and high school courses, an adjustment will have to be made at the college level. Even today many college professors do use concepts in a fashion not unlike that which the projects have planned for the social science curriculum. The difference will be felt when students from the lower grades enter college. It seems they will be more sophisticated and developed in the technique of conceptual education. This may call for more work by professors to adjust to their students.

We like to think our colleges develop thinking citizens. The social studies projects make this one of their prime objectives. Even if the projects fail partially to achieve this goal it seems students will be better equipped to meet the challenge of thought. This means professors must be ready to challenge students in modes and manners which may be somewhat different from todays classroom.

Generalizations must be treated in a similar manner to structure and concepts. It would seem as more attention is paid within the school program to getting students to make generalizations, and as these generalizations become apparent to students an additional adjustment will have to be made at the college level. Students in the next few years may not be as ready to accept the word of a professor. They may question and challenge what is said and why it is said. Students and professors will be challenged to make sure that what is said has reason to be said.

The students coming to our colleges in the next few years will most likely be well versed in the technique Fenton describes as the mode of Inquiry:

> Like a professional historian or social scientist, a good citizen has inquiry skills with which he can separate truth from falsehood. For this curriculum, the development team has identified six steps in a method of inquiry for the social studies:
>
> 1. Recognizing a problem from data,
> 2. Formulation of an hypothesis,
>    a. Asking analytical questions,
>    b. Stating hypothesis,
>    c. Remaining aware that an hypothesis is tentative.
> 3. Recognizing the logical implications of an hypothesis.

4. Gathering data,

   a. Deciding what data will be needed to test an hypothesis,

   b. Selecting or rejecting sources on the basis of their relevance to the hypothesis.

5. Analysing, evaluating, and interpreting data,

   a. Selecting revelant data from the sources,

   b. Evaluating the sources,

      1) Determining the frame of reference of the author of a source,

      2) Determining the accuracy of statements of fact.

6. Evaluating the hypothesis in light of the data,

   a. Modifying the hypothesis, if necessary,

   b. Rejecting a logical implication unsupported by data,

   c. Restating the hypothesis,

   d. Stating a generalisation.[35]

The college instructor could make good use of students' abilities for inquiry during the course work of college and graduate studies in political science as well as other social sciences.

This mode of inquiry is tied closely to some of the means employed by projects to present material. This presentation of material is most important. Students in the next few years will have a facility to handle source materials, and will expect to handle them. The students will not expect to have everything handed to them, but will expect to be guided in their course work. These

---

[35]Mindella Schultz, Teachers Guide for Compatible Political Systems: An Inductive Approach (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1967) pp. ix-x.

students will have some facility in acting, "as political scientists." This facility must be developed and used within the college context.

Other means of presentation used in primary and secondary courses must also become a part of the college technique of teaching. Such items as single-concept film loops, filmstrips, film, over-head projectors, slides, transparencies, television, and even the computer will have to become equipment for the college classroom. These changes described include; content, methods, structure; but what does this imply for colleges at present? It is estimated that colleges have about five years to begin to prepare for the new students and new social studies. Many of the techniques and equipment mentioned are not new, but they are used infrequently. The problem at hand is how to make all this revelant in our colleges soon.

How can this be accomplished? It depends on efforts by faculty members and administration. Faculty members must prepare themselves in every manner possible. One very practical method would be to become familar with what is going on in the secondary and primary social studies programs. By studying the techniques and materials used at these levels a greater understanding of what to teach and perhaps how to teach will be possible. The administration on the other hand must be ready and willing to assist social science departments to update and prepare for the change. It is not hard to imagine that this change will take a great deal of money. Since Sputnik, much of our resources in colleges have been put to use in the sciences and allied fields. No one can deny the importance or wisdom of these moves. But the time has come to realize the very important role social sciences have and will have to play in American education. Their importance is heightened by the fact that schools in the future will not only have to prepare students to meet the ever growing competition of economic life,

but even more to teach them how to live a full life in a technological society. Today the question asked is not how will I live, but how can I best live my life? The role of social studies has to play in answering this question is important. That is why administration in our colleges must be ready to aid the social science departments in meeting the challenge of the next few years.

Though it remains a tradition in our colleges and universities of maintaining a great deal of faculty independence-- it may be profitable to organize college curriculum projects. This could possibly take the form of programs within the faculty of an individual school or on an inter-university basis. The purpose of these projects would be to clarify as much as possible the developments of social sciences on the university level. They could act as clearing houses of material developed at all levels of education, as well as develop materials of value to individual teachers.

These projects could assume this large responsibility for a number of reasons. Chiefly it would help to alleviate the burden placed on individual instructors. Not that these programs would take away from the responsibility and creativity of individual teachers. That would destroy much of the spontanity and general worth of college instruction and education. Rather the projects could assist individual teachers by providing them with materials and a synthesis of what is taking place in the social sciences. The traditional text book, as we know it, seems to be on the way out. The materials that replace it must be vibrant and meaningful within the context of their usefulness and purpose. A wealth of materials are now available --though sometimes hidden. The projects could make this material known to individual teachers. In addition new material could be designed and tested for use at the college level. Instructors often lack the time and resources to accomplish this goal. Such projects, or

resource centers specifically designed for college environment would be most useful.

During the course of this paper continuous reference has been made to social studies and to political science. On the secondary level they often become intertwined. Political science and the other social sciences become a part of a larger program known as the social studies. At the college level there is a need to distinguish each of these disciplines. At the same time the inter-relationship existing among the social sciences should be made evident. Whether this demands the formation of new courses is not the question. The question is should this relationship be made evident. The answer appears to come from the use primary and secondary school courses have made of the social sciences. Their inter-relationship has been established and is made clear to the students at these levels. Once the student arrives at the college level, the relationship existing within social sciences should continue to be developed.

This short resume of what seems to be instore for the colleges has made little direct reference to political science. Throughout this paper what is said for the "social studies" applies equally as well to political science as an individual discipline. The real heart of the matter for the future presentation of political science at the college level lies in the manner of presentation of its material. Content at the secondary and primary level has not changed dramatically from what we know as the traditional approach. It has become more systematic and through, especially in a K-12 program such as the Cleveland project. It seems that the method of presentation then becomes most important. This is the question political science must answer at the college level.

Without seeming too optimistic one can say that a new day for political science and the social sciences has dawned in primary and secondary school classrooms.

Whether this dawn break will in higher education remains a question for the next few years to answer. The arguments presented in this paper are subject to debate. They often are personal observations and insights; empirical evidence still awaits us. This paper has been a forecast based on personal experience in classroom situations teaching the "new social studies" as well as on the review of materials used in this paper.

What each college instructor and school does during the course of the next few years will in large measure determine how the impact of the "new social studies" will be felt and developed at the college level. The time of preparation, so it seems, is now at hand. Those who prepare now will be ready to meet the influx of students who will arrive all to soon on the college scene. Time will be the true test of what this paper has attempted to show will take place at the college level in the next few years with reference to teaching political science based on the "New social studies."

## BIBLIOGRAPHY


Berg, Harry D. (ed.) Evaluation in Social Studies. Washington, D.C.: Thirty-fifth Yearbook of NCSS, 1965

Bloom, Benjamin S., Krathwohl, David R., et al. Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: Handbook I, Cognitive Domain and Handbook II, Affective Domain. New York: David McKay Co., 1964

Bock, Edwin. A City Manager Tries to Fire His Police Chief. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1968

_____. Appointed by the Mayor. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1968

_____. A Question on Religion. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1968

_____. The Coterminous Boundaries Dispute. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1968

_____. Defending "The Hill" Against Metal Houses. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1968

_____. (ed.) The Firing of Pat Jackson. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1968

_____. (ed.) The Gainsville School Problem. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1968

_____. (ed.) Indonesian Assignment. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1968

_____. (ed.) The Little Rock Story. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1968

_____. (ed.) The Mayor and the Fire Chief. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1968

_____. (ed.) Mosus on the Green. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, Co., 1968

Brown, Richard H. and Haloey, Van R. Andrew Johnson and the Struggle for Presidential Reconstruction-1865-1868. Boston: D.C. Heath and Co., 1968

_____. British Views of the American Revolution. Boston: D.C. Heath and Co., 1968

_____. The European Mind and the Discovery of a New World. Boston: D.C. Heath and Co., 1968

_____. Immigration: A Study in American Values. Boston: D.C. Heath and Co., 1968

_____. The Negro Struggle for Equality in the Twentieth Century. Boston: D.C. Heath and Co., 1968

_____. The 1920's Rhetoric and Reality. Boston: D.C. Heath and Co., 1968

_____. The Missouri Compromise: Political Statesmanship or Unwise Evasion. Boston: D.C. Heath and Co., 1968

_____. The Monroe Doctrine. Boston: D.C. Heath and Co., 1968

_____. The Ratification of the Constitution and the Bill of Rights. Boston: D.C. Heath and Co., 1968

_____. States Rights and Indian Removal: The Cherokee Nation vs. The State of Georgia. Boston: D.C. Heath and Co., 1968

Bruner, Jerome S. The Process of Education. New York: Vintage Press, 1960

California Department of Education, Report of the State Central Committee on Social Studies to the California State Curriculum Commission. Sacramento, California: State Department of Education, 1961

Carpenter, Helen McCracken (ed.) Skill Development in Social Studies. Washington, D.C.: Thirty-third Yearbook of NCSS, 1963

Cleary, Robert E. and Patrick, John P. (eds.) Political Socialization of American Youth: Implications for Secondary Schools Social Studies. Washington, D.C.: NCSS, 1967

Cleary, Robert E. and Riddle, Donald H. (eds.) Political Science in the Social Studies. Washington, D.C.: Thirty-sixth Yearbook of NCSS, 1966

Coleman, James S. Game of Democracy. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University, 1967

Cohen, Saul B. Geography and Politics in a World Divided. New York: Random House, 1963

Cox, Charles B. and Massialas, Byron G. (eds.) Social Studies in the U.S.: A Critical Appraisal. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1967

Dow, Peter, Man and Politics. Cambridge, Mass.: Education Development Center, Inc., 1967

_____. The Negro American. Cambridge, Mass.: Education Development Center, Inc., 1968

English, Raymond (ed.) Greater Cleveland Social Science Program Brochure. Cleveland: Education Research Council of Greater Cleveland.

Fair, Jean and Shaftel, Fannie R. Effective Thinking in the Social Studies. Washington, D.C.: Thirty-seventh Yearbook of NCSS, 1967

Fenton, Edwin. The New Social Studies. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1967

_____. Teaching the New Social Studies in Secondary Schools: An Inductive Approach. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1966.

Fraser, McClure D. and McCutchen, Samuel P. (eds.) Social Studies in Transition: Guidelines for Change. Bulletin #12: Washington, D.C.: NCSS 1965

Gibson, John S. (ed.) New Frontiers in the Social Studies: Goals for Students Means for Teachers Vol.I. New York: Citation Press, 1967

_____. New Frontiers in the Social Studies: Action and Analysis Vol II. New York: Citation Press, 1967

_____. Citizenship Affirmed. Medford, Mass. Tufts University, 1968

_____. Citizenship Denied: Diary of a Young Girl. Medford, Mass.: Tufts University, 1968

_____. Life in the Jungle: How People Make Policy. Medford, Mass.: Tufts

Guild, Neslon P. and Palmer, Kenneth T. Introduction to Politics: Essays and Readings. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1968

Helburn, Nicholas (ed.) Geography in an Urban Age: Political Process (Unit 9). Boulder Colorado: High School Geography Project, 1968

Herbert, Louis J. and Murphy, William. Structure in the Social Studies. Washington, D.C.: Thirty-eighth Yearbook of NCSS, 1968

Hunt, Maurice P. and Metcalf, Lawrence E. Teaching High School Social Studies: Problems in Reflective Thinking and Social Understanding. New York: Harber and Brothers, 1967

Long, Norton E. The Social Studies and the Social Sciences. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1962

Mager, Robert F. Preparing Instructional Objectives. Palo Alto, California: Fearon Publishers, 1962.

Massialas, Byron G. and Kazmias, Andreas M. Crucial Issues in the Teaching of Social Studies. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1964

Massialas, Byron G. and Cox Charles B. Inquiry in Social Studies. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1966

Massialas, Byron G. and Smith Frederick R. New Challenges in the Social Studies. Belmont California: Wadsworth Publishing Co., 1965

Mehlinger, Howard D. (ed.) Grade Nine: American Political Behavior. Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana University, 1968

Michaelis, John U. Comparative Government: A Model for Analysis. Berkeley, California: University of California (Berkeley), 1968

Moore, Jerry R. (ed.) NCA Foreign Relations Series. River Forest, Illinois: Laidlaw Brothers, 1966, etc.

Morse, Horace T. and McClune, George H. Selected Items for the Testing of Study Skills and Critical Thinking. Bulletin #15: Washington, D.C.: NCSS, 1964

Morrisett, Irving (ed.) Concepts and Structure in the New Social Science Curricula. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1967

Muessing, Raymond H. and Rogers, Vincent R. (eds.) The Social Science Seminar Series. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1965.

Oliver, Donald W. (ed.) Harvard Social Studies Project. Columbus, Ohio: American Education Publications, 1966, etc.

Price, Roy A. et al. Major Concepts for the Social Studies. Syracuse, New York: Social Studies Curriculum Center, Syracuse University, 1965.

Rozeweno, Edwin C. (ed.) Basic Concepts in History and Social Science Series. Boston: D.C. Heath and Co., 1967, etc.

Schultz, M. Comparative Political Systems. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1967.

Sorauf, Frank K. Perspectives on Political Science. Columbus, Ohio: Merrill Books, 1966

Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction. A Conceptual Framework For the Social Studies. Madison, Wisconsin: Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, 1966

Womack, James G. Discovering the Structure of Social Studies. New York, Benziger Brothers, Inc., 1966

Bugden, Sherwood J.B. (ed.) The Price of Freedom: Analyzing Politics I-II Cleveland: Educational Research Council of Greater Cleveland, 1967