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ABSTRACT

Numerous criticisms of college social studies methods courses have generated various reform efforts. Three of these reforms are examined, including competency-based teacher education, the value analysis approach to teacher education, and the human relations approach to teacher education. Competency-based courses develop among future teachers precisely stated teaching skills, defined as observable, measureable performances that bring about student learning. They tend to underplay the development of personal charisma or of particular fundamental personality characteristics. The value analysis approach stresses the identification of issues and the appraisal of responses to pertinent central questions such as (1) What should be the goals of social studies instruction? (2) What knowledge is of most worth? (3) How should lessons be organized and presented? and (4) What teaching strategies are of most worth? The human relations approach stresses personality development through the mastery of human relations techniques. Advocates of this approach believe that good teaching depends primarily upon good human relationships. Promising new techniques of instruction for implementing one or more of these approaches include (1) self-instructional learning packages; (2) protocol materials; (3) simulation; (4) prototype lessons; (5) curriculum materials analysis systems; (6) classroom interaction analysis systems; and (7) microteaching. (Author/DE)

REFORMING THE SOCIAL STUDIES METHODS COURSE

John J. Patrick
Indiana University

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FOREWORD

This paper is an outcome of a work group which met June 13-14, 1971, as part of the annual meeting of the Social Science Education Consortium. The topic for the work group discussions was "Exemplary Practices for College Methods Teachers of Social Studies." Participants in the work group discussions were John D. Haas, Frances Haley, Max F. Harriger, Hazel Hertzberg, John J. Patrick, Tim Tomlinson, and Stanley P. Wronski.

The contributions of the work group participants were fundamental to the writing of this paper. They contributed criticisms of social studies methods courses, reports of promising instructional practices, and ideas about alternative futures of teacher education. They contributed leads to books and articles which are cited in the paper.

The work group participants sparked my thinking and provided much of the raw material for this paper. However, I take full responsibility for the content, especially for any errors which critics might note and for controversial opinions which appear in parts of the paper.

John J. Patrick
October 1972

REFORMING THE SOCIAL STUDIES METHODS COURSE

John J. Patrick
Indiana University

Social studies methods courses have provoked much derision. Social studies teachers, after facing the trials of elementary or high school classrooms, have tended to dismiss methods courses as unrealistic, irrelevant, idealistic, or trite. Undergraduates enrolled in teacher education programs have tended to view the methods course as a necessary, but unstimulating, chore, a last exercise in the series of "drills" which an aspiring teacher endures to earn certification. Two researchers who recently studied the attitudes of social studies teachers toward their methods courses concluded that "there must be someone around who is satisfied with his methods course, but we haven't found him." (Lowe and Corbin 1970, pp. 286-90)

Education critics and reformers especially have condemned methods courses. Charles Silberman describes them as "the wasteland of teacher education, virtually unrelieved by hopeful expectations." (Silberman 1970, p. 443) Many other significant persons have charged that mastery of methods course requirements is not related strongly to teaching potential or to successful classroom performance. (Conant 1964; Koerner 1964) Most of these critics would agree with Silberman's sweeping indictment:

> Some are so abstract as to have no contact with reality; what passes for theory is a mass of platitudes and generalities. Some courses focus entirely on the "how to" of teaching, presenting a grab-bag of rules of thumb, unrelated to one another or to any conception of teaching. Still other courses are glorified bull sessions in which teacher and students exchange anecdotes... Indeed, there can be no greater demonstration of the irrelevance of most methods courses than the way the methods professors teach. (Silberman 1970, p. 443)

Most critics of social studies methods courses agree that fundamental questions about the purposes of teacher education in the social studies have not been raised and examined fruitfully. Efforts at theorizing have been high-flown, vague, and impractical. To a considerable extent, the business of social studies methods instruction has been an ill-defined enterprise, an array of facts and techniques without a powerful supporting conceptual apparatus. Tinkering with techniques has been much more extensive than thoughtful consideration of what the particular techniques are good for and how they might be combined to produce the most competent teachers.

Thoughtful teacher educators have acknowledged much of the criticism of methods courses. For example, Lawrence Metcalf has stressed the need to improve methods instruction. "The methods course is under heavy fire. Unless it is revolutionized it will probably be abolished. Much of the liberal arts criticism is justified, as methods has tended to be a course in which instructors elaborated upon the banal and obvious." (Metcalf 1963, pp. 197-202)

While acknowledging the strong current of truth which runs through the indictments of Silberman and others, one must not overlook the "hopeful expectations," the whirlpools of promising innovations which may direct methods instruction toward more intellectually vigorous and relevant channels. In the pages that follow, some of these promising ideas are examined. The first section, Three Models for the Reform of Social Studies Methods Courses, discusses competency-based teacher education, the normative approach to teacher education, and the human relations approach to teacher education. The second section, Promising New Techniques of Instruction in Social Studies Methods Courses, examines seven specific methods instruction techniques designed to implement one or a combination of the three models outlined in the first section.

Three Models for the Reform of Social Studies Methods Courses

Criticisms of methods courses have generated numerous and various reform efforts. Some reformers have concentrated mainly on improving techniques of instruction. They have given little thought to fundamental questions about the purposes of social studies education. Others have thought more carefully about the fundamental questions pertinent to the means and ends of social studies methods courses, to what objectives can and should be aachieved through methods instruction. The three models discussed in this section reflect this debate.

Competency-based Teacher Education

The most visible of the prominent efforts to fundamentally rethink methods instruction is called "competency-based teacher education." Science educators have been the pioneers of competency-based teacher education courses. (Weigand 1971) During the latter part of the 1960s, social studies educators began to apply the competency-based model of instruction to curriculum development. (Patrick 1970) The purpose of the competency-based methods course is to develop precisely defined teaching skills. A teaching competency, or skill, is an observable, measurable performance which presumably brings about student learning. (Merrill 1971, pp. 55-56)

The distinguishing features of competency-based teacher education programs are:

(1) The behaviors which the "good" teacher is expected to perform are described and catalogued as normative guides to instructional design.

(2) Instructional objectives are specified rigorously in terms of performances which can be observed and measured.

(3) Instructional procedures are designed to facilitate student achievement of instructional objectives and evaluation of student progress.

(4) Instructional procedures are adjusted to fit variation in the needs and capabilities of different learners.

(5) Instruments to measure student achievement are criterion-referenced; they reflect the instructional objectives which were specified openly

at the beginning of the instructional sequence.

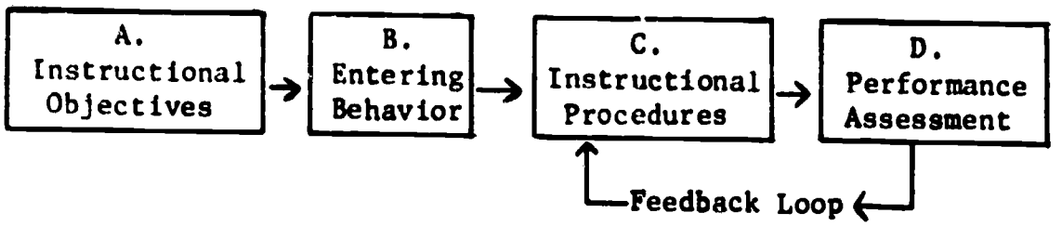
(6) Assessment of student achievement is based on the students' ability to demonstrate specific teaching competencies which were openly specified as the objectives of instruction.

(7) Different students may progress through a course of study at different speeds; the pace of student progress is determined by how quickly a student demonstrates the capabilities which are stated as instructional objectives. (Elam 1971, pp. 3-6)*

The competency-based model of instruction is illustrated by the following diagram. (DeCecco 1968, pp. 11-12)

Figure 1.

Diagram: A Competency Based Model of Instruction



Instructional Objectives, Box A, represent the teaching competencies which the instructional program is designed to develop. Competencies, or objectives, are stated in terms of performances which can be observed and measured. Entering behavior, Box B in the diagram, refers to the students' capabilities prior to instruction. Assessment of entering behavior enables the teacher to adjust instruction to the needs and capabilities of learners. Box C, Instructional Procedures, refers to the lessons and teaching techniques used to achieve the instructional objectives. The instructional procedures are linked directly to the objectives of instruction and vary in terms of those objectives. Performance Assessment, Box D in the diagram, consists of tests used to measure

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*The AACTE Committee on Performance-based Teacher Education has commissioned a series of papers on performance- or competency-based teacher education Stanley Elam has written the first paper in this series, entitled Performance-Based Teacher Education: What Is the State of the Art? PBTE Series No. 1. Washington, D.C.: American Association for Colleges of Teacher Education, December 1971.

changes in student competence as defined by the instructional objectives. Performance assessment indicates the degree of students' success or failure in attaining instructional objectives. The feedback loops in the diagram indicates that data yielded by performance assessment can provide clues to breakdowns in the instructional system and to deficiencies in student achievement.

Assumptions underlying competency-based teacher education. At least four basic assumptions undergird the application of the competency-based teaching model to the methods course. *First*, advocates of the competency-based teaching model assume that teaching competencies which directly influence student learning can be identified. A *second* assumption is that one can describe teaching competencies in performance terms, which facilitates precise empirical performance assessments. *Third*, it is assumed that teaching competencies can be developed additively through systematic, criterion referenced instruction. A *fourth* assumption is that criterion referenced tests can be developed to assess validly the extent to which instructional objectives are attained and thereby to indicate the success or failure of the methods course.

The argument for competency-based teacher education. Advocates of competency-based methods courses demand "accountability"--demonstration on empirical grounds that instruction in teaching methods is related significantly and strongly to successful classroom performance. They contend that social studies methods courses must be overhauled or "scrapped" unless formal instruction in methods can be related positively to teaching success. Currently there is scant evidence to support the efficacy of methods courses. There is a growing body of evidence indicating the impotence or irrelevance of methods courses to classroom performance. (Popham 1971, pp. 599-602)

Competency-based methods courses are supposed to overcome fundamental weaknesses of teacher education programs in the social studies. Advocates of competency-based instruction contend that so little has been achieved through

social studies methods courses because too much has been attempted. Social studies teacher educators have tried to create an omnicompetent teacher, who can be all things to all students, through a three-or four-hour methods course. The scope of instruction has been too broad and the content too diffuse and discrete. In contrast, competency-based methods courses are more narrowly and pragmatically focused on a few precisely specified and interrelated teaching competencies which presumably are attainable by most learners.

Critics have said that social studies methods courses are unduly abstract and that they are ineptly constructed in terms of relatively useless theories. The distinguishing feature of many of these courses has been high-flown rhetoric about the glories of teaching rather than systematic development of achievable instructional competencies which might enhance the future teacher's potential to facilitate learning in the social studies classroom. In contrast, competency-based methods instruction is an attempt to link empirically founded theory with practice, to demonstrate the connection between the achievement of desired consequences and the mastery of particular teaching competencies.

Specifying teacher competencies. What competencies should be developed through the social studies methods course? Most supporters of competency-based teacher education would agree with W. James Popham that teachers should acquire competencies needed "to modify learners so that they possess more knowledge, employ it more skillfully, cope more satisfactorily with their environment and, in general, function as more humane members of a perilously threatened world society." (Popham 1971, pp. 599-602) Advocates of competency-based social studies methods courses tend to agree that they should try to develop among future teachers competencies needed to employ viable alternative teaching techniques and strategies and to evaluate student performance. They tend to underplay the development of personal charisma or of particular fundamental personality characteristics. Basic personality development is not dismissed as unimportant; rather it is

held to be difficult to modify in a brief program of formal instruction. Furthermore, while most teacher educators can agree about the value of many teaching competencies, very few can agree about what is "the" desirable personality. Competency-based teacher educators aim for the achievable.

One "hot issue" among social studies teacher educators is: Should the social studies teacher acquire competency to develop instructional systems and materials? Or should the social studies teacher learn to be primarily a selector, adaptor, and implementor of instructional systems designed by "experts"? Many social studies methods textbooks, and many social studies educators, stress development of competencies to design lesson plans and units of instruction. Future teachers are urged to draw upon many sources, such as readings from magazines and newspapers, popular books, films, recordings, and filmstrips, to build lessons and units which are models of enriched instruction carefully adapted to the interests and needs of students. Commercially prepared instructional materials, particularly textbooks, are depicted as inadequate in content and pedagogical techniques. Reliance on textbooks, rather than teacher prepared instructional units, is viewed as inimical to the proper teacher role.

Other social studies educators, particularly the directors of social studies curriculum development projects, have argued that social studies teachers should develop competencies necessary to fruitful and artful selection, adaptation, and implementation of packaged instructional materials. They believe that the role of the social studies teacher, as defined in most schools, does not include extensive teacher development of units of instruction. Furthermore, they contend that most teachers want better packaged materials, and skills in selecting, adapting, and implementing them, rather than the burden of having to completely conceptualize and create instructional systems. For example, the directors of "Project Africa" have said: "Most teachers seem to be 'carrier-outers' who need, and indeed seek, considerable direction. . . Good classroom teachers--those

who can take a piece of material and make it come alive for students--may, in most instances, never be able to create that same piece of material." (Beyer and Hicks 1970, p. 95)

Social studies curriculum development project directors have urged the introduction of "project" materials into preservice and inservice teacher education programs as the basis for the study of competencies pertaining to classroom questioning, concept learning, hypothesizing, and other aspects of instruction. This type of methods instruction is geared to developing knowledge of the basic ideas undergirding the design of "project" materials and preparing teachers to use "project" materials successfully. Of course, an important feature of such methods instruction should be learning how to critically appraise "project" materials, so that teachers will not choose inferior or inappropriate materials, and so that teachers may competently modify portions of selected "project" materials to fit particular instructional conditions more appropriately.

Both opponents and advocates have noted some important weaknesses associated with competency-based teacher education. These weaknesses pertain to problems of determining exactly what is "good" teacher behavior, establishing valid criteria for evaluating teacher effectiveness, and designing instruments to validly assess the impact of instruction and teacher behavior. Unfortunately, the empirical ground which can support sound decisions about instruction is too small and unstable. Stanley Elam voices some thoughtful concerns about the current limitations of competency-based teacher education:

> . . . there is some doubt that the knowledge base (what kind of teacher works best?) will expand rapidly enough for the new curriculum to be much more than old wine in new bottles. We cannot be sure that measurement techniques essential both to objectivity and valid assessment of affective and complex cognitive objectives will be developed rapidly enough for the new exit requirements to be any better than the conventional letter grades of the past. Unless heroic efforts are made on both the knowledge and measurement fronts, then, performance-based teacher education may well have a stunted growth. (Elam 1971, p. 6)

The "Value Analysis" Approach to Teacher Education

Some social studies educators strongly oppose competency-based instruction on the grounds that it is too narrowly focused on "how" questions connected with specific teaching techniques. They propose that teacher education programs should be more concerned with broader questions of rationale and philosophy which underpin teachers' decisions about curriculum and instruction. This alternative to the reform of social studies methods courses stresses value judgments about significant issues surrounding social studies instruction. It might be termed a "value analysis" approach to methods instruction. This value analysis approach involves the identification of issues and the appraisal of responses pertinent to central questions such as (1) What should be the goals of social studies instruction? (2) What knowledge is of most worth? (3) How should lessons be organized and presented? and (4) What teaching strategies are of most worth?

The value analysis approach is aimed at helping the prospective teacher to develop a defensible rationale for curricular and instructional decisions and to articulate a philosophy of teaching the social studies which can serve as a guide to practice and as a generator of ideas. Practicioners of this approach want to prepare teachers to reflect carefully and critically about the functions of the social studies in our society and the pedagogical choices which every teacher must make about the substance of instruction, techniques of instruction, and evaluation practices. An excellent statement of this position has been made by Shaver and Berlak. (1968, pp. 1-11)

Advocates of the value analysis approach do not believe the key to the education education of better teachers is to stress the development of particular teaching techniques. Rather, they believe that the development of a well-designed philosophy of education, a system of thought which is a guide to instructional decision and teacher behavior, is the most promising solution to the problem of

how to improve methods courses. Charles Silberman claims that the gravest defect of teacher education programs is that they are not designed to teach future teachers how "to think about either the purposes or the processes, the ends or the means of education." (Silberman 1970, p. 380) Silberman concludes that the central purpose of teacher education courses should be to provide teachers with a sense of purpose. "This means developing teachers' ability and their desire to think seriously, deeply, and continuously about the purpose and consequence of what they do--about the ways in which their curriculum and teaching methods, classroom and school organization, testing and grading procedures, affect purpose and are affected by it." (Silberman 1970, p. 472)

Advocates of the value analysis approach fear that competency-based instruction, which stresses the development of classroom techniques, does not confront teachers with the most fundamental educational questions, which are normative, and consequently does not develop the most important competency, ability to make wise decisions about the ends and means of education. These educators believe that, at best, competency-based instruction might yield a "bag of tricks" which can help the new teacher to adapt to the status quo and thus to survive in the short run. But the teacher is not taught how to appraise the status quo, how to make critical judgments which can contribute to long-range improvements in curriculum and instruction. These critics maintain that the biggest weakness of competency-based teacher education is that teachers do not learn how to assess the relative value of various teaching techniques, or competencies, and that they may be inadvertently encouraged to be uncritical adjustors to the "way it is" rather than thoughtful provokers of fundamental change.

The Human Relations Approach to Teacher Education

A third alternative for the reform of methods courses stresses personality development through the mastery of human relations techniques. Advocates of this approach believe that good teaching depends primarily upon good human

relationships. Thus, personality is the teacher's primary tool of instruction; teaching effectiveness is a function of a healthy personality. A healthy personality features sensitivity to the needs of others, a desire to serve others, and skill in the management of human interaction. Arthur Combs and Donald Snygg, major exponents of teacher education through personality development, maintain that "effective teaching requires the sensitive use of a human personality as an instrument for assisting other people to new experience and new discovery." (Combs and Snygg 1959)

A major teaching method of personality-based teacher education courses is group interaction. Thus, teacher educators must be trained in group dynamics, group counseling, and psychodynamics. The overriding goal of instruction is to enable group members to help one another to express themselves and to learn from one another. Analysis of group interaction is an on-going activity in this type of program. (Dinkmeyer 1971)

Advocates of the personal development model of instruction criticize the competency-based model of instruction as too cognitively oriented and too concerned with development of specific techniques rather than with the integration of techniques with the development of a total personality suitable for teaching. According to these critics, the competency-based model of instruction is flawed, because it depends upon the establishment of conditions of learning which control and manipulate the learner. They claim that competency-based instruction relies on external rewards and extrinsic motivators. In contrast, the personal development model of instruction is geared to helping the learner to internalize knowledge, beliefs, and feelings, and to develop intrinsic motivation.

Promising New Techniques of Instruction in Social Studies Methods Courses

Social studies teacher educators have devised or adapted a number of

promising new techniques of instruction for implementing one or more of the approaches to the reform of methods courses described above. Some of the best known and most promising of these techniques are: (1) self-instructional learning packages; (2) protocol materials; (3) simulation; (4) prototype lessons; (5) curriculum materials analysis systems; (6) classroom interaction analysis systems; and (7) microteaching.

Each of these techniques can be adapted to the purposes of competency-based teacher education. However, self-instructional learning packages is the one technique in this group which is most closely associated with competency-based programs. The other techniques have been flexibly utilized as elements in various approaches to teacher education. And some teacher educators have haphazardly employed some of these techniques without carefully considering ways of connecting them to a framework of basic ideas.

Self-Instructional Learning Packages

Self-instructional learning packages are an attempt to apply the principles undergirding programmed instruction to teacher education. The learning packages are systematically designed modules of instruction which help the learner, in step-by-step fashion, acquire a particular skill, such as writing performance objectives or constructing multiple choice tests. For example, the Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development is designing a series of "minicourses" to develop teaching competencies. "Minicourse One: Effective Questioning in a Classroom Discussion" is a self-instructional module which focuses on ways of employing questions in the classroom. The objectives of the module pertain to (1) increasing the pupil's readiness to respond; (2) decreasing the amount of teacher participation and increasing the amount of pupil participation; (3) increasing use of teacher behaviors that change the pupil's way of responding; and (4) decreasing teacher behavior that impedes effective questioning. (Far West Laboratory for Educational Research

and Development 1968)

Several university based teacher education projects have developed self-instructional learning packages. The Tri-University Project at the University of Washington has designed packages on the following topics: (1) "Contrasting Teaching Styles"; (2) "Developing Facts, Concepts, and Generalizations"; (3) "Strategies for Valuing and Decision Making"; (4) "Selecting and Using Learning Resources"; (5) "Individualizing Instruction"; and (6) "Objectives and Evaluation." (Jarolimek 1970, pp. 329-32)

The Department of Teacher Education at Brigham Young University has designed an exemplary competency-based teacher education program which features individualized, self-instructional learning packages. These packages develop particular teaching competencies, such as writing performance objectives, developing classroom questioning strategies, teaching concepts and generalizations, and constructing and using tests. The performance objectives of the learning packages are clearly stated; the learner is guided carefully and precisely through the several steps of each learning package; and the learner is required to demonstrate achievement of the performance objectives by mastering some type of appropriate tests. Learners are not allowed to move ahead to new lessons until they have demonstrated mastery of prerequisite learning activities. (Department of Teacher Education, Brigham Young University 1970)

Protocol Materials

Protocol materials represent an attempt to expose future teachers to life in elementary and secondary school classrooms. While these materials are not used exclusively in competency-based teacher education courses, many of the designers and users of these materials have been associated with the competency-based approach.

Protocol materials are records of behavior which are relevant to the concerns of teachers. These records may be visual, auditory, or printed. Arthur Babick

and David Gliessman, designers of protocol materials, say that "the purpose of such materials is to provide raw materials or data calling for interpretation in a psychological or sociological or philosophical sense. Simply put, they enable the teacher in training or the experienced teacher to study classroom behavior in a controlled and systematic way." (Babick and Gliessman 1970, pp. 129-38)

The film series, Critical Moments in Teaching, produced by Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., presents filmed protocols designed to focus the attention of learners on particular teaching problems and to serve as grist for analysis of these problems. For example, "Walls," one of the films in this series, shows a social studies teacher who is unable to sustain student motivation and who finally loses control of his class. An exercise manual which accompanies this film includes questions and activities designed to help students to analyze the teacher's problem and to decide how the problem could have been avoided. Other films in the Critical Moments in Teaching Series are about problems pertaining to structuring learning activities, adapting instruction to accommodate cultural variations, and concept learning. (Critical Moments in Teaching 1970)

The Social Studies Curriculum Program of the Education Development Center, Inc., has designed a series of films, The Classroom as a Learning Community, which has been used in methods courses as a set of protocol materials. These films show children working with lessons from Man: A Course of Study. They focus on the relationship of diversity to learning in the classroom. The central question which connects the films in this series is: how can the differences among members of a classroom group become a resource for learning? (Social Studies Curriculum Program 1971)

The designers of protocol materials urge methods course instructors to function as coordinators, advisors, and guides to the use of the protocols. This forces the learners to think for themselves as they analyze the teaching problems presented via the protocol materials. Exercises designed for use with

the protocols require the learners to apply concepts, to explore relationships, to identify the sources and consequences of problems, and to acquire capability of avoiding and/or overcoming particular common teaching problems.

Simulation

Simulation is the enactment of simplified lifelike situations for educational purposes. An educational game is "any simulated contest (play) among adversaries (players) operating under contraints (rules) for an objective (winning)." (Gordon 1970, p. 8) However, not all simulations are games. For example, role playing activities may simulate reality without involving the assignment of points and the objective of winning or losing a contest.

Simulations are designed to require active participation in learning. Participants are required to assume the rights and duties associated with particular roles within a social context. They must make decisions in response to realistic problems, and tney must assess the social forces which influenced their decisions and the consequences which stem from them.

"The Game of Fixit" is a good example of the educational games which have been used in teacher education programs. (Gordon 1970, pp. 184-96) The game involves ten roles: four teachers, three school administrators, and three parents. The participants are faced with the problem of deciding whether or not to initiate particular pedagogical innovations into their high school. The objective of each player is to persuade the others to side with his or her view on introducing the pedagogical innovations into the school system. The roles of participants are distinguished on the basis of information presented to each player on individual role cards. In addition, every player is given the same information about their high school and community. Several different school and community profiles are provided so that the game can be played in terms of various inner-city and suburban contexts.

The game develops through negotiating sessions involving various combinations

of participants. During the bargaining sessions, various lifelike factors which may influence decision making are brought into play. These factors are flexibility of teachers and administrators, social and personal characteristics of students, receptivity of the community to change, parental concerns, and budgeting of time and money.

At the end of the negotiating sessions, the players vote for or against the proposed innovations. However, the voting power of the participants is not equal: administrators have the most voting power and some teachers have more voting power than others. The issue in this game is decided by majority vote. Winning players are those whose point of view is adopted.

Some methods instructors have devised simulated teacher problems which are presented via specially created written artifacts or audio-tapes. For example, some simulated problems are presented in the form of contrived memos or letters from parents to teachers. (Cruickshank 1966, pp. 23-24) Other decision-making situations are constructed in terms of simulated social studies department meetings or meetings between school administrators and committees of teachers. (Rogers 1970, pp. 337-40)

The most important phase of any educational simulation is the debriefing session, or post-simulation discussion. At this time, the teacher helps students to focus on the main ideas undergirding the simulation. The instructional objectives of the simulation are brought to the surface during the debriefing session as students and teacher determine what has been learned from the experience.

Motivation for learning, development of decision-making skills, and insights about human behavior are benefits of participation in simulation activities which are claimed by advocates of this innovative instructional technique. Simulations appear to be most useful both as generators of hypotheses and as exercises which require students to demonstrate that they can apply ideas to a

novel situation. (Gordon 1970, p. 43) However, even the staunchest advocates believe that learning through simulation should not be used exclusively. Rather, simulations should be used in combination with other instructional techniques--not as diversions or frills, but as integral parts of a total educational program.

Prototype Lessons

Prototype lessons are instructional exemplars, which are presented as cases of good instruction. These exemplars may be presented via film, video-tape, audio-tape, or print.

Many methods instructors have been using sample lessons from the social studies curriculum development projects as exemplars of particular instructional strategies or techniques. Many of the "project" materials include lessons which are excellent examples of different approaches to concept learning, questioning strategies, and the learning of various social science skills.*

The "Site Map" lesson, in the Anthropology Curriculum Study Project's materials (published by Macmillan) is an exemplar of instruction which has been widely used in methods classes. This lesson is developed in terms of a site map representing the dwelling place of a group of people. On the basis of data presented via the map, students are asked to make inferences about the culture of the people whose village and artifacts are represented on the site map.

The "Site Map" lesson is an excellent example of instruction designed to achieve discovery learning. The teacher is expected to guide student interpretation and discussion of the map and to provide cues to stimulate discussion when necessary. But the teacher is not to supply answers or to judge student answers. Rather, the teacher is to play the role of facilitator of student

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*For example, the High School Geography Project, Macmillan Company; Sociological Resources for the Social Studies, Allyn and Bacon; and American Political Behavior, Ginn and Company, contain many exemplary lessons.

speculations or hypotheses about the culture of the people represented on the site map. In a subsequent lesson, students learn that the site map represents a dwelling place of a group of Bushmen in the Kalahari Desert. Detailed information about the concept of culture and the way of life of the Bushmen then follows.

The Anthropology Curriculum Study Project has prepared a film showing a high school teacher using the "Site Map" lesson. This film has been used in methods courses, in combination with the "Site Map" material, to illustrate the viability of the lesson and to provide a model of instruction for discovery lessons in the social studies.

Users of prototype lessons believe that these exemplary materials provide a strong link between theoretical instruction about teaching strategies and techniques and real classroom practice. Prototype lessons are concrete examples of instruction which have been used successfully with numerous students. They are the practical manifestations of the abstract rules about teaching strategies and techniques which should structure a methods course.

Methods teachers who use prototype lessons assume that analysis of these materials, in terms of the ideas about instruction which undergird them, is good preparation for teaching the innovative high school social science courses which have been published recently. They also believe that prototype lessons can serve as models of instruction which the social studies teacher can use as a guide to curriculum decision-making, lesson planning, and role behavior in the classroom.

Curriculum Materials Analysis Systems

Curriculum materials analysis systems are sets of criteria for the description and evaluation of instructional materials. They enable consumers to make precise comparisons between competing instructional packages. On the basis of these comparative analyses, school administrators and teachers can make judgments about which instructional packages are most likely to meet the needs of their students.

Learning to use curriculum materials analysis systems is an important part of methods courses designed to develop the competencies of selecting, adapting, and implementing commercially prepared instructional materials. In these methods courses, students are required to examine different curriculum materials analysis systems and to judge the merits and limitations of the various devices. (Knight and Hodges 1969, pp. 1-4) A standard assignment is to require students to apply a suitable curriculum materials analysis system to the comparative appraisal of two or more competing instructional programs in the social studies.

The Curriculum Materials Analysis System (CMAS), developed by Irving Morrissett and W. Williams Stevens, Jr., is commonly used in social studies methods courses to develop the future teachers' competencies to wisely select instructional materials and to make judgments about how to adapt the materials to fit particular conditions which may vary from community to community. The CMAS includes six main analytical categories: (1) Descriptive Characteristics; (2) Rationale and Objectives; (3) Antecedent Conditions; (4) Content; (5) Instructional Theory and Teaching Strategies; and (6) Overall Judgments. Each category consists of several key questions to guide the user's analysis of social studies curriculum materials. (Morrissett and Stevens 1967)

Classroom Interaction Analysis Systems

Classroom interaction analysis systems are means for "coding spontaneous verbal communication, arranging the data into a useful display, and then analyzing the results in order to study patterns of teaching and learning." (Flanders 1970, p. 5) The purpose of interaction analysis systems is to provide a profile of types of teacher behaviors and student responses so that teachers can make more informed judgments about their instructional styles and strategies.

By using classroom interaction analysis systems, teachers or teachers-in-training become more aware of how they practice important facets of instruction such as questioning strategies, guiding discussions, and dispensing of rewards

for correct responses. Presumably this heightened awareness leads to improved teaching behavior. Edmund Amidon and Elizabeth Hunter claim that teachers who are systematically provided feedback about classroom interactions become better teachers, "who are capable of analyzing and controlling their verbal behavior, teachers who have a broader repertroire of verbal behaviors from which to select; thus teachers who are better able to help children learn." (Amidon and Hunter 1967, p. 149)

There are several interaction analysis systems which are taught to students in social studies methods courses. These various systems are basically similar, and all include these features: (1) categories to organize data about teacher-student verbal behavior; (2) rules which specify the coding or gathering of the data; (3) procedures for tabulating data and constructing profiles of teacher-student interactions; and (4) instruction on interpreting and applying the profiles for the purposes of improving teacher behavior. (Psencik 1971, pp. 2-10)

Many who use classroom interaction analysis systems as aids to better instruction unduly stress the value of indirect teaching. Some equate better teaching with indirect teaching styles and worse teaching with direct teaching styles. However, Ned Flanders, a leading advocate of the utility of interaction analysis and of indirect teaching styles, balks at this excessive emphasis on indirect, student-oriented teaching. According to Flanders, direct teaching is more effective when the objective of instruction is very clear and concrete. In contrast, indirect teaching is best when the objective of instruction is less clear and concrete. (Flanders 1960, pp. 187-217) David Ausubel also stresses that expository presentations may result in meaningful verbal learning and that it is most efficient to teach many skills, facts, and ideas in a didactic manner. (Ausubel 1969) Research by Fiedler indicated that indirect approaches to teaching are not best for every set of instructional circumstances. (Fiedler 1965, pp. 538-51)

Interaction analysis systems should be used in competency-based methods courses not as models of instruction which fit all teaching circumstances or instructional objectives, but as means to contribute to the development of particular discussion management skills. In competency-based methods courses, skill in using other approaches to teaching should also be developed. And methods class students should be shown that, while indirect discussion management is most appropriate for the achievement of certain instructional objectives, other teaching strategies are more effective for the achievement of other instructional objectives. For example, self-instructional programs are the most efficient devices for teaching skills such as table reading.

Microteaching

Microteaching is "the teaching of brief lessons to small groups of students under rigorously controlled conditions." (Gillion 1969, pp. 165-67, 183) This technique, as used in social studies methods courses, usually involves five steps: (1) presenting students with principles and exemplars of instruction; (2) requiring students to apply instruction about teaching to a small group for a short time; (3) analyzing with students a videotape of the attempt at teaching; (4) requiring each student to try to improve upon his initial teaching performance with a second effort to teach a small group for a short time; and (5) analyzing a videotape of this second attempt at teaching.

There are two basic organizational patterns for doing microteaching. One pattern involves hiring four or five students from local elementary or high schools to serve as microclasses on the university or college campus. An alternative format is to bring methods students to local schools where they work with small groups of students within the normal classroom setting. Both organizational patterns involve work with small microclasses (from four to five students in campus settings to ten or twelve in normal classroom settings) for short periods of time (from ten to fifteen minutes).

The types of teaching competencies which proponents of microteaching try to develop are numerous. They include initiating a discussion, using a variety of types of questions, teaching students to formulate or test hypotheses, teaching a concept, closing a discussion, and creating problematical situations. (McCollum and LaDue 1970, pp. 333-36; Allen and Ryan 1969) It is assumed that microteaching provides a strong link between theoretical instruction about pedagogy and teaching practice. Microteaching is supposed to give the aspiring teacher a feeling for the "way it is" in the schools, but in a nonthreatening environment where constructive feedback from the methods teacher, fellow students, and the microclass is provided as an aid to improved teaching techniques. According to two advocates, "microteaching makes the university methods course more relevant in terms of the needed skills and behaviors demanded by the students and the community." (McCollum and LaDue 1970, p. 336)

Despite widespread use and acclaim, the value of microteaching has not been demonstrated through evaluation or research studies. Some critics voice serious concern about the potential benefits of microteaching as measured against the obvious heavy expenditures of time, energy, and finances necessary to launch and sustain a microteaching program. Critics contend the small class size, short time periods, and artificial learning evironment make the microteaching experience very unrealistic and thus possibly a counterproductive activity. The limited teaching time makes it practically impossible to develop a single idea or skill in depth. And certainly the limited class size and unnatural setting does not provide a gauge of capability to lead discussions or to manage student behavior. One critic suggests that "ultimately, microteaching is to be valued more for its experimental detachment <u>from</u> the classroom than for its efficiency in preparing teachers <u>for</u> the classroom." (Grannis 1970, pp. 291-301)

Conclusion

The ongoing efforts to improve social studies methods courses are exciting and promising. However, these reform efforts are merely the small beginnings of a massive undertaking. Large efforts in the complementary realms of value analysis and empirically-based investigation are needed.

Teacher educators in the social studies must constantly remind themselves that the design of any model of instruction is primarily an evaluative activity, a prescriptive enterprise which demands carefully considered judgments about what should be done. For example, the prerequisite to the design of a competency-based teacher education program is value analysis, careful thought about what competencies should be developed. However, fruitful normative analysis, value judgment, and prescription must be tied to reality, to examination of the "way it is" and the "way it might be." This requires extensive scientific inquiry about the relationships between teacher behavior and student learning.

There is an urgent need for advocates of various methods course reforms to demonstrate convincingly that methods courses are related significantly and strongly to the development of teaching capability. Failure to demonstrate the efficacy of methods courses could lead to their demise and to a severe limitation of the role of university-based teacher educators in the preparation of social studies teachers.

A growing number of critics of methods courses oppose all approaches to the reform of campus-based methods instruction. These critics believe that it is impossible to deal meaningfully and productively with the complex problem of developing teaching competency within the artificial confines of a college classroom. They would scrap the college methods courses and replace them with methods instruction in the schools, in combination with student teaching. This experience would occur during the last year of college, upon completion of academic education. Others would assign to public schools the entire task of practical pedagogical

training in cooperation with academic education taking place at a nearby college or university. This combination of practical and academic experience would take place during the entire college career of future teachers. Many advocates of competency-based teacher education are themselves urging heavy emphasis on teacher training in the schools rather than in college classrooms. They contend that "field-centered" training provides more meaningful opportunities for both learning and assessment.

Teacher education in the social studies will feature continuation of dynamic reform efforts. Numerous colleges and university faculties are currently rethinking their approaches to teacher education in all subject areas. For example, at Indiana University a complete overhaul of undergraduate teacher education programs is underway. This extensive concern with improvement is likely to make the near future of social studies methods courses unsettling, challenging, and hopeful.

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