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ABSTRACT

This document consists of a compilation of articles describing innovative programs and trends in social studies programs throughout Michigan. The introductory article gives the results of a survey of the 1971 innovative programs. The first six articles provide guidelines for undertaking innovative approaches in the classroom and overcoming obstacles to implementing new programs. Twelve articles give synopses of new programs in action in various schools throughout the state. New programs include global approaches to education, a law-related course, and an innovative economics course. The recurrent themes identified in these articles are: (1) learning occurs best by "doing;" (2) higher level thinking skills must have a large role in the classroom; (3) the cognitive developmental stage of the student must be considered; (4) a pragmatic approach to curriculum development and implementation should be emphasized; and (5) students' understanding of their interdependence with other people of the world is important. The document concludes with: (1) a philosophy and rationale for social studies education in Michigan; (2) some pointers on constructing a K-12 social studies program; (3) an outline of suggested range and instructional focus for a K-12 social studies program; and (4) a seven step curriculum development model. (SM)

SOCIAL STUDIES EDUCATION IN MICHIGAN (1987-88): CHALLENGES, TRENDS, PROGRAMS AND PRACTICES

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FOREWORD

There is a need today which is similar to the need which existed in 1971 for the dissemination of information regarding the existing state of social studies education in Michigan. This publication, Social Studies Education in Michigan (1987-88): Challenges, Trends, Programs and Practices, represents an effort to meet this need.

A number of individuals, representing various points of view and school districts, have contributed articles which are included in the publication. Two of the articles (Collins and Hansen) were initially prepared and presented on other occasions. It is hoped that the ideas presented in these articles will serve as a stimulus for discussion and reflection on the part of those who have an interest in enhancing social studies education in Michigan. Secondly, it is intended that more frequent efforts will be made in the future to continue with projects which are similar to this one.

Thanks is extended, in particular, to Ms. Kathryn Dewsbury-White, the Michigan State University doctoral candidate who has given much of her time on behalf of this project.

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INTRODUCTION

In 1971, the Michigan Department of Education published a compilation of articles describing innovative social studies programs at the local and intermediate school district level. The document was entitled Social Studies in Michigan: Some Individual Descriptions.(1) The programs were described by persons closely associated with them and were intended to provide the reader with an overview of programs that were meant to accomplish new and ambitious tasks in selected Michigan school districts.

Fifteen years later a similar effort is being made to obtain information in regard to the state of social studies education in Michigan. In the pages that follow, several local programs are described. These descriptions are arranged topically: civics/government, history, global studies, and so on. The reader will also find articles that speak on a broader perspective about the status of a given issue or topic important to social studies; such as -- critical thinking or experiential learning activities. Finally, included in this introduction is a brief summary of survey results that report the current status of the 1971 programs. The discussion that follows the reporting mechanism is an attempt to write honestly and thoughtfully about what the previous authors hoped would occur as a result of their innovations. It is also an attempt to remark on the prospects for present and future social studies curriculum innovations.

SOCIAL STUDIES EDUCATION IN MICHIGAN: SOME INDIVIDUAL DESCRIPTIONS (1971)

In the 1950's and 1960's the "new" curricula attempted to satisfy the need for excellence (Goodlad, 1984). In 1945, Harvard University published General Education in a Free Society. In this report it was recommended that all students should receive a general or core education. Beyond this core education, it was suggested classes should be provided for whatever direction the student might choose, be it college-preparation, business or vocational. Fifteen years later, in 1960, James B. Conant (1959) reiterated these same goals. The Harvard and Conant reports were regarded by many as rather liberal interpretations of the curricular provisions many educational leaders thought were required to meet the diversity of students coming into the secondary school. High schools were now attended by many, not just the college-bound.

During the 1960's an examination of the affective education children received came under close scrutiny -- a natural outgrowth of the times. According to Ravitch in her book, The Troubled Crusade: American Education 1945-1980, the examination turned into an indictment of the school. The consensus seemed to be that the school clung to irrelevant curriculum and extinguished whatever natural curiosity and thirst for critical thinking children brought to school. There appeared to be an urgent need to change the schools. Many new movements for educational change grew out of this period. The "open education movement" attempted to change the goals and methods of schooling. The "free school movement" consisted of a series of private schools committed to the use of nontraditional methods of teaching. The "alternative schools movement" was a variation of free schools but in the domain of public schools. The "deschooling movement" proposed to eliminate schools since some people thought that they reflected the larger society of which they were a part.

The 1970's was an ambitious decade. Ravitch (5) cites immense political pressure as the earmark of the decade for American schools. She says expanded political pressure led to attempts by the federal government and the courts to provide equal educational opportunities for all children. Ravitch suggests that two social forces vied for federal funds in an effort to provide something for everyone. One type of force insisted on equal and similar treatment for all. The other force insisted on different treatment for special groups. One group felt that separate was not equal. The other group felt that subordination was a consequence of equality. Neither circumstance was thought to be acceptable. Consequently, education in the 1970's attempted to accommodate an ever expanding clientele, one that insisted on action as well as consciousness-raising. Many demands were played out through the courts and implemented as a result of special interest groups. These groups no longer trusted the schools to make the right decisions or to do the right things. This was the context within which sex equity, bilingual education, rights of the handicapped and rights of minorities were promoted.

It is appropriate to discuss social studies and educational trends in the same breath because most educators would agree that it is the place of the social sciences to enlighten students (the citizenry) in order to enable them to help solve pressing social problems. In 1971, Robert Trezise, in Social Studies Education in Michigan: Some Individual Descriptions, noted that the social studies were failing to meet the needs of students and the society in which they lived. The tone of the 1971 publication was optimistic and bold. The editor noted that producing individuals who would attempt to ameliorate society's ills required drastic revisions in that population's educational program.

Recurrent themes emerged in the 1971 articles. They included:

- a shift away from content per se to a focus on process. Specifically, it was hoped students could be taught how to learn to: process data, conduct investigations, conceptualize, generalize and take cognitive leaps.

- a hope that students would come to understand concepts as a result of their own inquiry;

- the development of a program which encouraged personal development and the self-fulfillment of the individual;

- a hope that students would come to understand their role in society; and

- the development of programs which called for learning which took place beyond classroom walls.

Following is a list of the social studies programs that were described in the 1971 publication, Social Studies in Michigan: Some Individual Descriptions.

- Student Selective Series
  This program offered a battery of over 43 one-semester course offerings. It represented a range of courses designed to meet individual student needs. Students were free to select from a wide range of offerings.

- Social Studies Outdoors
This method was strictly learning through "doing," or being actively involved in projects.

- Lawyers Become Teachers
By enlisting the cooperation of the Michigan Bar Association, this program brought attorneys int the classroom to teach for one week. Discussions centered on aspects of constitutional, civil and criminal law.

- A Really "New" New Social Studies Program
This program was comprehensive and attempted to implement many curricular changes. Some of the primary goals were: (1) an attempt to adjust to individual student needs, (2) adding current content to the existing content and (3) emphasizing process as well as content.

- The Proper Study of Mankind
This program attempted to have students actually conduct research. Added features included students selecting their own courses and mixing students together from different districts.

- The Hilda Taba Teaching Strategies for Developing Children's Thinking
This program, as implied by the title, stressed the teaching of higher level thinking skills in the social studies. It is based on strategies developed by the late Hilda Taba.

- The Oak Park Project: A Holistic Approach to Revising a Social Studies Program
It was hoped that through a series of inquiry exercises students would be able to theorize in a meaningful way about social behavior.

- Afro-American History in the Detroit Public Schools
This program attempted to include the history of Afro-Americans into the regular on-going courses.

- Political Science in the High School
This program attempted to make the traditional government class more current and applicable to student needs by placing emphasis upon application, analysis and synthesis of the knowledge gained.

- Humanities in Bloomfield Hills: A Behavioral Approach
The emphasis of the program was on process rather than content. Teachers were encouraged to take advantage of student and class-posed problems, current topics and problems of interest.

- Essay: Encourage Self-Understanding and Self-Direction in Adolescent Growth
This was a program for junior high age students. The objective of the program was to develop informed, self-directed individuals. This was to be accomplished through self-discovery learning activities. A variety of materials were used, with the exception of a textbook.

- American Indian History
This program was a survey course. It utilized primary, as well as secondary, sources. The primary objective of the course was to give students an awareness of the Indian before the European culture was imposed.

- A Study in Staff and Student Involvement in Instituting Curriculum Change
This article described how one school district effectively brought about curricular change.

- A Social Studies Program of Alternatives
This article also detailed curricular change processes.

- The Indian in Michigan: A Deductive Approach
This program utilized ideas put forth by the late Hilda Taba but adapted the ideas for a fourth grade classroom and used Indians of Michigan as a basis of study.

- A Tri-Ethnic Curriculum Project
This program used ethnic or minority groups in American culture as a basis of study.

- An Experimental Independent Study-Seminar in Government
This program, largely through use of independent study and some teacher direction, attempted to provide students with learning environments that allow for intellectual freedom.

- An Integrated Multi-Material Curriculum in Social Studies and Language Arts: A Unified Approach
This program attempted to integrate Social Studies and Language Arts. A variety of resource materials were developed and collected for various units. These materials were placed on carts and moved into a given classroom as needed. It was hoped that these materials enriched the students' learning.

- The MERA Project: Improving Social Science Instruction in Three Michigan School Systems
Extensive inservice in selected topics was an important aspect of this program.

- A "Unified Studies" Social Studies Program
This program was designed to help seventh graders who were just entering adolescence to answer the question "Who am I?" Materials were drawn from behavioral sciences and literature.

- Humanities Can Be Happenings
This program was designed in an effort to get students to: appreciate the humanities, develop communication skills and express their own ideas. This was accomplished by having students create and publish a book on their community.

- Looking at Your Own Community
This elementary program had two main objectives: (1) for students to develop understandings of how their city functioned and (2) to develop a positive attitude toward their city.

1971 PROGRAMS SURVEY

An informal survey was designed to assess the present state of the 1971 programs. The survey asked respondents to identify the status of the 1971 program and its impact with reference to the themes stated previously. Out of the 17 respondents, 4 stated that the programs are functioning but with modifications. Another 3 respondents stated the programs no longer exist and they have been replaced with new programs. Ten replied that the programs no longer exist and they were not replaced with anything in particular.

The respondents were asked to assess the degree to which the program improved social studies in the district. Out of the 17 respondents one felt the program had extensive and significant impact; 10 felt the program was significant to some degree; one felt the program was not significant and 5 felt that they did not know enough about the program to respond.

The statements in Table A, Characteristics of Programs Described in the 1971 Document, were based upon goals articulated throughout the 1971 programs. First of all, it is important to note that our survey instrument was broad in scope and intended to serve as a quick measure. Secondly, the respondents were often reticent to speak about programs that they were, in most cases, not responsible for. Finally, it is important to acknowledge the natural human tendency for a margin of bias. These three factors limit the extent to which generalizations are made here. Instead, it is suggested that the reader evaluate the summary data in light of his/her own experiences.

In his 1981 article, "The Reform of Science Education: A Cautionary Tale," Philip Jackson(6) examines curriculum reform movements from 1950-1980, and their subsequent effects on education. He says that the goals of most of the new programs were twofold: to update the content of the subject matter and at the same time to change the methods of teaching so that teachers would use "discovery methods" and "hands-on" experiences. His comments are equally relevant to the social studies. Jackson says that today's students are exposed to current content but that ". . . the new material is still being taught in 'old' ways, with an emphasis on recitation and the memorization of facts."(7)

Of the programs surveyed, a few remain intact but they have undergone modifications. Three types of modifications were identified by the survey respondents. First, new textbooks have been adopted. Supplemental materials have changed consistently in order to remain current. Finally, the number of class choices available to students has been reduced. These modifications appear to be consistent with Jackson's observations insofar as all three modifications are related to content and not method.

Finally, some survey respondents noted reasons the programs were discontinued or replaced with new programs. Four respondents identified loss of key personnel as important factors. Two respondents cited loss of funding as detrimental to the programs. Two respondents cited a drop in student enrollment and two respondents noted that scheduling problems proved to be major deterrents.

Jackson suggests several reasons why curricular changes did not work out as planned. He says that many of the teaching methods that teachers were encouraged to use were difficult and unfamiliar to teachers. Perhaps this is a

partial explanation of why a loss of key personnel would result in the failure of a program. Jackson also says that through the 50's, 60's and 70's many people saw excellence and equity as two competing goals of curricular change. Jackson feels that a kind of natural tension exists between these two goals and that this tension is particularly evident when resources are scarce. Social studies has never occupied a prominent place in the school curriculum. Add to this the squeeze of "back-to-basics," an insistence on accountability, and competency- based testing and we find social studies often slighted when funds are being appropriated.

CHARACTERISTICS OF PROGRAMS DESCRIBED IN THE 1971 DOCUMENT

The reader will see a vertical listing on the left-hand side of Table A. These statements are the [illegible]ative goals that were described in the 1971 programs. Eleven of the nin[illegible] respondents, who responded to the survey, felt that they were familiar enou[illegible]with the programs being surveyed to make a likert scale judgment ranging from strongly agree (5) to strongly disagree (1). The respondents were commenting on the actual impact these desired goals had on student learning. The numbers in the boxes represent the number of respondents who agree or disagree with the various goals statements. The total number of programs described in the 1971 document was twenty-two (N = 22).

TABLE A

	S.A.	A.	A.S.	D.	S.D.	N.A.
1. Programs used inquiry based instruction.	2	1	7	-		1
2. Competence was improved due to inquiry based instruction.	1	2	6	1	-	1
3. Students learned how to conduct investigations.	2	1	7	1	-	1
4. Students improved their abilities to think at higher cognitive levels.	1	3	6	-	-	1
5. More class choices were provided [illegible] students.	4	3	-	-	1	3
6. [illegible]udents engaged in more self-selection of courses.	2	3	-	-	1	5
7. "Hands-on" experiences improved student understanding.	2	1	4	2	1	1
8. Current content resulted in higher student interest and understanding on content.	2	3	5	1	-	-
9. A variety of instructional modes resulted in higher student achievement.	1	1	8	1	-	-
10. Varied materials resulted in a higher level of student interest in the social studies.	2	3	5	1	-	-
11. Varied materials resulted in improved student competence in social studies	1	4	4	2	-	-

S.A. = Stronoly Agree
A. = Agree
A.S. = Agree Somewhat
D. = Disagree
S.D. = Strongly Disagree
N.A. = Not Applicable

PERCENTAGES TO EXPRESS SUMMARY TOTALS FOR TABLE A

TABLE B

		Agree in Some Form	Disagree in Some Form	Not Applicable
1.	Programs used inquiry based instruction.	90%	--	10%
2.	Competence was improved due to inquiry based instruction.	80%	20%	--
3.	Students learned how to conduct investigations.	80%	10%	10%
4.	Students improved their abilities to think at higher cognitive levels.	90%	--	10%
5.	More class choices were provided for students.	63%	10%	27%
6.	Students engaged in more self-selection of courses.	45%	10%	45%
7.	"Hands-on" experiences improved student understanding.	63%	27%	10%
8.	Current content resulted in higher student interest and understanding on content.	90%	10%	--
9.	A variety of instructional modes resulted in higher student achievement.	90%	10%	--
10.	Varied materials resulted in a higher level of student interest in the social studies.	90%	10%	10%
11.	Varied materials resulted in improved student competence in social studies	80%	20%	--

THE 1986 SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM

The story is not complete with regard to the impact social studies education will have on the students of the 1980's. However, a cursory glance at the recurrent themes identified in the 1986 articles when juxtaposed with the themes in the 1971 articles provides an interesting basis for discussion.

These themes express the following beliefs:

- Learning occurs best by "doing," e.g. through simulations, contests, involvement with the community, producing tangible products, case studies and mock elections.
- Higher level thinking skills must have a large role in the classroom.
- Obstacles to effectively teaching higher level thinking skills should be eliminated.
- It is important to consider the cognitive developmental stage of the student in an effort to select an appropriate mode of instruction.
- A pragmatic approach to curriculum development and implementation is stressed.
- Students' understanding of their interdependence with other people of the world is stressed in several articles and is said to be derived from an understanding of one's own attitudes and values.

Some themes popularized in the 1970's remain constant in the 1986 articles. One theme that teachers and curriculum developers continue to believe is that children learn best by "doing," by experiencing. Dewey (9) has said that experience and thought lead to learning; if separated, the result is artificiality. Current social studies teachers say that they agree with this philosophy. Shaver (10) has pointed out that although traditional patterns of social studies curriculum and instruction underwent dramatic change in the late 1960's and early 1970's, the experiences of students in social studies classes did not undergo any significant change. It has been suggested that barriers such as: time devoted to classroom control; teacher and school liability; the restricted structure of the class day; and teachers' lack of familiarity with new instructional methods, hinders teaching practices that employ experiential learning activities.

For example, if a student were to leave school grounds to interview an older member of the community to obtain data on the great depression several things might happen. The school would be concerned about liability in the case of an accident. The administration and teacher would be concerned about the conduct of the student in the community since the student is under the purview of the school from 8:00 a.m. - 2:00 p.m. Other teachers and parents might strongly question the merit of a venture that would take the student away from other subject areas and the stability of the classroom setting. Finally, there is no guarantee that the student will benefit from this experience, and perhaps worst of all, if the student does benefit it will most likely be in a realm that cannot be measured objectively.

Experiential learning activities will continue to be subordinate to other instructional practices as long as: social studies remains vague in definition; content areas remain widely divided; the public and other educators remain uncertain about the goals and benefits of social studies education; and various audiences (e.g., parents, legislators, minorities, to name a few) continue to

differ with school personnel in regard to what should be taught and which instructional approaches are the most desirable.

Efforts to improve the affective education that children receive were popularized during the 1950's, 60's and 70's but were not widely accepted for a number of reasons. Jackson (11) cites three reasons, intrinsic to this reform movement, that explain why affective education did not entirely succeed. He says that:

- The materials and methods were difficult to use insofar as they required a certain level of teacher expertise.
- Disseminating materials and ideas nationwide was challenging.
- Ambiguities surrounding federal policy, with respect to curriculum development, proved to be deterrents to reform.

Additionally, ignoring the realities of the school setting was another reason for failure. The articles in this publication pay heed to the realities of the school environment. The greatest efforts are directed toward the curriculum change processes. Unfortunately, the change processes are discussed only in light of the current school structure.

A second theme that has remained constant through many decades is the notion that social studies teachers should help students develop higher level thinking skills. It would appear that like learning through doing, the responsibility to help students develop critical thinking skills is generally endorsed by all. In Goodlad's study of schooling (12) a historical review of goals for schooling was conducted. Throughout this list and throughout Goodlad's analysis of state documents, higher level thinking skills are stressed under the heading of "intellectual development." Today, many would doubt that we are helping students achieve any appreciable degree of success in achieving this goal.

Inquiry-based instruction was widely endorsed in the 1970's. In retrospect this effort was not particularly successful. Teachers were expected to use a model that they had no experience with and were not trained to use. Shaver suggests that ". . . classroom teachers have not been taught to systematically proofread their own professional behavior . . . to gather valid, reliable information about their own professional behavior, nor have they been taught to objectively analyze that information once they have it. . . ."(13) Moreover, in his reflective comments on the National Science Foundation Studies, 1955-1977 (NSF) he noted that researchers found that social studies teachers were upset by their students' lack of interest and motivation, however, these same teachers did not believe that what occurred in the classroom -- teaching methods, textbooks and content -- affected those students' interest and motivation in any way.

A third theme that is receiving greater emphasis today than it was in 1971 is the notion that the mode of instruction is most effective when matched with the cognitive level of development of the student. This point is illustrated in Stielstra's article on social studies education in the middle school, "Middle School Social Studies: What Ought to Be." It is also discussed with clarity by Fair and Katchturoff in "Teaching Thinking: Let's Try it Again."

Another obstacle to teaching critical thinking emerges as a consequence of a goal that is close to the core of social studies education. This is the notion that social studies teachers have an obligation to prepare students for

democratic citizenship. Academicians feel that preparing a student to participate in a democracy necessitates inciting a student to think creatively and critically about his surroundings. Dewey said these thoughts can be dangerous because we cannot guarantee the outcome. Often the local community, those most immediately affected by the citizen-in-training (student), hope the teacher will produce a citizen with a sense of stability and continuity. These ends are not often, at least never immediately, achieved through creative and critical thinking. The two needs are incompatible. A solution has not been proposed. Generally the latter need of stability and continuity is followed at the expense of the former need of creative and critical thinking. There are obstacles to overcome if we are to weave critical thinking skills into the fabric of social studies education.

As educators we hope that we will be able to help students identify their own values. Additionally, we hope that students will recognize that different people have different values and that they learn to respect values which differ from their own. In the philosophy and rationale section of the Michigan Department of Education's Essential Goals and Objectives document for social studies education, it is stated that, "Surely young people ought to see their own racial, ethnic, and religious roots, but to see them out of relation to those of others or the coherence of society is to miss the point of cultural pluralism and the need for social justice. . . A proper social studies program will integrate many areas of concern, out of which basic learnings grow or to which basic learnings are applied."(14)

Similarly, in the 1986 articles a contradictory theme which seems to affect thinking about the social studies curriculum is that of how to internationalize the curriculum and at the same time satisfy those audiences whose interest is in placing a greater emphasis on nationalistic concerns.

In his paper on Global Education, Thomas Collins writes,

> American education is in the midst of a transition; a transition concerning the kind of education that will best prepare our young people to effectively deal with the complex issues thrust upon them as members of an increasingly interdependent global society.(15)

While the need for global education appears to be widely recognized, assimilating the content into the social studies still meets with some resistance. Collins observed that global studies occupies a small piece of our overall agenda. And yet, the programs that are described in this publication appear to be working, due to the efforts of individual teachers or school administrators who support the notion of global education in the social studies curriculum. It is hoped that these programs will serve as encouraging examples to other districts. Global education has much to offer our youth. As social studies educators we have an opportunity to prepare students for their role in an intricate and delicately interdependent world. For this very reason, global education has much to offer the student because its orientation is so much toward the future. Much of traditional social studies is mired in the past and seems to be just barely relevant to even the best student.

Two articles in this publication directly speak to the issue of effectively implementing curricular changes. No doubt these articles are reflective of concerns many of us have felt as a result of the apparent failure of the social

studies programs we hoped would succeed throughout the 60's and 70's. In her article, "The Kalamazoo Public Schools Elementary Social Studies Program," Kelli Sweet, a curriculum coordinator, provides a "nuts and bolts" approach when explaining how to help teachers implement changes effectively. Robert Skinner writes from the teacher's perspective; he emphasizes the importance of the teacher's role; he reiterates John Gardener's thoughts, "Federal laws, dollars and programs don't teach children . . . Teachers teach children . . . individual teachers . . . in the schools. In other words, everything depends upon increased vitality out where the action is."(16) Hansen (17) and Skinner make much the same point: curricular changes will neither occur nor endure unless they are owned, adopted and implemented by classroom teachers. Sweet and Skinner point out that the realities of the school must be considered when implementing change, an issue that was not given thorough enough consideration in the preceding decades.

Much has been written concerning reasons why the social studies programs of the 60's and 70's did not wholly succeed. The point has been made that a schism exists between curriculum developers and teachers. As stated earlier, those suggesting change have not always taken into consideration that the system does not provide incentives to teachers for innovation and risk-taking in curriculum development. Moreover, we have too often neglected to consider the realities of the classroom when suggesting change. To a large degree the teacher is commissioned to manage and control students. Shaver suggests that often innovative suggestions are in direct conflict with this aim.(18)

The question of whose values will be taught in the school is a difficult one. As suggested in the preceding paragraphs, this is a particularly difficult question when we consider that the current mood in our country is guarded and somewhat nationalistic. Certainly, this outlook may conflict with the types of teachings that truly spur a student to think deeply and critically about their surroundings.

Many factions (e.g., parents, legislators, special interest groups, to name a few) work at cross purposes to implement change. Hansen (19) cautions those factions who use the courts to coerce change. He suggests that they are developing a highly resistant audience (classroom teachers) whenever change is mandated (e.g., busing, bilingual education, special education). Equally detrimental to change processes is the trade union philosophy that teachers have adopted as their own. Hansen suggests the problems which stem from this must be ameliorated in order for the classroom to be less resistant to change.

The 1980's has been a decade that has had to consider the various obstacles to change that existed throughout the preceding two decades. And yet this decade, like all others, has obstacles to consider that are characteristic of these times. Schools do not enjoy the financial support that they enjoyed in the 60's and 70's. We have had to deal with retrenchment as evidenced in the "back-to-basics" movement. Accountability, competency-based programs and performance objectives have been the watchwords of the 70's and 80's. According to Hansen, this model in general tends to restrict professional development to those areas of instruction where student achievement can be easily measured (e.g., reading and mathematics) (20) Finally, the assigned goals for the 60's and 70's were ambitious and far reaching. It was hoped that the schools would eliminate society's ills, they did not, ". . . as educators we have lost the esteem of parents, other professionals, legislators and voters. We were going to reform education but we failed."(21)

When the 1980's have come to an end we will probably feel that it has been a difficult decade in regard to curricular change. While we generally understand better when evaluating our actions in retrospect, it is well to note here that several factors listed in the following paragraph may prove to be major determiners as to subsequent success or failure with change processes related to social studies education.

It has been suggested by Hansen (22) and others that change processes need enough time to be a bottom-up or grass-roots venture. They need to be implemented thoroughly but they need to move along quickly enough to bypass political swings. Likewise, change should not be entirely designed to satisfy political constituencies. In order for this to happen school personnel will have to regain the trust of various constituencies be they parents, legislators, or whomever. School personnel may in part succeed in doing this by monitoring their own professional behavior. Likewise, the system will need to hold out more incentives and rewards for those teachers who venture to risk change. There is still very little being done in any significant and widespread effective manner to integrate instructional theory into practices which will have the greatest impact. In high school, and to a lesser degree the middle school, change is still implemented and perpetuated in singular domains, be they science, mathematics or social studies.

Despite the changing popular and momentary efforts of the "effective schools movement" and related faddish" programs, what goes on in schools primarily remains the same.

There has been a lack of vertical and horizontal curricular articulation in social studies.

> At the risk of oversimplification, federal efforts to improve our schools may be depicted metaphorically as moving in two different . . . directions . . . the horizontal movement of federal effort is toward equity and social justice . . . The vertical direction of federal strivings is toward excellence and heightened achievement.(23)

Money has been appropriated for special interest groups (special education, bilingual education, et al.) to pursue their own agendas. Money has not been supplied for one entire curricular area. Until money is made available for social studies as a whole, schools will not address the various needs within the social studies curriculum because no monetary incentive exists. Until there is a greater degree of consensus as to the importance of social studies education, little change is likely to occur.

There is the matter of the aging staff in education. Often, secondary level (7-12) social studies steachers have been teaching the same classes (often the same lesson) for a great number of years. All too frequently they have little interest in inservice activities that emphasize curricular innovations in teaching practices. Today it is not uncommon to find social studies teachers who have 20-25 years or more experience. Many have been teaching in the same buildings for 20 or more years, often in the same classrooms for 15 or more years.

Goodlad has reported that personal growth has failed to motivate any appreciable number of social studies teachers, and salary increases have motivated even

fewer. Furthermore, the inservices that social studies teachers attend are primarily content-oriented. Topics such as curriculum develooment, teaching methods, classroom management or child growth (26) rate low on the list of preferred inservice activities.

Textbooks influence what is taught in our schools to a tremendous extent. Publishers are not often on the cutting edge of curricular innovation because they are first of all interested in selling books. The publishers by and large provide the schools with what they are interested in buying. For the most part, the curriculum projects of the 1970's did not develop "best-selling materials."

> . . . radical change in materials is unlikely. Curriculum products that reach today's teachers and students must go through a variety of administrative levels which in turn respond to community input . . . local developers have no established dissemination system of their own; nor do they have a normal route to publishers to share their work.(27)

Many schools fear that strong guidance from the state or federal level will result in a loss of local autonomy.

> The new politics of the schools rotates, in part, about a state-federal axis rather than a local-state axis . . . Over the past thirty-five years, educational decision making has expanded beyond the traditional state-local district connection . . . A serious misstep invited the attention of federal officials, state officials, the national press, civil rights organizations, powerful teachers' unions, and professional associations.(28)

The way in which we finance education will have to be changed if any significant changes in student achievement are to occur. Today, only a small percentage of the population feels that they directly benefit from public schools.

> The primary clients of American public schools -- parents and their school-age children -- have become a minority group. Declining birth rates and increased aging of our population during the 1970's increased the proportion of citizens not directly involved with the schools. And there appears to be a rather direct relationship between these changed demographics and the growing difficulty of securing tax dollars for schools.(29)

These are all issues that we have not come to grips with. To the extent that we are able to solve some of these issues, we will see changes in social studies education.

The optimism of the 1970's is not entirely dead; however, the state of education in general is not good. The vibrato has been tempered by a more pragmatic approach. It is our hope that efforts to produce positive change in the social studies will become a reality despite the obstacles that continue to confront us.

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Footnotes

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Staff Development for Educational Change in Local School Districts: Implications for Global, Multi-Cultural, Bilingual and Foreign Language Education

INTRODUCTION

With the launching of Sputnik in 1957, American education began a frenzy of educational change efforts unparalleled in its history. Motivated first by a belief that the quality of our educational program had become inferior to Russian education and subsequently by a rich "Great Society" menu, we mounted change efforts that were to leave no corner of the institution untouched.

In the 15 years following Sputnik, we developed national curriculum projects in science, math, English, and social studies. We championed whole new programs like career education, vocational education, special education, compensatory education, bilingual education, multi-ethnic education, open education, and alternative education. We turned junior high schools into middle schools and academic high schools into comprehensive high schools. We individualized instruction, brought multi-media technology to materials, teacher-proofed curricula, introduced team teaching, and acknowledged students' rights. We increased central control with behavioral objectives, criterion-referenced tests, and exotic acronyms like PPBS, ZBB, and MBO, all borrowed from industry. We decreased central control with team management, organizational development, and decentralized decision making. We desegregated and unified and inserviced staff. To support these efforts, we increased federal spending for basic research (NIE), for applied research and development (R & D Centers and Regional Labs), for grass roots innovation (TITLES III and IV), for evaluation (NAEP), and for dissemination (ERIC).

Many stimuli fueled these change efforts: the "carrot" of increasing local budgets and state and federal funding, the "sticks" of judicial and legislative mandates, a vacuum of any teacher militancy, the blessing of an expanding student population, the infusion of new, fresh, excited young teachers, and the euphoria of our important status in the quest for the "Great Society."

And now, some 20 years later, we look back on this frenzy of activity with considerable bewilderment and disillusion. Education's assigned goals for the "Great Society" lie largely unfulfilled, the many and varied innovations have generally not been adopted and, with but a few exceptions, classrooms and schools are conducted today pretty much as they were 20 years ago.(1) To add to our woes, retrenchment and stagnation are the order of the day as we discuss declining enrollments, staff attrition, school closings, millage defeats, labor negotiations, back to the basics, teacher burnout, and uncertain federal interest in education. Perhaps most debilitating of all, as educators we have lost the esteem of parents, other professionals, legislators, and voters. We were going to reform education, but we failed. And although we can point with pride to some accomplishments, we also know we have not seen significant organizational change in education that is anywhere near commensurate with the infusion of resources entrusted to us.

You have perhaps already concluded that this is indeed a dismal way to begin a treatise on major issues in staff development for organizational change. And perhaps it is. However, education stands at a crossroad. We must examine

fundamental issues and seek to learn from our failures, lest we condemn ourselves to repeat them. There is something fundamentally wrong with the educational change process. In this paper I hope to suggest where we have made at least one fundamental mistake and how a reconceptualization of professional development may alleviate that mistake and help us toward more effective educational change. Most importantly, I hope to recommend how we as educators can confront these realities, given our assigned responsibilities in curriculum and instruction. As a prelude to that discussion, however, permit me to explore briefly some background and assumptions.

BACKGROUND

A. The Problem

The history sketched in the introduction above is painful to recall. For most of that period (1966-1975), I was an educational change agent. At the time I felt all of those same noble feelings of moral dedication to a new educational order. By 1973 I felt the same disillusion and despair. Out of that despair came a personal interest in the concept of professional development. In the intervening period, I have helped to develop a successful workshop model which encourages teachers to move from theory to successful classroom practice. I was part of a team of colleagues who built a professional development center predicated on the assumption that teachers are capable of and interested in helping each other grow professionally. I have been one of a dozen or more educators who worked jointly with the Ford Foundation in attempting to determine why research does not have more impact on educational practice. I have also helped to guide two school districts in university-centered communities toward significant educational changes, sometimes without the measure of success I would have hoped for.

Throughout these efforts I have been struck by a singularly universal fact: classrooms are change resistant organizational units. Even in school systems that are generally open to change, classrooms, in general, remain closed and resistant to change. That fact explains, more than any other, why the educational innovations of the 1960s and 70s did not endure. Proposed changes were never owned, adopted, and implemented by classroom teachers.

Given the current level of resistance to change in the classroom, adoption cycles of 25 to 30 years are necessary in education. In the 1960s and early 70s we didn't have any such time; innovations "blew through the profession" before any significant adoption could occur. To educators at the state level, the thought of a 25 to 30 year adoption cycle must bring considerable consternation. The sifting sands of political fortune often devour an educational change before it can reach fruition. As Pincus and William note, ". . . the time needed to implement large-scale planned change often exceeds the stable tenure of the political constituencies that the planned change was designed to satisfy."(2) Those state-wide educators charged to implement such programs as bilingual education, multi-cultural education, or global education must be able to reduce state-wide adoption and implementation cycles to a more acceptable eight to ten year period.

Before this can occur classrooms must become change persistent rather than change resistant organizational units. Lest you dismiss me as a hopeless

Don Quixote, let me hasten to add that I'm not talking about radical educational reform, nor am I proposing that teachers become subversive as suggested by Neil Postman in his earlier book, Teaching as a Subversive Activity.(3) I am, however, talking about a classroom where the teacher, as a professional colleague, has both the opportunity and the responsibility to be continuously re-examining what he or she is doing and how she or he is doing it. I accept the general thesis which Postman now suggests: that, in fact, teaching is a conserving activity, as he notes in his new book, Teaching as a Conserving Activity.(4) It is important, however, that a "sifting and winnowing" process occur continuously to ensure that what is being conserved is the best of what society has to offer its children. Conserving dare not become an excuse for the attitude, "But we've always done it that way." I am calling for an attitude of progress, not radical change.

Before we can change classrooms from change resistant to change persistent organizational units, we must recognize what factors make classrooms change resistant. In the section of this paper labeled "Issues," I will begin to suggest what these factors might be. First, however, lest you think me a Pollyanna, let me share briefly with you some assumptions about our current realities in public education that must serve as a backdrop for any discussion regarding educational change.

B. Assumptions

Assumption One: Any improvement of the change process for public education must be proposed against the realities of today and the more reasonable of the various scenarios available for tomorrow. It is a reality that we no longer enjoy the ebullient decade of expansion and easy financing that was characteristic of the 1960s and early 70s. We are managing today for enrollment reduction and financial retrenchment and crisis. We no longer enjoy our earlier status as an indispensable instrument of social reform. We are under attac' because we do not teach the basics, because we are too lenient, because we are unfair and inhumane, because we cannot meet one or another of society's ills, and because we are costing taxpayers too much money.

What is discouraging for many local educators is that the negative attitudes are more readily felt at the local level in millage and board elections than they are felt in the bureaucracies at the state and federal level. Thus, far too frequently state and federal educators are continuing with the process of social reform through education totally oblivious of the alienation which this is causing at local school district levels as parents and citizens perceive the local district as having less and less control over educational priorities.(5) All levels of the educational bureaucracy must get in tune with the prevailing realities of the time.

Assumption Two: The excessive time required to cement educational change is symptomatic of a problem, not a problem in and of itself. We have been altogether too ready to treat it as a problem. Consequently, efforts to date to overcome the excessive time lag have been counterproductive. Efforts to speed up educational change by shortcutting steps in the current process have been disastrous. Most often the shortcuts have occurred in such stages as problem identification, program implementation, or

evaluation. These steps often have received the least attention, least amount of time, and least amount of resources. Because, quite often, these are the steps that are given least attention, the current change model promotes "bad" innovations or changes as readily as it promotes "good" innovations.

As an example, considerable attention has been accorded individualized instruction and for some ten years, educators have attempted to champion the concept. Though perhaps conceptually sound, the innovation fails in the face of pupil-teacher ratios of 25 to 30 or more and an unrealistic work load and information load for individual classroom teachers. And yet, because insufficient attention was devoted to both implementation problems and to evaluation, much professional time, energy, and resources were devoted to this innovation with little, if any, payoff. Now research seems to support that models other than individualized instruction will provide greater student achievement.(6)

Shortcutting the educational change process also promotes the perception that change is coming from the top down or from the outside in. In retaliation, grassroots operatives (teachers and principals) have learned to "seduce" change agents into submission. They have acquired the rare talent of seeming to go along, but providing just enough resistance to eventually slow the change agent to a dead halt. Consequently, a lot of things get started in school systems and seem to flourish for a brief period of time, but never really reach any kind of classroom integration that impacts on children.

Assumption Three: The over stimulation of local school districts will continue for at least the next decade. The decade of the 1980s, for better or for worse, is destined to become a decade of legal redress as schools become the battleground for competing social and cultural values. Disengranchised minorities will continue to seek redress through state and federal legislation. State and federal bureaucracies will increase the pace of efforts to either compel or inspire change. As the power base slowly shifts from the local level to the halls and offices of state and federal education departments, the growing resistance of local districts to externally imposed change will be met by greater political pressures from those same state and federal bureaucracies.(7)

At the local school district level, the growing pluralism in many communities will place increasing stress on local decision making as boards and superintendents find it increasingly difficult to put together a constituency base that will allow decision making to occur.(8) Compounding that problem is a growing conflict between the parent community and the teacher bargaining unit in many school systems. These two interest groups will increasingly be at odds over selection and evaluation of teachers, availability of educational alternatives, and control of the curriculum.

Assumption Four: The process of educational change in local school districts will remain more of an idiosyncratic art than a systematic science. In a recent Rand Corporation study of planned change in urban school districts, Pincus and William set out to find those generalizations which would suggest how planned change can most effectively occur in a large school district. What the study did was to refute or neutralize many

sacredly held Shibboliths of the educational change process. Rather than confirming those or suggesting some alternative Shibboliths, the authors presented five conclusions:

1) The zone of protective tolerance need only take the form of neutrality: effective educational change does not require broad-based prior support.

2) The process of planned change does not require charismatic leadership.

3) No matter how well planned and implemented the changes are, it is very difficult to maintain stability.

4) The timing and strength of the innovative efforts are idiosyncratic.

5) Innovative movements in each district tend to wax and wane according to various factors. In some cases the process of innovation itself creates forces that result in the innovative system.(9)

Relative to what most educational change agents currently assume about the process, these conclusions serve more to dispel previously held beliefs than they serve to suggest any clearcut alternative model for educational change.

ISSUES

The assumptions noted above speak in large part to the socio-political trends in local school districts today and in the foreseeable future. They are the "warp and woof" against which the embroidery of educational change must be stitched. These assumptions suggest that the decade of the 80s may well be every bit as dynamic as the last two decades have been. Though these socio-political trends will certainly influence educational change, they are not the prime determinants of whether or not we will be successful in bringing about educational change in the future. If history is any teacher, we can learn much from the last two decades. The many changes, movements, and influences that swirled around classrooms and teachers left them largely unaffected. If we are to be more successful in the next decade than we have over the last two decades, we must examine why that's true.

Up until recently, educational change efforts were fueled by new instructional materials, new research and development center programs, new educational structure, new staffing, or new technology. Recently, under the rubric that it is the teacher that makes the difference, we have seen a renewed interest in staff development and its related programs. However, it is the contention of this author that these efforts are doomed to the same failure met by other change efforts. They are doomed to the same failure because they have not attempted to turn classrooms from change resistant to change persistent socio-political units. Before we can talk about making classrooms change persistent units, however, we must understand a little better what makes them change resistant. In the paragraphs which follow, I would like to suggest some of the reasons why classrooms remain change resistant socio-political units.

A. Classroom teaching is the least statusful professional role in education with no concommitant career ladder within the role.(10) Classroom teaching is the entry-level role for a professional career in education. Although

teachers' salaries are commonly tied to a schedule based on professional experience and amount of educational training, there is little evidence that position on that salary schedule is in any way related to professional status or to differential professional expectations on the part of management. Basically, a teacher with five years experience or a teacher with a Bachelor's degree has as much status among his or her peers as a teacher with fifteen years experience or an advanced degree. The assignments given to these teachers may bear little, if any, relationship to the amount of experience or the amount of previous training they have received. There is no formally recognized status hierarchy among classroom teachers based on teaching competency or the demands of a specific assignment. There is a plethora of informal and relatively dysfunctional status relationships that emerge out of teacher and community perception. These informal status relationships usually bear little, if any, relationship to expectations of professional growth.

Relative to other non-teaching educational positions, classroom teaching is perceived as the least statusful. Commonly, it is thought that to be a classroom teacher, one does not need as much professional training and education or experience as to aspire to a non-teaching role such as administrator or consultant or researcher. Thus, it is difficult for classroom teachers to become visible and influential "giants" in the field of education. Classroom teaching is perceived more as a technical entry-level position than as a long-term professional position from which an individual can serve the knowledge generation and policy-setting roles of the profession as well as serving the direct instructional needs of children.

B. The prevalent change models used in education--coercion and seduction--are demoralizing and debilitating to teachers. Because the classroom is perceived as a change-resistant socio-political unit, teachers are viewed as organizational objects to be treated. Put bluntly, those who have escaped the classroom have the satisfaction of "treating" those who have not. Teachers tend to feel powerless and deprived of any locus of professional control; therefore, they react defensively and resistantly. Rogus and Martin put it very succinctly:

> In essence, recent years have seen an other-directed expansion in the teacher's role; as an outcome of this process, many teachers have come to feel "dumped on" and have lost a portion of their original teaching zest.(11)

Resistance to change precipitates more coercive and seductive pressure in a ratcheting action which leaves teachers demoralized and debilitated. But, so long as the classroom remains a change-resistant socio-political unit, it is not unfair to expect that the pressures for change upon teachers will continue to mount.

C. Teachers tend to be treated as professional "adolescents" by other professional educators. Most teachers are perceived as technicians, not as professionals. They are deprived of professional leadership positions outside of their own union organizations. As noted earlier, it is rare, indeed, for an elementary or secondary classroom teacher to achieve a position of national prominence from the classroom where that person can

influence state or national educational policy. Classroom teachers who do aspire to a professional role are perceived by others as going through their adolescent period of growth toward becoming bona fide professionals. Such persons endure a period of professional socialization and advanced training and then escape the classroom to assorted and more statusful non-teaching educational positions. A talented and well educated classroom teacher who chooses to stay a classroom teacher is commonly perceived as being overtrained and wasting valuable professional opportunity.

D. The elementary or secondary classroom, the laboratory which is central to what all of us are about, is the most autonomous and least visible socio-political unit in the profession. As Hunter(12) notes, effective learning requires that the teacher make daily professional decisions--as many as 5,000 or more in number--most of which cannot be effectively supervised. No one can monitor the classroom continuously and few administrators are prepared or even have the time to supervise classroom activities closely. Once the teacher closes the classroom door and begins to teach, there is relatively little external control and virtually no visibility for what is happening in the classroom. Efforts to compel change by coercion or seduction are rendered ineffective by the time they reach the classroom level, for indeed, those who now compel change are quite dependent upon the good faith and cooperation of an independent classroom teacher. Unfortunately, good faith and cooperation suggest a collegial relationship, not a coercive and seductive adolescent relationship.

E. Linking teacher professional development to increases in student achievement is an inappropriate and short-sighted use of the industrial system's model. Such a model reinforces the view presented earlier that teachers are perceived as organizational objects to be treated. The model assumes a linear cause and effect relationship and restricts professional development to those areas of instruction where student achievement can be measured. The model also restricts professional development to efforts which promise quick satisfaction and production of student learning. Most notably, the model reflects the low institutional priority of teacher professional development and absolves individual teachers from any responsibility for their own development. Such a model also reinforces the attitude that teachers are technicians rather than professionals.

F. Demands for classroom change have no conceptual integrity or "gestalt" for classroom teachers. Demands for change in curriculum and instruction are coming from a variety of quarters with inadequate priority setting or "crap detecting." Those changes, many of which were enumerated in the opening paragraphs of this paper, are perceived by teachers as a blurred cacophony of miscellaneous requests. Part of every elementary and secondary curriculum is an everchanging jumble or hodgepodge of units and courses. Among the most recent additions are those entitled bilingual education, career education, consumer education, death education, moral education, and multi-cultural education.(13)

There is, at the present time, no integrating curriculum theory or instructional theory by which proposed changes can be put into perspective. In curriculum, for example, many of the changes being proposed cut across disciplines, yet the political strength of the academic disciplines is such that it is difficult for interdisciplinary efforts to penetrate curricula that are set up to serve the political needs of the academic disciplines.

Because those seeking change in the classroom are not in the classroom, they have little empathy for the impact which this cacophony of demands is having on teacher workload and teacher role. An example is the process of educational planning and programming conferences (EPPCs) and the individual education plans (IEPs) that are presently required for special education students. Such activities on the part of the classroom teacher are relatively time consuming and tend to take away from direct instructional time between teacher and all students. At the same time, there is a growing body of research which suggests that it is the amount of student contact time that is one of the strongest predictors of student achievement.(14) Thus, the demands we are placing on the teacher are openly conflicting.

Finally, it must be noted that in a change resistant environment, change agents tend to help those change who are least resistant to change. Because elementary teachers are more considerate of and perhaps obedient to directives to change, we have tended to propose more changes for the elemtary classroom than for the secondary classroom. Over the last twenty years, the elementary classroom has been repeatedly overburdened by change efforts and an ever longer menu of instructional objectives and needs. Periodically, backlash occurs as the community tends to sort out this cacophony of changes and get the elementary classroom back to the four to five instructional goals which the community feels are the most critical. The current "back-to-basics" movement is a case in point.

G. Teachers have not been socialized to an inquiry model of professional behavior. The classroom, or more generally, the school is not perceived as a center for inquiry regarding the teaching and learning process.(15) Classroom teachers have not been systematically taught how to proofread their own professional behavior. As Perrone notes: "John Dewey, among others, encourages teachers to 'step back' and reflect on their efforts as a means of achieving greater confidence about an independence in their practice. To do otherwise was, in his view, to become stagnant, to become dependent on external decisions about the classroom."(16)

Many innovations have failed, not because they were intrinsically ineffective, but rather because they were ineffectively implemented. Because classroom teachers have not been taught to systematically proofread their own professional behavior, they tend to attribute failure to the ineffectiveness of the innovation rather than the ineffectiveness of their own implementation.

Classroom teachers have also been systematically excluded from the pedagogical knowledge building process. The study of the teaching-learning process tends to be done by educators who have escaped the elementary or secondary classroom. Being an elementary or secondary classroom teacher is not associated with being a scholar. Far too many classroom teachers have not been equipped with the basic skills of empirical investigation. They have not been taught to gather valid or reliable information about their own professional behavior, nor have they been taught to objectively analyze that information once they have it. Those activities are left for people outside of the classroom.

H. Classroom teacher unionization is a response to these conditions; unwittingly, however, it is also a contributing factor.. Clearly, the conditions outlined in previous issues existed before the middle 1960s when teachers began to organize into labor bargaining units. However, trade union philosophy, the model which teachers' associations have commonly adopted, exacerbate the conditions that contribute to classroom resistance to change. The overwhelming drive for member unity in teacher unions prevents any recognition of differences in performance or skill. Teacher unions generally see little value in recognizing professional excellence among teachers or according organizational status to excellence of teaching performance.

Secondly, the teacher unions have set out to collect more control of curriculum and classroom instruction. In an effort to meet the needs of union leadership or to alleviate the pressures placed on classrooms by management or by the community, teacher unions have attempted most often through bargaining agreements to exercise their own control over the classroom. I am in no way proposing turning control of the classroom or of the teaching-learning process over to unions. Classrooms must continue to be responsive to the needs of students, parents, the community, and society in general. However, as long as we all perceive the classroom as a territory whose power is free to be carved up by various militant and highly territorial groups, including teacher unions, we will continue the adversarial relationship which contributes to a change resistant classroom climate.

I. Staff development is too narrowly defined by professional educators and by lay leaders of the profession. Most often staff development is perceived as "inservice education" for the purpose of facilitating a specific program change. Even "teacher center" programs often have this as their primary premise. Such a model is once again an acting out of the premise that classroom teachers are to be viewed as organizational objects to be treated. The prevalent staff development model is thus one of homeostasis. The individual classroom teacher is "OK" until a specifically felt need for change occurs at which time some treatment must be determined and implemented. Only lip service is paid to the age-old and universal premise that in order to teach effectively, one must also continue to learn effectively. Nor is there much understanding that to be professionally healthy is best achieved by constantly striving to get healthier.(17)

IV. RECOMMENDATIONS

In the previous section, we have reviewed what this author perceives to be many of the factors contributing to the change-resistant nature of classrooms. It does not have to be that way, however. With courage, the educational profession can move toward models of educational change which avoid or eliminate many of the conditions which cause classrooms currently to be change resistant. In this last section, I would like to suggest some specific recommendations which could help change resistant classrooms become change persistent classrooms.

A. Coercive educational change efforts that impact directly on the classroom should be used sparingly. There are occasions when an educational injustice cries out for immediate relief; policy makers feel they cannot wait for local educators to get ready, become comfortable, or own the

change that is perceived as remedying the injustice. However, these coercive change efforts (such as career education and bilingual education, for example) increase the shield of classroom resistance to other change efforts, both coercive and non-coercive. Such coercive efforts increase the probability (1) that future change efforts will also have to be coercive, and (2) that future change efforts will be more effectively sabotaged by local teachers and administrators. Increasingly, policy makers at the local, state, and federal level must weigh carefully the magnitude of any perceived injustice and determine if its remedy by a coercive effort is worth the further contributions the coersion will make to an already negative classroom climate.

B. Teachers should be accorded a more direct and vital role in the production, dissemination, and utiliztion of educational knowledge. In short, teachers must become an integral part of the educational research team. Such an effort must begin in pre-service training and early graduate work by the introduction of basic concepts of social research philosophy, theory, and technique so that teachers can communicate effectively with research specialists. Beginning teachers should learn to "proofread" their own classroom behavior and to operate in a general climate of professional inquiry. In-service teachers must be given the appropriate resources and assistance to research their own instructional questions and evaluate their own instructional efforts. Experienced classroom teachers must be encouraged to work cooperatively with other scholars outside the classroom in the ongoing study of basic educational problems. Professional researchers must work over extended periods of time with the same teachers in order to establish a collegial relationship. The current "hit and split" attitude of some educational researchers must be discouraged and abandoned. Empirical knowledge must be packaged as prevailing views that can be disseminated by classroom teachers to other classroom teachers. Above all, teachers must help each other realize that teaching is both an art and a science, and as such can yield to study. As teachers, we can be better by studying our craft.

C. Certification policies for all educators should insure continuing professional growth. Nothing is more debilitating to a teacher dedicated to professional growth than to see a colleague, be she/he a teacher or administrator, who is doing just enough to get by and little, if anything, to keep up with advances in the profession. The expectation of all educators should be to grow professionally throughout their career, not just during the first five years, if at all.

Certification must be time-limited and renewable only in the context of a professional growth plan. When serving the needs of periodic recertification, the professional growth objectives of classroom teachers should relate directly to professional behavior in the classroom. Moreover, a balanced focus between content and methodology must be encouraged.

D. Career ladder plans which allow "master teachers" to remain productive in the classroom should be provided. Teacher leadership must be developed. Advanced degrees beyond the Masters level should be available in teaching and learning and other professional areas directly related to classroom instruction. More dual assignments involving both classroom teaching and

curriculum in-service leadership must be provided. Temporary assignment opportunities should allow teachers to work temporarily outside the classroom, but with the clear understanding that they will return to the classroom. An effort must be made to insure that advisory committees at local, state, and national levels have positions to which capable, experienced classroom teachers can be appointed in more than token gestures. Classroom teachers should be encouraged to publish professionally, not only for other teachers, but for general professional distribution.

E. Curriculum models which integrate instruction should be both developed and tested with teachers. We will "hammer" reason and order out of the current cacaphony of curriculum pressures only when teachers find order and reason in their classroom efforts. Current theoretical models built in isolated "R and D" laboratories or halls of higher education are being left on the "cutting room floor" because we are not getting broad-based feedback on their practicality. We need an iterative model of curriculum development that starts with and ends with the teacher.

The model used by the Ohio State Career Education Consortium is instructive. It proceeds basically as follows:

1) Teachers and curriculum developers build specifications together.

2) Curriculum developers, using specifications, develop a blueprint for the proposed program.

3) Teachers critique and suggest modifications in the blueprint.

4) Curriculum developers use modified blueprint to develop a pilot instructional program.

5) The pilot program is critiqued by teachers and modified as necessary.

6) The pilot program is tested by teachers in their classrooms.

7) The pilot program is modified and completed per suggestions made by the classroom teachers.

8) The final program is endorsed by classroom teachers.

9) The final program is disseminated to other classroom teachers with the help of involved teachers.

Such a model could go through several improvement iterations instead of just the one described above. Most important, however, is that teachers have been significantly involved from the beginning to the end of the development and dissemination process. There are obviously other variations on the same theme--but all offer the same potential: improved curriculum development and modeling.

F. Professional development centers should be encouraged to operate by the dominant philosophy that each teacher has both something to learn from and something to teach to another teacher. "Master" teachers should be

encouraged to offer seminars and workshops for other teachers and administrators. "Prepare to Share" programs should be available to encourage each teacher to share his/her strengths and successes with others. Most importantly, teachers' professional teaching efforts should get equal billing with university professors, consultants, and administrators. "Master" teachers, through adjunct professorship status, should be able to offer programs for both undergraduate and gradaute credit.

G. "Lighthouse" schools should be developed where the appropriate instructional and professional climate can be modeled. Living laboratories where the prevailing views of learning teaching are on display are desperately needed in our profession. In much the same vein as teaching hospitals, such schools give us (1) a rich training site for both preservice and in-service teachers, (2) a laboratory for the on-going research and development of learning and teaching, and (3) a concrete and visible symbol of our current prevailing professional view for our supporters, detractors, and benefactors. Of course, such schools have merit only as they have multiple linkages to other schools, to administrators, to boards of education, to other teachers, to universities, and to state and federal departments of education. Older models of university-based laboratory schools must be avoided, since they tend to be insular.

H. Stronger linkages between classroom educators and non-classroom educators must be forged. Curriculum internships that allow teachers to work with local central office administdrators and state department of education personnel are a definite and practical possibility. Policy advisory boards, sample survey, and delphi strategies must be utilized more systematically to solicit input and reaction from teachers on proposed changes and developments. Periodic teaching sabbaticals for non-teaching educators must be encouraged for federal, state, and local personnel. Most importantly, role and status relationships between teaching and non-teaching professionals must be less distinct and rigid; relationships must be more functional.

V. CONCLUSION

Change persistent classrooms can be a reality. To reach that goal, however, we must have the courage to alter status patterns, to change roles, and to foster new collegial relationships. Classroom teachers must be accorded their legitimate and respected place in our profession. We must abandon the practice of "treating" classroom teachers; we must all become classroom teachers at heart.

In concluding, however, I cannot leave the topic without one additional observation. So long as teachers' unions persist in their current trade union philosophy, attempts to implement most of the concepts that I have discussed previously will be hamstrung. We must all police our own ranks to assure minimum standards of professional quality; we must all acknowledge the need for on-going professional growth; we must all be prepared to acknowledge our accountability to students. The increasingly adversarial stance between classroom teacher educators and non-classroom teacher educators preclude such a united front. We are not all in it together yet.

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Footnotes

1. For a review of the research which supports this conclusion see Donald C. Orlich, "Federal Educational Policy: The Paradox of Innovation and Centralization." Educational Researcher, Vol. 8, No. 7 (July-August, 1979), pp. 4-9.

2. John Pincus and Richard Williams. "Planned Change in Urban School Districts." Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. 60, No. 10 (June, 1979), pp. 729-731.

3. Neil Postman and Charles Weingartner. Teaching as a Subversive Activity, New York: Delacorte Press, 1969.

4. Neil Postman. Teaching as a Conserving Activity, New York: Delacorte Press, 1979.

5. Lee H. Hansen, "Political Reformation in Local Districts," Educational Leadership. Vol. 34, No. 2 (November, 1976), pp. 90-94. For further discussion of the causes and effects of educational political shifts see Wendell M. Haugh, "Power and Influence in the Change Process," Educational Leadership, Vol. 36, No. 1 (October, 1978), pp. 55-59; and William C. Miller, "The American Public School Curriculum: Capitalist Tool or Instrument for Social Reform," Educational Leadership, Vol. 36, No. 1 (October, 1978), pp. 60-63.

6. Barak v. Rosenshine, "Content, Time, and Direct Instruction," in Research on Teaching: Concepts, Findings, and Implications, Penelope L. Peterson and Herbert J. Walberg, eds. Berkeley, California: McCutchan Publishing Corporation, 1979, pp. 28-56.

7. Orlich, Op. Cit., p. 7.

8. Hansen, Op. Cit., provides an in-depth review of the iferation of local political power.

9. Pincus and Williams, Op. Cit., p. 733.

10. For an in-depth review and study of professional status patterns among public school classroom teachers see Lee H. Hansen, Intra-Occupational Status Among Teachers in the Elementary School, Junior High School, and Senior High School: A Study of One School System. November, 1970 (Ph.D. Thesis, University of Wisconsin - Madison).

11. Joseph F. Rogus and Mary Martin, "The Principal and Staff Development: Countering the School Culture," National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, Vol. 63, No. 423 (January, 1979), p. 82.

12. Madeline Hunter, "Teaching is Decision-making," Educational Leadership, Vol. 37, No. 1 (October, 1979), pp. 62-67. In an October, 1979, ASCD Seminar on Effective Teaching in Denver, Colorado, Dr. Hunter estimated that a classroom teacher may average over 5,000 professional decisions daily.

13. Donald R. Cruickshank and Linda L. Thompson, "Do We Educate Teachers for a 'Patchwork' Curriculum?" Educational Leadership, Vol. 36, No. 2 (November, 1978), p. 127.

14. Herbert S. Walberg, Diane Schiller and Geneva D. Haertel, "The Quiet Revolution in Educational Research," Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. 61, No. 3 (November, 1979), p. 179.

15. For a discussion of the promise of such a concept see Robert J. Schaefer, The School as a Center for Inquiry. New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1967.

16. Vito Perrone, "Supporting Teacher Growth," Childhood Education, Vol. 54, No. 6 (April/May, 1978), p. 298.

17. Perrone, Op. Cit. and Schaefer, Op. Cit. provide some discussion of these issues. See also the list of references cited at the end of the Perrone article and Theodore R. Sizer, "On Myopia: A Complaint from Down Below," Daedalus (Fall, 1974), pp. 336-339.

Teaching Thinking: Let's Try It Again

INTRODUCTION

Thinking is once again attracting the attention it deserves among both educators and the public.

In the last ten or fifteen years attention has been on "the basics," which have ordinarily meant reading and math skills; content, insofar as it was held as basic, was conceived largely as some body of knowledge to be acquired.

More recently have come a number of influential reports urging improvemet in education. While these reports have not always agreed, virtually all of them have recommended more challenge, and several have stressed the necessity of doing far more in helping young people learn to think. These reports have struck a responsive chord among both educators and the public.

Ability to think has long been recognized as a primary goal of social studies education. The case for needing such competence in our complex society is too strong to demand its support here. Good teachers have for years been fostering thought. Theirs are the lively, stimulating classrooms which have been and still are found in many schools. Such teachers and classrooms, though, are not numerous enough. However endorsed, the goal is not translated into classroom experience often or successfully enough.

A rush of curricular programs, developed in the 1960's and 1970's, made an effort to do so. These program, sometimes called, perhaps improperly, "the new social studies," emphasized skills in thinking, inquiry, and decision making. Many were adopted by schools. When, for sundry reasons, enthusiasm waned, programs were dropped, usually in favor of reliance on more nearly conventional textbooks. The influence of these programs persists, however, in present textbooks, other published resource materials, curriculum guides, and instructional methods. Of course, they are not the sole source of influence. Professional educators in the social studies field continued to give thinking their serious consideration. Program developments in other curriculum areas, research in such fields as cognitive psychology and artificial intelligence, serious studies of classroom practice, along with public concern have all contributed to a renewal of emphasis on thinking.

WHAT IS MEANT BY SKILLS IN THINKING?

Thinking is identified by a bewildering array of terms. "Critical thinking," "inductive and deductive thought," "reasoning," "problem solving," "logic," and "Socratic method" have been around a long time. In the curricular reform movements of the 1960's come the terms "reflective thought," "inquiry," "discovery," "higher order cognitive processes," "learning how to learn," "lateral thinking," "metacognition," "creativity," "convergent and divergent thought," and several more. These terms are not wholly synonymous; underlying them are varying conceptual frameworks and/or consequent identification of sub-skills.

A common and still useful identification comes from Bloom's Taxonomy.(1)

1. Knowledge of principles, theories, and structures in a field, as distinguished from bits of information and facts.

2. Comprehension: translating, interpreting, and extrapolating.
3. Application of ideas to new and specific situations.
4. Analysis: recognizing such elements as assumptions, hypotheses, and supporting facts; relations among elements; and the principles of their organization.
5. Synthesis: making a whole, a pattern or structure not there before, a unique communication, a plan, a set of abstract relations.
6. Evaluation: judging in terms of internal standards, or external criteria, which may or may not be value-laden.

In an effort to make instruction in thinking more manageable for teachers, Hilda Taba(2) grouped thinking abilities much like those of Bloom's into four major categories.

1. Conceptualizing: forming ideas, concepts.
2. Interpreting: making more meaning out of a set of data or a communication than is literally or apparently there.
3. Applying: using ideas in new and specific situations, projecting, predicting.
4. Evaluating: judging by standards which may or may not be value-laden.

These classifications of skills contain many sub-skills, recognized by both Bloom and Taba and identified in lists worked up by others. Sub-skills amplify meaning in broader categories. As a rule of thumb, however, a longer list is harder to use in day-to-day instruction than a set of broader, inclusive skills.

In both classifications of Bloom and Taba, it is expected that the skills of thinking will be embedded in the structured knowledge of some field, although, of course, they might be related to the most common matters of everyday life.

Inquiry is probably most helpfully conceived in social studies as investigation of a problem requiring evidence for knowledge, supporting a claim to knowledge: for example, "Is it so that ancient Athens was actually a democracy?" "To what extent are farming and grazing practices in a region reducing what can be produced over time?" and "Is it true that most poor people just stay on welfare?" Purposes in such problem situations are explanation, understanding, and even prediction. The process of investigation shuttles back and forth, to be sure, but moves along through these steps.

1. Recognizing some concern or doubt, being aware of a problem.
2. Analyzing the problem, marshalling what is already known, develop clear and pointed questions.
3. Formulating or at least recognizing testable hypotheses.
4. Selecting and defining precisely the necessary terms.
5. Collecting comprehensive, objective, and relevant data by some defensible method.
6. Summarizing, making explicit, and interpreting those data in some form available to everyone.
7. Seeing whether the data support the hypotheses, drawing a conclusion, or reformulating the hypotheses, perhaps to continue the investigation in some new way.

These steps in inquiry, often called "scientific method," are already familiar. In the course of following them, students will have to use and order the more nearly specific abilities in thinking mentioned above along with facts and ideas. A succession of daily classroom activities will have to offer the needed

learning opportunities and instructional help for the whole or any part of the process.

Although inquiry is valuable for explanation, at times prediction, and an understanding of how knowledge is made, more is demanded for the education of competent citizens. Young people must learn to make decisions on policy matters, whether they be choosing courses of action to follow in the face-to-face situations of their own everyday lives or in matters of more obviously public welfare.

In making decisions values are inevitably involved. Young people are learning broad principles of value, open opportunity for all, for example, or concern for the well-being of others. In any given situation, however, several broad values, good as principles, will be in some degree of conflict, not only among groups but within each individual student. Making decisions requires not only recognizing the value principles involved in a particular situation but qualifying them, seeing the extent to which, at least, some of these values can be accommodated, making some trade-offs among them. Thus the strategy of decision making is appropriate for the situation encountered in the clouded real world, where problems are rarely completely solved, but lead on in consequences. Decision making is not the expression of an off-the-cuff opinion even when accompanied by a ready reason for support. It is reasoned judgment about what is better.

These are the steps in making decisions:

1. Recognizing the occasion for the decision, the fork in the road, being concerned about what should be done.
2. Analyzing the problem, marshalling the facts of the case, recognizing the issues, relating what is known.
3. Identifying two or more possible courses of action, when often only one is apparent or preferred.
4. Projecting short and long term consequences of each of these courses of action, applying principles of knowledge.
5. Identifying related values and goals.
6. Judging the consequences in the light of these values.
7. Making a choice of one course of action or even some newly recognized, trade-off position among them.
8. Making the decision, the chosen course of action, and the reasons for supporting it explicit to oneself and others.

Much of decision making will be an individual affair even when carried on as part of classroom activity. Each student makes his or her own defensible decision. "Should the possession of handguns be banned in our city?" or "Should Congress appropriate money for a national park in our state?" are not questions on which all students in a class will or ought to agree. However, settling on one right answer for any entire class discourages learning to make decisions, and learning is the purpose of the classroom.

Only when the issue at hand is that of choosing one class project, such as whether to participate in a paper drive or to give over the playground to soccer at recess, is it appropriate to settle on one course of action; then the process of negotiation will have to be added.

VALUES

It is apparent that in the social studies, skills in thinking will develop in content often laden with values. Even knowledge well substantiated by research in the social sciences and history may be inconsistent with what students already believe. (No knowledge, however, is without some frame of reference.) Students may accordingly feel their value beliefs questioned and jarred. Moreover, conflicts in values are an integral part of the persisting issues running through history and alive today. Surely students' values will be involved when they are asked to think about what should be done in some present social situation. Then, just knowing the facts and using the significant ideas, essential as they are, will not in themselves make for a justifiable course of action.

NEW PROGRAMS IN THINKING

The formulations of thinking skills and processes included here so far are far from new, far from unfamiliar. Social studies materials, suggested learning activities, programs, and accumulated expertise are already widely available.

To these have been added in recent years several revised, clarified, and even new formulations of thinking stemming from research in cognitive psychology, artificial intelligence, philosophy, and other areas. They have become the basis for several new programs, not directly related to the content of social studies -- and only in some few cases to the content of any school subject. These programs focus a) on such generic thinking abilities as comparing, ordering, classifying, and inferring; or b) on such strategies as breaking a problem into parts and proceeding by ways used by expert problem solvers; and c) on thinking about thinking as subject matter, cause and effect, for example, and the requirements of logic; or d) on some similar organization of processes adapted for local curriculums.

Many of these program are well done, worth the consideration of teachers and schools. At the least, some one program is likely to prove helpful to some special kinds of students or in some particular school situations. However, these programs do have some limitations.

The extent to which generic abilities transfer into the content areas is still uncertain. The problems of transfer remain as thorny as they have been in programs in social studies, and, to be sure, in other curricular areas and out-of-school life.

Support for a new program runs high for a while, then frequently falters. While it may be unfair to blame the program, it is gone, nonetheless.

When a "thinking program" is added to the school curriculum, it is simply too tempting to leave the "regular curriculum" unchanged. Adding, as a way of curricular reform, has been popular over the years just because it requires so little disturbance in what goes on customarily. When thinking is relegated to a slot in the elementary school week or an elective course in the secondary school program, it is comfortable to maintaining the belief, common in all too many classrooms, that the business of social studies education is knowledge. Thinking is incidental. Of course, separate programs in thinking do have content. It is impossible to think without thinking about something. That

content, however, may be overly simple, or not the most significant, or, more likely yet, unrelated to the knowledge under study in the social studies classroom. Knowledge is surely important, but acquiring knowledge does not in itself result in ability to think. Just as surely the lack of knowledge prevents thinking. Knowledge and thinking go hand in hand. Both must permeate social studies programs if they are to be strong, stimulating, and appropriate. It is not the addition of some separate program for thinking to an already crowded curriculum, but revision of a regular curriculum that is ordinarily needed most.

SELECTION OF CONTENT

To give greater emphasis to developing skills in thinking, teachers and schools will do well to tackle the problem of coverage at the same time. Eleventh grade, or tenth, United States history is largely the same, though fuller, chronological account of the eighth grade, which, in turn includes topics already in the fifth grade. The usual college survey course will go over it all again. The twelfth grade course in government often repeats much of what is in the ninth grade. High school world history courses are expected to cover the history of the whole world, clearly impossible, or to redefine the world as Western civilization, clearly misleading. Even in the elementary school, programs sometimes tend to include too many regions and cultures of the world. Perhaps as separate courses and perhaps as threads through integrated courses, the fields of political science, economics, sociology, anthropology, geography, and history are all to be "covered" in the K-12 curriculum.

In recent years have come recommendations for adding, infusing into the regular curriculum such matters as global perspectives, law-related education, environmental studies, conflict resolution, multicultural education and more, every one worthwhile, but additions nevertheless.

When teachers and students are rushing pell mell to "cover the material," the knowledge acquired is skimpy, readily forgotten, and superficial. There is hardly time for thinking.

Covering less but in greater depth is not watering down. Instead covering less allows time for learning activities in what are frequently called these days the higher order intellectual processes. Such activities foster both knowledge and thought. Students cannot think about and with what they do not understand. Learning will be enhanced. It will also be more satisfying and vital.

Teachers and schools must select significant content, skim some topics, leave some to other grades or courses or later life to give more time and practice in developing thought. Many fine teachers have been doing just that. More ought to do so.

PROMOTING THINKING IN THE CLASSROOM

The question now is what can be done in the classroom to promote thinking. Teachers have accepted the idea that all students in normal classrooms can learn to think. Teaching thinking has always been regarded as one of the main businesses of education. Thinking, however, begins even before the child enters school. It is not uncommon for a child entering school to have had many experiences thinking. Children have learned to verbalize and to communicate

with others. They have begun to conceptualize and to make decisions appropriate to their level of development and maturation. Exposure to visual experiences on television have stimulated much thinking among children.

PIAGET'S PERIODS OF COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT

Jean Piaget has identified four periods of cognitive development(3) which all children experience. His work helps teachers to identify strategies that will be most effective in developing appropriate thinking skills for children. The periods are:

1. Sensorimotor Period (from birth to 2 years)
   Hand-mouth, hand-eye, and other coordination, intentional behavior, new means through experimentation -- varying of behavior patterns to obtain goal, beginnings of symbolic representation.

2. Preoperational period (2 to 7 years)
   Egocentric Stage (2 to 4 years)
   Problems solved through representation, language development; thought and language both egocentric.
   Intuitive Stage (5 to 7 years)
   Judgments based on perception rather than logic, confuses apparent and real events, may discover relationships through trial and error.

3. Concrete Operational Period (7 to about 13 years)
   Reversibility attained; can solve conservation problems -- logical operations developed and applied to concrete problems; cannot solve complex verbal problems.

4. Formal Operations Period (13 years and up)
   Logically solves all types of problems -- thinks scientifically; solves complex verbal problems; cognitive structures mature.

Piaget's theory of cognitive development is a continuous process that begins at birth. Each category represents a period in a child's life at which time he or she begins to think differently. A child may vary in the type of thinking he/she performs and kinds of mental operations of which he/she is capable. Also, a child's thoughts may vary from time to time and when confronted with different kinds of tasks.

Most children tend to move through these periods and stages at about certain ages. Not all of them, though, reach the highest period of formal operations. Some children move faster and some move slower through the stages and periods.

Teachers have used Piaget's stages to aid in identifying and developing various strategies and techniques that will help students think at whatever stages they are at. A child at the first stage cannot reason about hypothetical situations, nor can a child at the third level reason about an imaginary situation. An adolescent, though, may logically solve all kinds of problems.

According to Piaget, all children are capable of thinking, though the quality of individual thinking may differ markedly. The ability to think cannot be covered or "given" to students by the teacher. How well students think depends upon

not follow through in reasoning skills since most of them check students merely for recall of information.

Reading and oral reporting are learning activities which are generally overused in the classroom. Sometimes these are organized in such a way that students are interacting with the content; however, in most cases, students are simply collecting data to recall at a future date, usually for a test or examination. It is possible to stimulate student interaction with content by using other types of learning activities. The learning activities should be selected which are significant and contribute to thinking for all students.

LEARNING MATERIALS

Instructional materials of all kinds should be readily accessible to students. Instructional materials should be suited to the developmental level of the students. Teachers should expand the textbook sources to include other learning resources that are available. Graphic materials, trade books and literary works, learning kits of relevant materials, maps, reprints, pictures, pamphlets, television programs, video tapes, filmstrips, films, guest speakers, are only a few additional resources available to teachers. Resources and facilities should also include those that are discovered in the community -- outside the classroom -- such as museums, historical buildings, archaeological sites, factories, mines, cemeteries, banks, concerts, etc.

QUESTIONING

Students begin to think when teachers ask a question, and then stop thinking when the question is answered to the satisfaction of the teacher. Teacher questions and student questions should be of the sort that generates a sense of doubt about what to accept, believe, or do.

Teacher and student questioning are important considerations in developing thinking skills. Questions asked to promote convergent thinking are different from those which promote divergent thinking. Divergent types of questions are those which emphasize the search for many possible solutions, thinking in different and novel directions, and the ability to go off in unique directions of thought. Divergent questions are those for which there is no single answer, whereas, in convergent questioning there is a short answer or yes/no response.

Questions may also encourage intuitive type thinking, that is, thinking based on guessing, making hunches and even jumping to conclusions. Other types of questions can lead to inductive and deductive thinking. To develop inductive thinking, students should have opportunities, through questioning, to generalize from a series of specific data. Deductive thinking involves reasoning from a given set of premises to the specific or from general overall assertions to a logical conclusion.

An example of a question leading to convergent thinking is: "What is likely to happen to both supply and demand of ice cream during the summer months?" A question emphasizing divergent thinking is "How do you think we would have taken care of our elderly, sick, and handicapped without social security legislation?" Students are then encouraged to make inferences and generalizations. If a teacher asks higher level questions, the thinking does not stop with a single response. There are many possible answers to divergent type questions.

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Questions can be classified in a number of ways. Most of the classifications are based upon Bloom's Taxonomy. Norris Sanders, for one, designed questions(6) for each of Bloom's categories. An example for each classification in the cognitive domain is:

1) Knowledge: From what you have studied, can you call the Civil War a revolution?
2) Comprehension: Taking the information in this paragraph, can you make a graph showing the effects of Japanese imports on Michigan's economy?
3) Application: All other things being equal, what effect does raising the Federal Reserve discount rate have on the amount of money in circulation?
4) Analysis: What does the speaker take for granted in his argument for increased welfare expenditures?
5) Synthesis: Write a paper in which you include a diagram showing how a farm family would most likely use their land in south central Michigan in 1845. What crops would they plant? What animals, if any, would they raise? Where would the house be? What else should be included on the farm?
6) Evaluation: Should the state legislature increase funding for elementary and secondary education?

Questions which ask students to recall information, to describe data, or to explain something are essential for the understanding without which students cannot think. Nevertheless, these questions are often overused in the classroom. Higher level types of questions such as explanatory, synthesizing, valuing, and oper-ended ones should be used more often by teachers to create more interest in the classroom and to foster thinking skills.

Different types of questions are suited for different purposes. Questions should involve students with various significant processes in thinking, from the simple to the complex. Some questions merely seek information, others demand analysis, still other questions seek evaluations.

DISCUSSIONS IN THE CLASSROOM

Students should be provided with many opportunities for class and small group discussions. When students have presented ideas and have had to support them, they are encouraged to use thinking skills. The Shopping Mall High School(7) points out that in many classrooms today students generally express themselves in one word or short phrases. The types of questions asked and the responses simply did not lend themselves for further discussion and use of thinking skills. Even written work hardly asks for more.

Teachers can effectively implement many worthwhile significant learning experiences which promote thinking skills. They can accomplish this by asking thought-provoking questions, by giving students opportunities for decision-making, and by making thought provoking assignments.

Teachers will need to work cooperatively and more closely in sharing ideas, materials, strategies, and whatever else is necessary to provide the kind of program which stresses the development of thinking processes.

Generous time should be allotted in the curriculum for the development of good thinking skills. It will take continued emphasis from grade to grade and from

class to class and much effort, understanding, and patience on the part of strongly committed school administrators and teachers to help students become better thinkers.

Those administrators and teachers who are thinkers themselves -- who have developed thinking skills and use them in their own personal and professional lives -- will have greater success in helping students become better thinkers.

The classroom climate and teaching methodology should consistently contribute to developing students who become good thinkers -- thinkers who are willing to think, enjoy thinking, and thinkers who value rationality in considering all possibilities and alternatives in arriving at decisions and solutions.

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Professor Grace Kachaturoff, University of Michigan-Dearborn

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(1)Benjamin S. Bloom and Others, Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: The Classification of Educational Goals, Handbook I: Cognitive Domain (New York: David McKay, 1956).

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Overcoming Obstacles to Implementing Critical Thinking in the Curriculum

INTRODUCTION

Several writers over the past 75 years have identified and defined critical thinking skills. Approaches have included: formal logic, general semantics, problem solving, decision making, the "scientific method," rules of evidence, propaganda identification, inquiry, and so on. The presentations of these approaches have included some excellent ideas for classroom activities. Yet, many classrooms lack an emphasis on critical thinking. Why? Like many of the issues confronting us in education, the factors are many and complex, but we need to attempt to analyze the situation and adjust our programs if we are to make progress in this important dimension. Some erroneous ideas:

1. A packaged program will "take care of" critical thinking.
2. Critical thinking skills are generic.
3. Teachers do not need to learn or to model critical thinking skills.
4. Critical thinking skills need not be personalized.
5. Critical thinking skills do not need to be evaluated.
6. Time is available to develop critical thinking.

APPROPRIATE USES OF PUBLISHED PROGRAMS

The problem we face here is analogous to the erroneous notion that buying a basal program will "take care of" reading skill development. A well designed set of materials can be useful to teachers, but skills taught in isolation may not transfer. In addition, there are many aspects to critical thinking and no one program includes all of the major skills. Finally, students may not see the relevance of skills applied in isolation.

Instead of purchasing a package of materials that will dictate the curriculum, educators should construct their own scope and sequence of critical thinking skills across content area subjects and then purchase or create appropriate materials.

GENERIC AND SPECIFIC CRITICAL THINKING SKILLS

There are aspects of critical thinking that are generic. Concepts drawn from formal logic, general semantics and problem-solving, for example, can be applied across several disciplines as well as life - role situations. An examination of these approaches is useful, too, in that it gives us concepts and terms we can use in talking about thinking. However, the application of these ideas needs to be used in conjunction with substantive amounts of information. For example, how does one decide that ideas on a particular topic are incomplete, or biased or erroneous if one knows little about the subject? We don't just think; we think about something. Ausubel(1) forcefully stated in discussing the inquiry approach in science curriculum that knowledge and reasoning are equally necessary and that modes of inquiry differ across the sciences and the social sciences. This is another reason for constructing curriculum that includes critical thinking goals across subject areas instead of buying a generic program.

TEACHERS MODEL THINKING SKILLS

Teachers model thinking -- for good or ill. If teachers tend to avoid using qualifiers in their speech, students are not likely to use them. If teachers acknowledge their own fallibility, students may develop the confidence to acknowledge that they may be in error. Many teachers regularly respond to students' ideas with "good," "bad," "right," "wrong." The emphasis in these discussions is on shaping students' thinking to conform to the teachers' convictions. Children are taught that they do not have a right to hold differing views. Some educational behaviorists, who invented terms such as "direct instruction" or "metacognition," attempt to train teachers to train their students to say they are thinking in a particular way. Teaching students what to think is not the goal of critical thinking. A well planned curriculum with excellent support materials can be jeopardized by teachers whose daily interactions with students demonstrate violations of desirable critical thinking skills. Modes of thinking are habitual and develop over time. Is it reasonable to expect teachers to acquire and model a wide range of critical thinking skills without assistance? After expanding their own critical thinking skills, teachers should be supported in the delicate task of developing their students' confidence, willingness and ability to think. Adler(2), who describes this kind of teaching as coaching, provides examples by Theodore R. Sizer(3) that illustrate the artful blind of supporting, gently challenging, and questioning that are hallmarks of coaching for thinking. Preservice and inservice education programs should address this need. What should be avoided is the rush to spend limited inservice funds on high priced consultants who are hired to give speeches to "inspire" or entertain teachers or provide simplistic answers and gimmicks.

PERSONAL DIMENSIONS OF THINKING

Teachers are aware of personality traits that interfere with thinking. Children and adolescents who are impulsive, rigid, overly dependent, under-confident, unable to concentrate, or dogmatic find it difficult to learn. Raths, Wasserman, Jonas and Ruthstein(4) have presented research in support of their hypothesis that as children regularly engage in a range of thinking activities their behaviors indicative of immaturity tend to decline. Raths, et al. have made a unique contribution to teaching for thinking by identifying characteristics that impede thinking and providing specific suggestions for teachers to help their students become more thoughtful. The child who is frequently impulsive may be asked to write four ways of doing something before beginning to work. The child who makes dogmatic statements may be asked to support her statements with evidence. The child who lacks confidence in his thinking may be helped by a teacher asking, "Did it work?" or "What else can you try?" instead of saying "right" or "wrong." While groups of students need many opportunities to engage in different kinds of thinking activities, some of the thinking operations may be especially appropriate for working with students with specific thinking-related behaviors that impede critical thinking and learning.

EVALUATING THINKING

When we fail to evaluate goals and objectives, they tend to receive little attention. For example, a teacher may say, "I want my student to learn to discuss issues," but fail to determine criteria for effective participation. In

this situation little growth is likely to occur, particularly for those students who most need to acquire skills. But when teachers and students generate criteria for evaluation such as staying on the topic, disagreeing in a nondisputatious manner, asking for and providing evidence to support opinions, and using qualifiers, students are much more apt to improve.

Thinking is an abstract concept; we use language, another abstraction to talk about thinking. Thus, communication about thinking processes is highly abstract and difficult to understand. To the extent thinking skills can be identified, described and evaluated, students will more easily understand what they need to learn. All of us need to remind ourselves, however, that the thinking processes are not fully understood. Thus, we should think of behaviors that are evaluated as indicators of thinking processes and not as ends in themselves.

Finally, students should be involved in evaluation. They should participate in identifying indicators of critical thinking. They should be informed of critical thinking objectives, and they should be helped to assess their progress in meeting the objectives. These skills are needed in all facets of our lives. We need to learn how to monitor ourselves. Are we open, flexible, unbiased, logical at all times? This is unlikely, but we can learn to be more aware of how we are thinking and to improve through the years.

LEARNING MORE BY BEING TAUGHT LESS

If time is to be made available for students to use information and develop intellectual skills, the amount of information now presented must be reduced.(5) Under our present system students are taught a lot of facts, but not how to use them. We should emphasize learning how to learn; how to ask questions; how to obtain information; how to apply what has been learned. The development of these skills takes much more time than is presently allotted in most schools. Curriculum developers must balance content and skills emphases.

CURRICULAR IMPLEMENTATION

In a recent A.S.C.D. survey(6) more principals identified critical thinking as an essential component of curriculum than any other addition to the major disciplines. In order to implement and maintain an appropriate emphasis on critical thinking we need to learn from our mistakes, to anticipate difficulties, and to plan curricula more deliberately. Curriculum committees, K-12, in all subject areas should:

1. Review the literature on thinking processes and skills.
2. Define objectives and develop program scope and sequence.
3. Determine evaluation criteria and procedures.
4. Design instructional activities that integrate knowledge, communication, and critical thinking objectives.
5. Review and select published materials that pertain to program goals. Create materials as necessary.
6. Obtain professional readings and in ervice programs for staff that are pertinent to program goals.
7. Budget time and resources to evaluate the K-12 program every three to five years to reassess ends and evaluate attainment of goals and objectives.

In other words, let's be determined to overcome past obstacles and emphasize critical thinking in our schools. Who can deny this is a worthy goal?

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(1)David P. Ausubel, "An Evaluation of the Conceptual Schemes Approach to Science Curriculum Development," in William D. Romey, Inquiry Techniques for Teaching Science (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, 1968).

(2)Mortimer J. Adler, The Paideia Proposal (New York: MacMillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1982).

(3)Theodore R. Sizer, "Coaching," in Mortimer J. Adler, The Paideia Program (New York: MacMillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1984).

(4)Louis E. Raths, Selma Wasserman, Arthur Jones and Arnold M. Rothstein, Teaching for Thinking (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1967).

(5)Theodore R. Sizer, "The Teacher as a Coach. Fewer Facts More Learning," Educational Week, November 16, 1983.

(6)Gordon Cawelti and Janice Adkisson, "ASCD Study Documents Changes Needed in High School Curriculum," ASCD Curriculum Update (Alexandria, Va.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, August, 1986).

Global Education and the Problems of Linkages

Paper presented to the State of Michigan Department of Education, May 1980

> We have learned that we cannot live alone, at peace; that our own well-being is dependent on the well-being of other nations, far away. . . We have learned to be citizens of the world, members of the human community.
>
> Franklin D. Roosevelt
> Fourth Inaugural Address
> January 20, 1945

INTRODUCTION

Students have always learned about their world. Perhaps badly; probably inaccurately; certainly haphazardly. But they have, nonetheless, learned. The results are often less than spectacular. Oliver J. Caldwell, a veteran international educator, described the situation thusly: "I have an impression that this year's crop of both high schools and colleges will be abut 99% innocent of any real knowledge of mankind east of Suez, west of Honolulu and south of the Rio Grande." He went on to say,"I would welcome any information to the contrary." To my knowledge, no one has as yet come forward with convincing evidence to refute Caldwell's claim. In fact, those individuals most familiar with the global dimension of education in our schools would largely agree.

In spite of substantial curriculum development and teacher retraining efforts during the 1960s and throughout the 1970s, conditions in the majority of classrooms have not significantly improved. What has passed for education about global society in most schools too often has been concerned solely with the process of agreeing upon systemwide goals, objectives, or basic competencies rather than concentrating on improving classroom practices. The difference between "goals," i.e., something to be attained, and "functions," i.e., something being performed, has frequently been forgotten or ignored. As long as a committee is meeting regularly to discuss what the goals should be for the individual school, or the district, or the state, it's generally assumed that things are improving in global education. Perhaps. But in the meantime, too little that's different from what's always been happening in the majority of classrooms is underway. Yet as adults we all are aware--even if at times only dimly--that new conditions demand new answers. And as educators we share with Robert Muller, a United Nations official, the responsibility implied when he wrote:

> A child born today will be faced as an adult, almost daily, with problems of a global interdependent nature, be it peace, food, the quality of life, inflation, or scarcity of natural resources. He will be both an actor and a beneficiary or a victim in the total world fabric, and he may rightly ask: "Why was I not warned? Why was I not better educated? Why did my teachers not tell me about the problem and indicate my behavior as a member of the human race?"

Muller went on to say that "it is, therefore, the duty and the self-enlightened interest of governments to educate their children properly about the type of world in which they are going to live."

It's this task, i.e., "to educate . . . children properly" that Michigan has adopted as a priority concern. This paper is an attempt to assist that process by focusing on three questions: 1) Who ultimately carries the load in any curriculum change process? 2) What is the current "state of the art" regarding global education nationally? and 3) Is it really possible to link diverse -- even if related · curriculum areas in a way that will help Michigan reach its current educational goals?

A THOUGHT ABOUT TEACHER CHANGE

The teachers' ultimate power in educational change is that they can veto for themselves. They are the final consumers. Hence, all of the other activities that may be set in motion to bring about new or improved classroom practices are apt to lead to nothing if those most directly responsible for carrying out whatever change is being advocated remain unconvinced of the need to change their present practices, i.e., the daily "functions" of the school. Teachers seldom initiate innovations; they do ultimately decide whether or not they will implement them. State Board of Education Resolutions, State Board of Education Guidelines, statements of endorsement or support from professional organizations and administrators all clearly contribute to a better climate for any change being suggested. All are useful, but by themselves they are not sufficient. Teachers . . . individual teachers in the classrooms in Marquette, Grand Rapids, Flint, Saginaw, or Detroit must be convinced that 1) a change is desirable, 2) they are sufficiently trained to be capable of carrying it out, 3) they will be supported by their systems in doing so, 4) they will be somehow rewarded, and 5) doing so will be relatively easy. And, in addition, we should all keep in mind that with all educational innovations the rewards are highest for those in the educational hierarchy furthest removed from the classrooms, while the costs are highest for those occupying classrooms. It is the individual classroom teachers who will have to re-orient their thinking, learn new content and skills, perhaps add new teaching techniques to their "bag of tricks," attend in-service activities, study some new materials, and generally give a great deal of themselves. All this with "basic skills" and "competencies" breathing down their necks and their own administrators and the public demanding better test scores. Few would blame any dedicated teacher who might well ask, "How many 'innovations' does my school really need?"

All this goes by way of saying that the task Michigan faces is extraordinarily difficult. Regardless of the need -- no, the imperative -- for better global education in schools, the fact remains that only a few teachers are eagerly awaiting a chance to "teach global," "infuse a global perspective," or otherwise re-orient their present classroom activities or the focus of their teaching. All this in spite of the concern and enthusiasm demonstrated for global education at levels above them.

Does this mean the task is hopeless or should not be undertaken? Certainly not. Students are citizens of an evermore complex and interdependent world and it's the job of education to prepare them for that reality. The major obstacle, as I see it, is that too often those advocating the need do not sufficiently take into account the feelings and perceptions of the teachers. Innovators normally

tend to talk with other innovators. Global educators tend to do the same. Administrators talk with their peers. So do school board members. And all of these groups talk a great deal with each other -- seldom directly with classroom teachers. If the effort to provide a truly global perspective to the educational offerings in Michigan is to be successful, classroom teachers must feel involved to a much greater degree than has normally been the case with past curriculum change efforts. Innovations -- including global education -- are acts of faith and seldom is there any indication to the teacher that a particular innovation is worth the personal cost to them. Regardless of the innovation being considered, it's the individual classroom teachers who must carry it out. Teachers who lack the necessary training and the teaching resources necessary to be able to do so. When one views what is happening in our schools -- in spite of the unfavorable position most teachers are frequently operating from -- one is thankful for the innovativeness and resiliency of many classrom practitioners. This is not to say, however, that the vast majority of those persons occupying classrooms have either the required academic training, or the necessary sensitivites, or the clear sense of purpose so necessary to develop in their students the knowledge, attitudes, and skills needed by citizens of an increasingly interdependent global society. Most do not. The Presidential Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies underscored this point when it stated, "A major pedagogical hurdle to teaching children for the world that lies ahead is that teachers learn and therefore mostly teach about the world that lies behind." A "rear-view mirror" orientation towards the world, if you will. An orientation that ultimately determines the selection of teaching materials, the degree of emphasis given to any topic by the teachers, and the total time that schools make available for any particular subject. These factors create a situation that led at least one disillusioned student to comment, "Most of the people we deal with in social studies are in the cemetery." Too often our students are being taught facts that are either incorrect or, more importantly, no longer important. Facts that do not explain today's world to them and make little, if any, contribution in preparing them for the future. Yet a basic concern for the future should be one of global education's trademarks. And, if the question is asked, what makes global education different from what we've always called "international education?" or "cross-cultural education?", a future orientation is certainly a part of the answer.

Galo Plaza has provided a solid rationale for the type of global education now necessary, when recently he wrote, "The people of the United States who were educated in a world far different from today's have an excuse for not being thoroughly informed of their new responsibilities. But there is no excuse for failing to give the next generation an education with an entirely different orientation." It's this "different orientation" that argues for global education and justifies any efforts undertaken in Michigan or elsewhere to achieve it. But the process must include the teachers and their needs must be kept at the center of whatever activities take place. Not to do so is to invite failure.

GLOBAL EDUCATION TODAY -- A STATE PERSPECTIVE

American education is in the midst of a transition; a transition concerning the kind of an education that will best prepare our young people to effectively deal with the complex issues thrust upon them as members of an increasingly interdependent global society. What is now happening is that old ideas and

assumptions which once determined the content of world studies, international relations, and area studies are now being seriously questioned. No one is any longer certain that the content once believed to be legitimate, authoritative, and necessary for every student remains so. Educators sense a changing reality and the need for a new set of ideas and different guiding assumptions. And although many of these new assumptions are as yet ill-formed, perhaps contradictory, and even shocking to some people, most educators sense that changes are needed. This transition we're engaged in is neither good nor bad. There exists the possibility for both. The point is simply that it is taking place and we as educators are all involved.

It was a realization by the leadership of the Council of Chief State School Officers that this transition was taking place that persuaded them to call a major conference at Pinehurst, N.C. in May 1977, to discuss the topic of global education. Part of the work associated with that conference was a study entitled Global Education and the States: Some Observations, Some Programs, and Some Suggestions, which I conducted and which was published in September 1978. This study was an attempt to obtain a better picture of what the states were then doing, or planning to do, regarding global education. Over half of the State Commissioners of Education were personally interviewed during this study. In addition, hundreds of state education staff were also contacted, These interviews resulted in a series of propositions which, in my opinion, accurately reflected how states then felt about global education -- a "state perspective," if you will. Continuous contact with state education leaders since that time leave me convinced that the propositions are still largely valid.

How then do state education departments view global education? Of the dozen propositions put forward earlier, several appear to have been affected very little, if at all, by the passage of time. These are summarized below.

PROPOSITION: GLOBAL EDUCATION DOES NOT NOW HOLD A POSITION OF HIGH PRIORITY IN THE MINDS OF THE MAJORITY OF EDUCATORS INCLUDING MOST STATE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT STAFF.

In spite of recurring fuel shortages and other world events that one might expect would influence people to be conscious of the need for more global education, global education has steadfastly managed to maintain its low ranking on any list of education priorities developed at national, regional, state, or local levels. This is not to say that no one shows interest or concern. Rather, it is to emphasize the fact that global studies are all too often felt to be an "extra," not an important and necessary element in the education of all American students. Global education advocates, at times blinded by their own enthusiasm, often overlook this fact. Those who "believe" represent only a tiny minority of those persons whose decisions ultimately determine the direction that education in this country takes.

After all is said and done, the reality is simply this: global education, while it has no real enemies, has no real allies either!

Other topics attempting to influence or to "infiltrate" the curriculum have natural allies, often both well organized, well financed, and numerous. In turn, global education's advocates have failed to capture the attention and support of enough of the public -- including fellow educators -- to overcome the "elitist" or "esoteric" charges that one hears directed at the field. A low priority position results.

Further complicating things is the inability of those promoting global studies to cope successfully with those individuals advocating a "back-to-basics" orientation. When accountability, competency-based programs, performance objectives, and a general widespread re-emphasis on basic skills are the watchwords, more persuasive reasons must be developed to encourage the schools to pay increased attention to global studies, K-12.

PROPOSITON: GLOBAL EDUCATION LACKS A PRECISE DEFINITION AS WELL AS A CLEARLY IDENTIFIABLE ACADEMIC DISCIPLINE AS ITS BASE.

An old adage says, "The first rule for rabbit stew is to catch a rabbit." So far, those advocating global studies have not successfully "caught their rabbit;" i.e., defined the field, clearly stated its purposes or articulated its goals in plain enough language for the public to understand. Attempts to define the term have, at least until now, largely failed to reach any degree of general acceptance and those terms that do exist suffer from a common problem, i.e., each means virtually whatever one chooses. This present state of imprecision regarding definition, goals, purposes, etc., is not likely to attract new advocates to a field.

Another difficulty is the still unresolved debate between the term "global studies" and the older, more widely accepted term, "international studies." This difficulty was again re-emphasized recently by the exclusive use of the term "international" by the Presidential Commission. A few persons connected with education still prefer the term "international" on the grounds that it is potentially less threatening to certain conservative elements among the public. Evidence indicates that although this fear may be real in some sections of the nation, generally the public now accepts the term "global." A recent study by the National School Boards Association verifies this point. However, a real issue does remain; i.e., the previously mentioned lack of precision regarding just exactly what global studies includes and, perhaps more importantly, excludes. As an aside, but not an unimportant one, the attempt by Michigan to join, fuse, meld, or in some way relate the areas of multicultural, foreign language, bilingual, and global education may only serve to further confuse people. I'll have more to say about this later.

Another complication for pre-collegiate educators is the lack of a specific scholarly base for the field. It's difficult when they need help to identify who to turn to as being an expert on such topics as, for example, interdependence, conflict, change or ethnicity. Yet these are the concepts at the heart of global studies. And most teachers certainly need help in dealing with them. As things now stand, they must rely solely on their own resources. This again is not likely to promote change or attract additional new followers.

PROPOSITION: THE PRESENT COMMUNICATION NETWORK IN THE FIELD IS INEFFECTIVE AT BEST AND, AT WORST, VIRTUALLY NON-EXISTENT.

In spite of a number of newsletters and other publications now being published (particularly the excellent one now available from Global Perspectives in Education, Inc.) few persons in a position to influence curriculum change possess even the vaguest idea of what the field offers. The information now being received by the states and by the schools to assist their decision making is almost totally random and seldom, if ever, reflects even a significant fraction of what's available. Local curriculum supervisors, as well as their

counterparts in state education departments, operate in a virtual information vacuum in relation to global studies. The majority of national organizations concerned with some aspect of global education remain totally unknown to local school administrators, school board members, curriculum supervisors, classroom teachers, as well as to the general public that surrounds and is expected to support the schools. The "message" being sent simply is not being received by the majority of those in state education departments or in the schools they serve. Efforts now underway using Title VI, Section 603 funding have not, as yet, altered this situation to any substantial degree.

PROPOSITION: MOST EDUCATORS ATTEMPTING TO DEAL WITH GLOBAL STUDIES ARE HANDICAPPED BY THEIR LACK OF FORMAL TRAINING, THEIR UNFAMILIARITY WITH THE TEACHING TECHNIQUES AND MATERIALS BEING ADVOCATED, AND THEIR LACK OF PERSONAL CROSS-CULTURAL EXPERIENCE.

School systems are not as yet staffed with persons sufficiently trained to deal with topics such as global interdependence, world economic disparities, urbanization issues, pollution, development problems, energy concerns, ethnicity, population problems, or other global studies topics. It is obvious that very few classroom teachers are likely to develop or support new programs, units, or even individual lessons if they believe those lessons require skills and competencies they do not possess. In turn, school administrators support what they understand and feel comfortable with. Until such time that large numbers of teachers, supervisors, and school administrative personnel can be systematically retrained and upgraded in this field, the chances of global studies becoming institutionalized remain extremely remote. John Gardner stated well the crucial role of the teachers when he wrote, "Federal laws, dollars and programs don't teach children. . . Teachers teach children . . . individual teachers . . . in the schools. In other words, everything depends upon increased vitality out where the action is."

It remains unlikely that the "increased vitality" Gardner calls for will result until that time when significant numbers of teachers can be convinced that global studies are important enough to deserve precious time and energy in further training activities.

PROPOSITION: CONTRARY TO THE OPINION HELD BY SIGNIFICANT NUMBERS OF EDUCATORS, AS WELL AS STATE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT PERSONNEL, SUITABLE TEACHING/LEARNING MATERIALS NOW EXIST AT MOST GRADE LEVELS.

The problem is <u>not</u> one of lack of suitable materials, rather it is one of their identification <u>and</u> use. As stated elsewhere, many of those persons responsible for providing leadership frequently do not have access to sufficient information of a reliable enough nature for them to act. The result of this "information gap" is that too often local districts as well as state education departments continue to waste scarce resources -- both fiscal and human -- in developing their own guides, units, lessons, bibliographies, etc. In more affluent times such local efforts, though duplicative, were understandable and not particularly harmful. In an era of reduced finances, however, such duplication cannot be justified. It is the job of those in positions to influence the curriculum to <u>know</u> what is available, especially those working at the state level. Local <u>education</u> agencies in most states frequently look to their state departments for guidance and leadership. Until the time arrives when state education

departments take it upon themselves to assure the fact that their own staff is well-informed and knowledgeable regarding the available materials in the field of global education, little direct service can be provided to local school units.

Making things even more difficult is the fact that a number of the teaching/learning materials in this field are as yet not published commercially. This keeps many of the best materials in the "fugitive" category as far as many educators are concerned. Busy educators cannot be expected to search out these materials entirely on their own. They need help. The states must see to it that if these lesser known materials are of high quality, they are somehow made known to the schools. Otherwise a relatively small number of commercially produced materials -- often not in the least "global" in their outlook -- will continue to dominate the school market.

PROPOSITION: DISCUSSIONS OF GLOBAL EDUCATION EXCLUSIVELY CENTER ON TOPICS, ISSUES, CONCERNS OR PROBLEMS, THAT IS CONTENT IN THE COGNITIVE DOMAIN. YET WE KNOW IF GLOBAL EDUCATION IS TO BE EFFECTIVE, THE AFFECTIVE DOMAIN IS ABSOLUTELY CRUCIAL.

Except for a few individuals and an occasional publication that mentions the affective elements of global studies is all that one tends to find occurring in terms of the affective component. This approach fails to place sufficient importance on values, motives, and feelings associated with how people view the global arena. It is the affective domain that motivates our actions and, therefore, must be given equal emphasis with the content of global studies.

It is simply not sufficient to "tag-on" a list of affective domain objectives at the end of the syllabus or course outline, which is too often the procedure followed. Affective objectives must be central building blocks in any curriculum that is developed. Global education must make clear its relationship to and its influence upon the affective processes involved in students' learning.

The same situation exists regarding the skill area. Too few of the materials developed to date have paid sufficient attention to the crucial need to include a major emphasis on skill development in all learning experiences. Once again, one is left with the clear impression that what is now being done with skills is a "tag on" designed solely to prevent criticisms and/or make the material sell.

PROPOSITION: GLOBAL STUDIES ARE STILL SEEN BY MOST EDUCATORS AS SOLELY THE CONCERN OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES, PARTICULARLY THE AREA STUDIES, WORLD HISTORY, AND WORLD GEOGRAPHY.

In spite of the recent attempts by those advocating global studies to broaden the areas of concern to include language arts, elements of science and mathematics, the humanities, modern foreign language instruction as well as other subjects, the fact remains that with rare exceptions the persons who administer schools or work in state education departments automatically associate global studies with what is happening in the social studies. Everyone in education seems automatically to assume whenever someone inquires about global studies that they should be sent immediately to talk with the social studies person. It is unfortunate that this perception exists because it limits the variety of educational activities and opportunities that students are likely

to be offered in their schools. This problem will not be an easy one to overcome. But if global education is ever to succeed, teachers in other disciplines must be shown the advantage of getting themselves actively involved. Individual teachers, as well as state education departments, have their own self-interests and these must be honored. It is of little use simply to pronounce that global concerns should be incorpoated in all curriculum areas -- although those advocating global studies genuinely believe this to be necessary as well as desirable. Others may not perceive the situation the same way. In fact, "globalizing" the curriculum may be seen and reacted to as a clear threat to other people's self-interests, or, in some extreme cases, to their very teaching existence.

An additional problem presents itself in relation to present area studies, world history and world geography courses. Too often their presence in the curriculum is pointed to as evidence that global studies are already included in the curriculum and little or nothing more needs to be done. Few of these courses -- as they are now being taught -- deal in any serious way with the concepts and ideas included in global studies. One has only to look at the teaching/learning materials in use to verify this conclusion.

The focus of most of these courses -- with a few rare and pleasant exceptions -- is upon the accumulation of facts about specific places, usually taught in a chronological framework. Each area study is treated as unique and virtually no attempt is made to relate one area of the world to another or to generalize from the unique facts being presented to broader concepts which may be useful in explaining new phenomena students encounter in their daily lives. Our "compartmentalization" approach to studying the world -- whether by accident or design -- has resulted in a generation of young people unaccustomed and untrained to view the world as a system or to view its parts comparatively. In turn, such modes of thinking are prerequisite if students are ever to learn to think, act, or feel "globally."

PROPOSITION: MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION IS DECLINING IN IMPORTANCE, AND EVEN WHERE IT EXISTS, IT DOES NOT DEAL WITH GLOBAL CONCERNS.

Declining secondary school enrollments in the modern foreign languages clearly inhibit the development of balanced global studies programs. As recently as 1968, 27.1% of all public secondary students were enrolled in foreign language classes. The 1970 figure had dropped to 24.8% and the 1974 figure was down to 19.2%. Admittedly, these statistics may be questioned; it is difficult to obtain hard data because some states do not have up-to-date figures readily available and others can only provide estimates. Nonetheless, the best data available from the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages indicates that these figures are reasonably reliable. In any case, it is obvious that a significant decline has taken place.

An additional concern should be noted. Very few of those students who are enrolled in modern language classes seriously study the culture of that nation. Although the study of culture did receive renewed emphasis in the early 1970s, "today culture ranks a weak fifth behind listening, speaking, reading and writing," according to C. Edward Scebold, Executive Director of the American Council for the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL). In regard to any emphasis on cross-cultural studies at all, he is of the opinion that "a small, alert dedicated group is aware of the needs," and "probably is doing a

reasonably good job." But the fact remains, a declining number of students are taking modern foreign languages and for those who do, very little emphasis is being placed upon studying other cultures.

PROPOSITION: IN SPITE OF ANY ACTIONS THAT MIGHT BE TAKEN AT THE STATE LEVEL, LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS MUST BE PERSUADED TO ACT IF NEW, MEANINGFUL INITIATIVES ARE TO BE UNDERTAKEN.

The local school unit was, is and will always remain the major focus of curriculum change. To expect that actions taken on a state level will automatically influence what happens in local schools is wishful thinking. The belief held by some people that it merely takes a statement emanating from "someone" in the upper reaches of the state education department hierarchy to set new programs in motion is extremely shortsighted and largely incorrect. About all state education departments can do -- with few exceptions -- is to encourage and recommend, not mandate or direct. Individual school autonomy cannot be underestimated and curriculum is traditionally a local matter. It will remain so. On the other hand, a few states, e.g., Michigan, New Jersey, North Carolina, Utah, and Oregon have already issued statements officially supporting global education. Others appear to be willing to follow their lead. The fact remains, however, that in most cases official statements can only encourage, they do not require the local units to act. While such state level actions may be helpful, by themselves they are insufficient. Local units must first be convinced that it is in their best interest to act. Then they must next be provided with whatever kinds of assistance they feel they require to enable them to move forward. Developing statements and getting them adopted is the easy part; providing the necessary direct help to schools is the difficult task.

PROPOSITION: OF THE FIELDS NOW OFFERING ASSISTANCE TO SCHOOLS GLOBAL EDUCATION SUFFERS MORE SEVERELY THAN MOST FROM WHAT MIGHT BEST BE DESCRIBED AS "FELT-INSTABILITY."

I have previously written that "this is a difficult proposition to substantiate." However, it's apparent that over the past decade those who inhabit the schools have continually been confronted with new organizations, new imperatives, new ideas and, perhaps most significant of all, persons new to them advocating various aspects of global education. For example, of the few national organizations still providing services to classroom teachers in this field, not one organization has staff who have been with that organization for even as long as ten years. In fact, very few of the organizations or the individuals associated with the field have been active in global education for five years. This creates confusion, uncertainty, and doubt among those educators who might be seeking assistance. None of these reactions are good motivators; none of them encourage school people at any level to take new initiatives.

The same situation also operates in many state education departments. Too frequently the person upon whose shoulders the main responsibility for promoting global education would normally be expected to fall, have themselves changed jobs so often that schools seeking help do not know to whom they should even address their inquiries. In most states the social studies specialist has normally been the person delegated international/global responsibilities. With few exceptions, that person has not been on the job long enough to become even

casually acquainted with the range of resources and numerous national organizations upon which they might call for assistance. New priorities have also taken their toll. In only a few states is someone designated -- even part-time -- as the "in-house" person concerned with global education. This further contributes to an atmosphere of "felt-instability."

PROPOSITION: EDUCATION GENERALLY FACES FISCAL PROBLEMS: IN TURN, GLOBAL EDUCATION IS UNIQUE IN THAT IT OPERATES WITH VIRTUALLY NO RESOURCES.

Money is clearly a major problem in spite of Section 603 funding. One experienced educator put it this way, "Global education has survived below the poverty level so long that it will have to get much better just to die."

One option mentioned by several Chief State School Officers is to use monies now available under the Innovative Programs section of Title IVC. The problem this presents is that local school units must apply for these monies. Unless they wish to submit proposals stressing global concerns as they have in Michigan, it is unlikely that money will be allocated. The competition for every dollar is extremely severe and unless those interested in promoting global education provide some new funds, not a great deal is likely to occur in either state education departments or in the schools they serve.

PROPOSITION: "EDUCATION HAS ALWAYS SUFFERED FROM A LACK OF OBJECTIVE EVALUATION. GLOBAL EDUCATION, ON THE OTHER HAND, HASN'T SUFFERED . . . IT APPEARS TO BE LARGELY UNAWARE OF THE PROBLEM."

Leadership at all levels in this field has been remiss in not systematically developing evaluation techniques and programs designed to determine whether or not the content, materials, and methods being advocated have any impact upon the ultimate consumers, i.e., students K-12. As a result, convincing others that global education is important, and its efforts have a measurable effect on students, has failed to achieve widespread support. Today, the public is demanding to know if the programs it funds make a difference. In turn, educators who wish to avoid criticism must be prepared to show that what they're doing does make a difference . . . with the students. Hopefully, activities underway in several states may help to correct this deficiency. In the meantime, Michigan should insist that all of its Title IVC global education projects make a special effort to evaluate their impact on students.

One of my earlier propositions related closely to the intention of this series of seminar and articles i.e., encouraging closer interaction and relationships between the areas of concern focused on this publication. That proposition said:

> "SOME ADVOCATES OF GLOBAL EDUCATION BELIEVE THE FIELD SHOULD 'COAT-TAIL' ON OTHER, BETTER FUNDED OR MORE VISIBLE PROGRAMS. THIS COULD BE A MISTAKE."

I went on to say that "there's a certain amount of logic in the belief that if you cannot receive a hearing for a particular cause, you should shift to an alternative strategy that uses other avenues to your goal. This seems logical and some persons concerned with global studies feel it is the best strategy available to them at this time. However, the problem it poses is that while it may appear to function in the short run, it is almost certain to fail in the

long. There are reasons why this is true. If one tries to "infiltrate" the curriculum via another topic, you run the decided risk that if that topic, in turn, suddenly loses its present higher priority, your topic may share the ensuing demise."

This is not to say cooperation with other subjects is undesirable or unwise. Obviously advantages may be gained by both sides in adopting a cooperative stance. The issue is in achieving a clear identify for global studies at a time when the topic is new and not clearly understood by most school people. The same thing, I believe, holds true for bilingual, multi-cultural, and modern foreign language education. Each one needs to develop its own goals and support structures if it intends to become institutionalized in the curriculum.

So much for my general propositions. Whether or not one accepts them or rejects them matters little. The important thing is that they do present a view of how the staffs of over half of the state education departments felt regarding global education and its current status in the schools of their states. The composite picture is not a particularly happy one.

NEW TIMES AND NEW IMPERATIVES . . . MAYBE

When the history of education in our times is finally written, whoever tells the tale will undoubtedly use the terms "global," "bi-lingual," "multi-cultural," "modern foreign languages" and even "exchange programs" in describing the events now transpiring. Which terms among them will receive major emphasis, I suspect, will depend to some degree upon how the individual future chronicler perceives reality as well as upon how the public in forthcoming years chooses to spend its monies and establish its priorities. Guessing about the future is at best risky. But if I were asked to now predict, given our present circumstances and what sparse hard data we do possess, I am forced to conclude that all of these areas of concern will do well to even hold their present status in the schools. In fact, exchange programs and multi-cultural education -- particularly the ethnic studies aspect of it -- will receive less public support and attention in the future. Bi-lingual programs will also diminish unless hard evaluation data can be developed very soon to prove that such programs actually are accomplishing their intended goals. The same can be said of the field of modern foreign languages. In spite of any new federal funds that may be generated by the recent Report of the Presidential Commission, schools are not going to suddenly and dramatically re-order their present priorities. The fact is that the teaching of foreign languages has been decreasing over a period of years. Over time that decrease takes on a momentum of its own and becomes exceedingly difficult even to halt, much less to reverse.

Saying these things does not make me happy. All of these areas clearly contribute to developing a global perspective in students' minds. All of these areas are useful and seem worthy of increased attention in our schools. The fact remains, however, many of those who administer and pay the bills for the schools do not share this view. A recent study by the National School Boards Association confirms the fact that the areas I've mentioned are not considered to be important priorities. School board chairpersons and school superintendents were asked:

> Please gaze into the future, as best you can. Which of the following areas of the program, in your district, are likely to get greatly increased

interest and financial support within the next five years? Which will get less interest and support? Which will stay about the same?

They were then given 33 possible items to rank. In his summary of the responses, Dr. James A. Mecklenburger, Director of NSBA Global Education Project, concludes:

> The areas least likely to change are: American history, geography, physical education, world history, and perhaps school publications, driver training and music.
>
> The areas most likely to see increased interest and financial support are: vocational education as well as industrial, economic and career education, basic skills and competency testing as well as some growth in language arts, mathematics and science, women's sports programs and intramural athletics, and to a lesser degree citizenship, health and use of community resource people.
>
> The areas most likely to see less interest and financial support are: bilingual education and foreign language, field trips and student exchange programs. There may be some reduction of interest in psychology, boys inter-scholastic sports, and driver training."

He goes on to say,

> From the perspective of advocates for global education, these predictions from local school district leaders are not particularly encouraging. At the least, they suggest that interest in global education will be most likely if global education can be construed as integral to basic skills, student competency, and vocational concerns. A less-likely area of growth, citizenship education, offers some prospect. On the other hand, predictions for decline in foreign language, field experience and student exchange are direct challenges to global concern -- especially as these predictions for decline occur amidst a flurry of predictions for overall growth.

This study leaves little room for optimism regarding statewide efforts in Michigan or elsewhere to develop a state plan that successfully "links" or "meshes" these various concerns.

If developing a statewide program that actually brings these areas together in some coordinated fashion is the goal, it would seem that a great deal of preliminary work still remains to be done in convincing both superintendents and school board members that bi-lingual, multi-cultural, foreign languages, and exchange programs are important in and of themselves and should be increasingly supported. Given present financial constraints and the other considerations facing school decision-makers, I am not at all certain it can be done. The time simply may not be right.

Making matters worse is the fact that all of these areas are essentially competing for the same dollars as well as the attention of the students and their parents. In an ever expanding school curriculum it's relatively easy for educators to design cooperative programs. Under expansion conditions they each have little to lose. To assume the opposite is neither realistic nor

constructive The education "pie" is clearly diminishing, not getting larger. Setting aside ego and prestige problems for the moment, to expect people whose economic survival depends on students enrolling in their courses to be anxious to "throw-in" with one or more other special interests -- in order to meet the State's need to develop a comprehensive plan for global eudcation -- seems to be asking a great deal of human nature. If the various parties involved could be shown that it was to their self-interest, i.e., survival, to truly cooperate, perhaps a unified plan might be designed and subscribed to by all parties.

But all of the evidence points in the other direction. Each of the groups are now busy forming their own coalitions and/or consortiums, and with the exception of a few individuals who are in communication with each other, the vast majority of persons concerned with bi-lingual, multi-cultural, modern foreign languages, exchange programs and global education remain unaware of each other. Worse yet, of those who are aware, they frequently represent those most threatened by the other groups.

Factors not at the present known to me may render my analysis (as well as my pessimism) invalid. I certainly hope so. But my experiences in working with school leaders as well as classroom teachers in Michigan and elsewhere aren't such that I can be encouraged.

As I'm writing this the mailman is delivering the latest issue of Social Education. On the cover of the May 1980 issue is a K-12 social studies curriculum outline and the question, "Is this the dominant social studies curriculum pattern in the U.S. today?" The sequence outlines might well be representative of a good curriculum for the '70s . . . the 1870s! But, unfortunately, it is the dominant pattern found today and will likely remain so for some time. It's significant because it reflects teachers' needs to teach disciplines, not concepts. And for Michigan's purposes, as well as this paper's, to assume that a coordinated program that links bi-lingual, multi-cultural, foreign language, exchange and global education can be developed when teachers -- the final arbitrators -- are still "discipline bound," I feel, remains a dream -- albeit a worthy one.

H. Thomas Collins, Perspectives in Education, Inc., New York

Comparisons of Global Perspectives in American Schools in the United States and Abroad

INTRODUCTION

A global perspective focuses on the interrelatedness and interdependence of people and nations. The need for global education is great. Reischauer (1973) pleaded:

> We need a profound reshaping of education if mankind is to survive in the sort of world that is fast evolving. . . . Education is not moving rapidly enough to provide the knowledge about the outside world and the attitudes toward other people that may be essential for human survival within a generation or two (p. 4).

To determine the status of global knowledge and attitudes of children in the United States, the United States Office of Education sponsored the Other Nations, Other Peoples (ONOP) survey of children in grade levels four, eight, and twelve. This survey was conducted by Educational Testing Services (E.T.S.), Princeton, New Jersey, in 1974. Next the United States Department of Education and the National Endowment for the Humanities sponsored the Survey of Global Understanding (SGU) study of college students. This study, too, was conducted by E.T.S. a few years later, in 1980. Both surveys have provided national baseline data, valuable to those concerned with research and curriculum development in global education.

The Michigan State University studies have extended the earlier global knowledge, perceptions, and attitude research by examining populations of K-12 teachers in an American international school in Vienna, Austria (Wieber, 1982) and secondary school social studies teachers in Michigan (Neuman, 1986). Studies of children have been extended by comparing eighth grade children in an American international school near Tokyo, Japan, with eighth grade children in a Department of Defense (D.O.D.) school in the same area (Demps, 1982). Children in grades four, eight, and twelve were studied in a D.O.D. school in Okinawa, Japan (Wagner 1984). Finally, more than 1600 children in grades four, eight, and twelve in central Michigan were tested and their performance compared with those in the 1974 survey (Wyniemko, 1983).

These studies help to provide information in areas such as the effects of living, attending school, and teaching abroad; the relationships between teaching particular subjects or levels of students and the extent of global knowledge of teachers to students; the effects of socio-economic levels on learning and attitudes, and changes over time in global knowledge, attitudes, and recognitions.

OTHER NATIONS, OTHER PEOPLES

The purpose for conducting the ONOP study was to obtain information on the interests, attitudes, knowledge, and perception of the U.S. school children about other nations and people and to learn about the stages of development in areas such as ethnocentrism and differentiation of attitudes.

The emphasis of the knowledge test was on the information needed by students to have a basic understanding of the six nations selected: the United States of America, Mexico, France, Egypt, the People's Republic of China, and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

While the findings of the 1974 survey are too extensive to be presented here, a few illustrations may serve as indicators of the usefulness of this study. In the geographic location portion of the test, only 41% of the seniors could locate Egypt correctly despite the fact that there had been extensive news coverage of this country's involvement in a major conflict, the Yom Kippur War of October, 1973. This indicates that media coverage alone is insufficient for students' learning and needs direct attention, instructional support, and reinforcement in schools. A comparison of responses in geographic, cultural, political, and economic categories revealed a significant weakness within the cultural area of religion. Without knowledge of religious differences, problems such as those in Ireland, South Africa, and the Middle East cannot be understood. Another comparison yielding useful information was that of interest in studying particular countries. Curriculum builders might wish to sequence study of specific nations by beginning with those of greatest interest to students.

SURVEY OF GLOBAL UNDERSTANDING

The purpose of the Global Understanding study was to learn what college students know and believe about their world. Students were found to score well on issues of health, physical geography, arts and culture, and population. They scored low on issues of energy, relations among states, and religion. Engineering and mathematics majors outscored social science majors who did score above the average. Foreign language majors were slightly below the average, and the lowest group consisted of education majors. Achievement appeared to be related to socio-economic level and the source of their information about the world (print media over television). A positive attitude toward world government, human rights, anti-war kinds of statements produced a high correlation with the knowledge test. No relationship was found between proficiency in a foreign language and level of global knowledge.

THE MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY/MICHIGAN DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION COOPERATIVE GLOBAL STUDIES

Five Michigan State University dissertations, directed by the writer with the support of John M. Chapman of the Michigan Department of Education, were planned cooperatively so that current information could be obtained and compared with regard to the knowledge and attitudes of students and of teachers in different settings. Three studies used the Other Nations, Other Peoples materials with children, and two studies used the Measures of Global Understanding materials with teachers. Figure 1 more specifically defines these populations.

The five studies, in various stages of completion were conducted by people with several years of experience in the settings in which they collected their data. Thus, they were in favorable positions with regard to interpreting results since they were knowledgeable about the conditions in which their subjects lived and worked. Also, they were able to make some concrete and practical suggestions about what could be done to improve the knowledge and perhaps broaden the attitudes of the children and teachers they studied.

Investigator	Test	Population	N
Mary Wyniemko	Other Nations Other Peoples	Students in grades 4, 8, 12, Ingham Intermediate School District, Michigan	4th = 636 8th = 526
Gwendolyn Demps	Other Nations Other Peoples	8th grade students in international school and in a D.O.D. school Tokyo, Japan	84 = International 60 = D.O.D.
Katherine Wagner	Other Nations Other Peoples	Students in grades 4, 8, 12, D.O.D. schools in Okinawa, Japan	4th = 64 8th = 92 12th = 57
Joan Neuman	Measures of Global Understanding	Secondary social studies teachers, Michigan	60
Donald Wieber	Measures of Global Understanding	K-12 teachers American International School in Vienna, Austria	60

Figure 1. Studies on global knowledge and attitudes

Wyniemko (1983) found little difference in levels of knowledge of children in grades four, eight, and twelve in Michigan in comparison with the 1974 ONOP study. In Wyniemko's study and the earlier study by E.T.S., a similar pattern emerged regarding children's interests in learning about other countries. Children were most interested in other countries in fourth grade; their interest declined in eighth grade, and it increased in twelfth grade. Those findings have implications for curriculum sequence and emphasis. Curriculum builders may wish to emphasize the concrete aspects of cognitive information such as locational skills and some affective dimensions concerning other nations to fourth grade. Then, in early high school years the emphasis could be shifted to the United States and its participation in the global community. The most abstract aspects of global interdependence and the introduction of more technical information should receive more attention during the last two years of high school.

Wagner's (1986) study of children in grades four, eight, and twelve in Department of Defense Schools found interest in learning about other nations declined in eighth grade. There are implications for a basic developmental interpretation since the pattern of interest in other nations was the same for children living abroad as for children living in the U.S. Two of Wagner's findings were encouraging. Although there were some areas of weakness for the D.O.D. students, all three grade levels performed better on a majority of the questions than the 1974 students, and females performed as well as or better than males in most instances.

Another intriguing question is raised concerning curriculum in Demp's (1982) study in which the knowledge and attitudes of eighth grade students in an American International School were compared with eighth grade students in a D.O.D. school. The international school population generally has been considered by some to be more advantaged economically than that of the D.O.D. schools. Some observers have expressed surprise upon learning that knowledge scores on the ONOP tests were slightly higher for eighth grade children in D.O.D. school. However, there is another difference with regard to these populations: students in the international school had a significantly different curriculum from the group of D.O.D. students. The materials used by the international school students was Man, a Course of Study in fifth and sixth grades while the other had a more traditional course. The Man, a Course of Study program has been selected by some of its supporters to help broaden attitudes and increase interest in people from different cultures. While some differences may exist between students who have used these materials and those students who have not, in regard to the analysis here, little difference is apparent in performance on this test. Demps has realized the need for further research in this area and has been making some plans to test another international school population of eighth graders who have not used the Man, a Course of Study program. One can see the need for several studies in the coming years in the attempt to develop curricular programs to increase students' knowledge and understanding of other nations and other people. At this point the three studies examining knowledge, attitudes, and perceptions of children in fourth, eighth, and twelfth grades seem to confirm the earlier broad study done in this area, but they raise important questions that must be answered in order to improve the educational situation of global knowledge and understanding.

An examination of Wieber's (1982) findings on the global knowledge of teachers reveals a continuing pattern confirming the outcomes of the global understanding of college students. In the E.T.S. survey and Wieber's study, high scores were earned by history and mathematics majors. In both studies the scores of foreign language majors were significantly lower. In both, education majors (those in elementary education) earned the lowest scores. The fact that these patterns tend to hold despite years of teaching experience in an international setting have great importance for those responsible for the preparation of teachers and the continuing education of teachers. For example, since experiences in fourth grade lay the foundation for deeper understanding, elementary education majors need not only to increase their own knowledge, but need to learn how to provide appropriate experiences for their students. Undergraduate preparation for teachers in global knowledge and understanding must be improved; continuing education in these areas must be provided.

Social studies teachers are of particular interest since most of the responsibility for global education has been theirs. In Neuman's (1982) study

of Michigan Social Studies teachers the mean score was 44.6. Wieber's population of international school teachers with social studies majors received a mean of 45.5. Neither experience in teaching social studies, nor living and working abroad seemed to have affected these means. One may speculate that individuals in Wieber or Neuman's study may be scoring differently from what they would have scored in college, but without a longitudinal study, this remains speculation. Meanwhile, the need for preservice and continuing education of social studies teachers is apparent.

Some administrators, curriculum directors, and other persons involved in educational planning have assumed that foreign laguage teachers along with social studies teachers should make significant contributions to the global knowledge and understandings of students. Simon (1983) stated that our national deficiencies in foreign languages contribute to problems in international understanding in political and economic matters. Yet Neuman and Wieber, as well as E.T.S., did not find that study of a foreign language contributed to achievement in these areas. Bonham (1979), Strasheim (1979), and others pointed out that language teachers today must go beyond language facility to cultural understanding and current interactions and interdependencies. To accomplish these ends, new curriculum and materials need to be developed. Another implication of these studies is that there is a need to reconsider the domain of global education. Teachers in mathematics, science, and perhaps other areas appear to have interests and knowledge of global issues that can make them valuable resources in interdisciplinary global studies. But their participation cannot be left to chance. An interdisciplinary curriculum needs careful planning.

CONCLUSIONS

Many assumptions about how global knowledge and understandings are acquired and how they are changed have been challenged by these studies. Some may question the measures that were used and the populations that were selected for the study, and it is appropriate to do so because new and revised tests and improved procedures will yield more useful information. At the same time, there is a clear and pressing need to reevaluate our assumptions and to create new progams on K-12-college levels. Global education programs that claim to be successful should be located, evaluated rigorously, improved as needed, and disseminated. Meanwhile, a continuous emphasis on research in this area should help us meet our goals in global education.

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THE MERIT OF EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING ACTIVITIES IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES CLASSROOM

To adequately discuss the position of experiential learning activities in the educational setting it is important for the reader and writer of this article to share a common understanding of the goals of social studies education in Michigan and how these goals are best achieved. To this end, goals that have been identified as common goals for social studies education in Michigan schools are listed below.

> In conjunction with home, community, and other supportive influences, Michigan education has the responsibility to provide experiences and opportunities to students that will enable them to achieve optimum personal growth. As a result each student should:
>
> 1. Acquire the knowledge, skills, attitudes and moral values needed for effective participation in a democratic society.
>
> 2. Acquire the knowledge, skills and attitudes needed for effective participation in a pluralistic, interdependent, global society.
>
> 3. Acquire knowledge of principles, methods and general content of the social studies.
>
> 4. Acquire logical, critical and creative thinking skills.
>
> 5. Acquire the knowledge necessary for the appreciation, maintenance, protection and improvement of the environment.
>
> 6. Acquire knowledge and appreciation of the behaviors and attitudes necessary for responsible family membership.(1)

For these goals to be met, even in part, the method of instruction should include some experiential learning activities. We must recognize that social participation is a necessary element if learning is to occur in the social studies. Likewise, experiential learning activities are a necessary means toward achieving a degree of social participation on the part of the social studies student. "Without direction toward action, social studies becomes passive."(2)

There are two forums within which social participation can occur. Social participation can be achieved in the classroom and schools because both are themselves social situations. Another forum for social participation occurs outside school walls. Students can learn through observing a court of law or a city council meeting. Students can learn by conducting interviews and collecting primary source material. Students learn through discussions and meetings with people of different backgrounds, ages or race. Likewise, community service provides lessons in many areas: the working of an organization; the give-and-take in human relations; and feelings of responsibility and self-worth. For the purposes of this discussion, it is important that the reader understand the position being taken by this writer: 1) social participation is a necessary element to fully understanding, valuing and appreciating the social studies; and (2) experiential learning activities should be incorporated into the social studies curriculum so that social

participation can be achieved. In the document Essential Performance Objectives for Social Studies, published by the Michigan Department of Education, the integral role that social participation plays in effecting learning in the social studies is described below.

> . . . Knowledge, values, skills, all require a base in concrete experience of participation. Information and ideas do not point to decisions until they are melded with values and thought. Values held without thought of their consequences are dangerous. Inability to communicate and find out makes for ignorance and cuts off participation. The best of knowledge and values amount to little unless they are put to use. Participation without knowledge, thought and humane values cannot be reconciled with the requirements of personal growth or the principles of a just society. Each element supports the others in making decisions required for participating in social life.(3)

In his book, A Place Called School: Prospects for the Future, John Goodlad shares the following observation:

> . . . Quite a few adults deride the tendency of the schools to teach relatively inert facts in social studies and science while largely ignoring deeper insights and higher order intellectual skills. Why then does the teaching of these subjects not rise above a pedestrian level?(4)

Apparently a problem arises in regard to the means that is necessary to achieve the ends. We seem to overwhelmingly agree that the school should help the student develop many appreciations, values and understandings. However, we are not reconciled to the fact that we would have to depart from some traditional norms of instruction in order to accomplish these ends. An ancient Chinese proverb reads -

Tell me, I forget
Show me, I remember
Involve me, I understand

Most of us would generally agree with this proverb. However, educators, parents and the system find it exceedingly difficult to endorse and -- more important -- successfully use instructional methods that enable students to acquire an understanding so completely.

Several factors that help to explain the inappropriateness of traditional teaching methods which prevail in social studies exist in what Goodlad calls the circumstances of schooling. For example, schools find it difficult to schedule for deviations in the class day or to stray from using traditional materials.

> Effective teaching in social studies and science calls for visits to governmental bodies in session, fields and ponds, industrial laboratories and the like. Teaching such subjects well calls for departing from textbooks and workbooks in seeking to use multiple resources. . . . Field trips, deviant ways of teaching . . . and the like call for different schedules and arrangements not conventionally and therefore, not usually available in schools. . . . Teachers may start out "fighting the system," but it is much easier ultimately, to settle down into conventional ways of teaching.(5)

A further deterrent to providing experiential learning activities for social studies students is due to the back to basics movement and competency testing. Those things that are "basic" are interpreted to mean reading, writing and mathematics skills. To a large extent, "basics" and competency testing is seen as desirable because it is limited in scope to those things that can be measured objectively. Unfortunately, many worthy scholastic pursuits do not fall within the domain of objective evaluation. For example, any of the lessons to be learned from the fine arts or social studies are directed toward developing values or appreciations. Effectively measuring one's appreciation of a classic piece of art or of valuing personal rights in our democratic constitution would prove to be a difficult task. Because of their subjective nature, these values are not less worthy of scholastic emphasis than are the "basic" skills mentioned earlier. In fact, Goodlad (1984)(6) found that students, teachers and parents believe that the vocational, personal and social aspects of learning should be greatly emphasized in a student's total learning in addition to intellectual development. Goodlad also found that parents, in particular, want for their children the kind of education that equips them for work, citizenship and a measure of personal well being, which suggests a broad, general education perhaps grounded in the 3 R's but implying much more. And yet, it would seem that whenever finances run short the inability to defend these subjects that cannot be measured objectively results in a loss of emphasis for these subjects in the total school curriculum.

A second factor complicates the problem of not being able to objectively measure many of the more worthy lessons in social studies, which then results in a lack of funding for good social studies education. This factor is the inability of educators in the field to effectively articulate to the public the goals and the value of social studies education. The public will not embrace vague goals that they do not understand.

> At all levels of the profession there continues to be confusion about the basic purpose of social studies, which is reflected in the continuing debate about what social studies is, or should be . . . We are left with the impression of a profession diffused in its goals and directions, lacking constructive channels of communication, and possessing little sense of "profession" among its various subcultures.(7)

Indeed the inability of educators to clearly articulate the goals of social studies is partly due to a fragmented professional body. It is equally important to recognize that our society, or sense of community, has become similarly fragmented or diffuse in purpose. Whether we speak of social studies educators or the public, both have found it increasingly difficult to come to a consensus on any issue that is value-related. This phenomenon is explained by our changing sense of what community is and how our community functions.

As reported by Goodlad, Stephen Bailey (1981)(8) states that we can currently see the unraveling of certain major features of our system of schooling. One feature is decline in the coalition of legislators, educators, parents, administrators, teachers, clergy and others, that held the system together and expanded the system. In earlier communities, these groups worked more successfully toward the common end of educating the young. Currently we see school boards and their superintendents working at cross purposes. Educators are often badly divided. The manner in which collective bargaining evolved set administrators against teachers. The support that parents give to the school

has subsided markedly. It has been fashionable to deride the public schools in the past few decades; much trust has eroded between the home and the school. Our communities have changed demographically, leaving us more fragmented. Many of us shop at malls, we do not see our neighbors very often in a downtown area. Our population moves about more often than it did at one time.

Each group mentioned earlier possesses what would appear to be their own agenda. No longer do we emphasize what we desire in common. Each group in our society is out to fulfill its own wants and needs with little regard for any common goals for our children's schooling. In their book, The Shopping Mall High School, Powell, Farrar and Cohen write:

> The more student diversity a school contains and the more curricular variety it develops, the less able it is to forge any workable consensus about what educational experiences are of most worth or what kind of mastery is possible or appropriate for all. . . . Community has come to mean differences peacefully coexisting rather than people working together toward some serious end. . . . Such accommodations make many high schools resemble shopping malls. Both types of institution are profoundly consumer-oriented. Both try to hold customers by offering something for everyone. Individual stores or departments, and salespeople or teachers, try their best to attract customers by advertisements of various sorts, yet in the end the customer has the final word.(9)

It would appear that our continued inability to reach consensus as to the goals of schooling has been exacerbated by the various factions in our community who solely pursue their own interests. Our inability to carry out common goals for schooling will seriously limit our effectiveness.

Specifically, an atmosphere is created that makes the implementation of experiential learning activities very difficult. I have already suggested that experiential learning activities are difficult to schedule, not readily understood by the community, and that lessons of a subjective nature are not easily measured. Add to this several groups waiting to deride any activity they do not completely endorse or understand, and you have a very difficult environment to function within.

Finally, experiential learning activities are not readily available to students because many school personnel believe that they take an unnecessary risk when they allow students, under their purview, to learn by functioning outside of the school. Their fears are understandable because, as mentioned earlier, they do not always have the support of various groups that exist in their community. Schools fear liability suits in the event a student might be injured while traveling. There is also the fear that students will make mistakes when they are out in the community. For example, a student might not be on time for an appointment or he might not know the correct etiquette for a new or unfamiliar situation. It is likely that some students will make mistakes. In our attempts to manage and control the school environment we leave few opportunities for students to practice mature responsible behavior. Even so, it seems ridiculous to deny students opportunities to participate in out-of-school learning activities because we fear they might fail. Growth, intellectual or other, does not often occur without taking some chances. Learning and growth on the part of students occurs when schools are willing to provide experiences which include risk-taking. It is doubtful that our school will risk as long as it remains relatively unsupported by other groups in our society.

The facts seem overwhelmingly against easily providing experiential learning activities for students. And yet, programs that utilize experiential learning activities function in Michigan and around the United States, due to individuals who are committed to the notion that experiential learning activities result in significant learning experiences that possess important and personal rewards for students.

Eleven years ago in Hazel Park, Michigan, Mary McCartney set up a program in which middle school students are matched with senior citizens in the community. The student commits one and one half hours of their time per week to do odd jobs for the senior or to simply visit with the senior citizen. In return the students learn about history through first-hand accounts and are in general enriched by an association with the senior citizen. Hazel Park has not lost a millage election in many years, while many communities with a similar composition in Oakland County have great difficulty passing school millages. Perhaps it would not be unreasonable to suggest that the Hazel Park Public School, through this program and others, has convinced previously disillusioned members of the community that educating the young is an endeavor that possesses rewards for the entire community. In reference to this same issue, John Goodlad wrote:

> To the extent that the attainment of a democratic society depends on the existence of schools equally accessible to everyone, we are all their clients. It is not easy, however, to convince a majority of our citizens that this relationship exists and that schools require their support because of it. . . . Declining birth rates and increased aging of our population during the 1970's increased the proportion of citizens not directly involved with the schools. And there appears to be a rather direct relationship between these changed demographics and the growing difficulty of securing tax dollars for schools.(10)

Another example of a program that utilizes experiential learning activities can be found in the community of Vanderbilt, Michigan where Jerry Flynn, a high school social studies teacher, organized an ingenious activity. This activity provides the students in that community with an opportunity to earn money for Close Up, a one week study program in Washington, D.C. that focuses on the federal government at work. The students perform odd jobs in the community over a period of approxiamtely nine months. They rake leaves, paint buildings, scrub floors, the list goes on. All services are free. Senior citizens, community organizations and the city are the main beneficiaries of the labor. The students obtain a per-hour-rate pledge from various community members for their work. The community is 500 in number; it is not a wealthy community. Last year the students raised $3,500.00 collectively. The communities of Hazel Park and Vanderbilt appear to have moved beyond the prohibitive factors mentioned earlier that impede student participation in experiential learning activities.

> A society is a number of people held together because they are working along common lines, in a common spirit, and with reference to common aims. . . . The radical reason that the present school cannot organize itself as a natural social unit is because just this element of common productive activity is absent.(11)

The communities of Hazel Park and Vanderbilt seem to have created what John Dewey referred to as "the natural social unit." However, it is important to

considers using experiential learning activities on a broad scale, may want to consider using a program that is already established and successful in its own right. Presidential Classroom, 4-H Youth Activities, Michigan Youth in Government and Close Up serve as just a few examples of programs that are well established and are predicated upon experiential learning activities.

Presidential Classroom

A Presidential Classroom for Young Americans was started in 1968 as an outgrowth of earlier programs first sponsored by the Kennedy Administration. The program consists of one week of intensive study of the federal government in Washington, D.C. The program is selective in nature and attempts to include the top achievers from local school districts. During the one week program, it is likely that students from all 50 states will be represented. The faculty is comprised of Washington's professional corps: senators and representatives, administration spokespersons, agency officials, lawyers, labor leaders, lobbyists, business leaders, the military and the media. The format for study includes seminars, lectures and discussion.

4-H Youth Activities

Seventy years ago 4-H was a rural youth organization. Today, 4-H is part of the U.S. Department of Agriculture and provides opportunities for students nationwide. In Michigan, 4-H is sponsored by the MSU Cooperative Extension Service which maintains offices in 80 Michigan counties and serves rural, suburban and urban youth ages 9-19. 4-H identifies the following objectives. These objectives are designed to help students:

- develop personal standards and values;
- develop inquiring minds;
- develop problem-solving and decision-making abilities;
- develop a commitment to community; and
- develop career and lifelong planning skills.

4-H offers some 150 different programs. Typically these programs might center on caring for plants and animals, arts and crafts, health programs or handicapper programs. 4-H is an out of school, "in the field" activity.

Michigan Youth in Government

The Y.M.C.A. Youth in Government program provides about 600 high school seniors with a unique opportunity to become acting state legislators, lobbyists, lawyers and committee chairs. The students simulate all phases and positions that the actual state government calls for. Youth from throughout the state are selected as delegates from student councils, government classes, or other interested groups. In October and November delegates meet to discuss legislation and how to draft a bill. Library research, interviews, and discussions help prepare students for debates on the bills they sponsor. In April the students meet in the legislative chambers of the State Capital and the Supreme Court in Lansing to introduce, debate and vote on proposed legislative bills.

Close Up

Close Up is a program which brings students and teachers to Washington, D.C. for the experience of studying government on location. The program is based upon the assumption that the potential for learning tends to increase when the student interacts in a significant way with the environment being studied. The program makes use of primary sources, onsite study, participant diversity, and a balance of viewpoints on many current issues. Students and teachers attend seminars where guest speakers from all branches of government and related agencies and businesses engage the students in a question and answer dialogue. Participants also attend workshops, study tours, and briefings. The program is open to any high school student in grades 10 through 12. A parallel program is offered for the teachers who accompany their students to Washington.

It is said that more than any other methods, teachers use teaching methods that they themselves experience as students. I am sure that is, in part, why I have incorporated some experiential learning activities into my classes. I am also sure that I use experiential learning activities because I believe they are often so much more effective than I could ever hope to be. Dr. Ben Bonhorst, a retired curriculum professor at Michigan State University, has been known to say that he tried to create moments of poetry in his classes. I think that we all attempt to do that but one teacher standing in front of a class, day after day, possesses only rare chances to capture that moment because what we are looking for is something profound and far reaching and to accomplish this the students must be actively involved.

Some of the best moments I have helped to create for my students occurred when I set up a situation, left the students alone to experience and then tied up loose ends. I have had guests in my classroom from Nigeria, Ethiopia, Saudi Arabia, Jordan and Thailand, to name a few places. Some of the visitors sounded as if they were giving travelogues; others discussed farming methods, socialism, and their views of U.S. policy as it related to their country.

One year I promised my adult education government class that if they all registered to vote, I would make sure that they knew enough about the candidates and the issues to feel confident in their choices when they cast their vote. I made that promise not realizing that to make good on it, it would require encounters with The League of Women Voters, Michigan Citizens Lobby, Common Cause, and a speaker on campaign finance.

Perhaps the best moment I have been instrumental in creating was when I brought a Vietnam veteran to a group of high school seniors who had asked me in 1985 why we were celebrating Vietnam ten years after the fact. I explained that I thought we were commemorating rather than celebrating but I was not the best person to speak on that topic. The students researched different aspects of Vietnam so that they would be able to ask "intelligent" questions. The students really wanted to know what it felt like to come home to a country that was not prepared to welcome you, and they wanted to know what that war was about anyway. The speaker's answers were measured and thoughtful and what I sat quietly and watched was a moment of poetry.

Kathryn Dewsbury-White, Coordinator for special social studies programs, Ingham Intermediate School District; Doctoral candidate Curriculum and Instruction, Michigan State University.

For more information on the programs mentioned in this article, the reader may write to:

A Presidential Classroom for Young Americans
441 North Lee Street, Alexandria, VA 22314 (703) 683-5400

4-H Youth Activities
Cooperative Extension Service, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI 48824

Michigan Youth in Government - State Office
Gary Male or Brent Veysey, 719 Lott Road, Coldwater, MI 49036 (517) 279-9839

Close Up Foundation
1235 Jefferson Davis Highway, Arlington, VA 22202 (703) 892-5400

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(1) The Common Goals of Michigan Education (Michigan State Board of Education, May 1980).

(2) Essential Performance Objectives for Social Studies (Michigan State Board of Education, January 1982), p. xii.

(3) Ibid., p. xiii.

(4) John I. Goodlad, A Place Called School: Prospects for the Future (New York: McGraw, 1984), p. 236.

(5) Ibid., pp. 236,237.

(6) Op. Cit. (4).

(7) Irving Morrisett (ed.) Social Studies in the 1980's: A Report of Project Span (An ASCD publication), p. 87.

(8) Stephen K. Bailey, "Political Coalitions for Public Education," Daedalus (Summer 1981), p. 32.

(9) Arthur G. Powell and Eleanor Farrar, and David K. Cohen, The Shopping Mall High School (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1985), p. 3.

(10) Op. Cit. (4), pp. 1,2.

(11) Reginald D. Archambault (ed.), John Dewey on Education: Selected Writings (New York: Random House, 1964), p. 300.

(12) Ernest L. Boyer, High School: A Report on Secondary Education in America: The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (New York: Harper & Row, 1983), pp. 209,210.

Middle School Social Studies:
What Ought to Be

"Good-by," he said.
"Good-by," said the fox. "And
now here is my secret, a very simple
secret: It is only with the heart
that one can see rightly; what is
essential is invisible to the eye."

The words of Antoine De Saint-Exupery, copyrighted in 1943 in his writing of The Little Prince, hint at what is artistic in the business of educating youth. It is a recognition of the human side of schooling; that traits like empathy, compassion and understanding play an important part in stimulating a child to learn. It is a recognition of the educator's obligation to address the affective area of learning as well as the cognitive area. These traits can best be learned when students interact with others rather than when teachers exercise "teaching by telling" which is too often used to expose students to a body of organized knowledge. The responsibility of educators, particularly those working with the social, physiological and emotional changes of the emerging adolescent, extends far beyond exposing students to a given body of knowledge. Their responsibility includes planning for variety, initiating adult/student interaction, initiating student/student interaction, managing an expedient classroom routine, teaching students to use higher level thinking skills, and organizing a briskly paced sequence of instruction where allocated time is utilized productively.

An educator's responsibility is to stimulate two-way communication and to motivate students to produce a product which can be a source of pride and celebration of the learning process. The one-way communication inherent in imparting knowledge through lecture has its place in the learning process if not overused. The giving of knowledge can effectively be accomplished by some form of media, often more dynamically and more authentically than can be accomplished in a classroom lecture. What educators have at their disposal that cannot be replaced by media is the two-way communication so essential to learning.

Two-way communication is an educational tool that allows middle school educators, particularly social studies teachers, the opportunity to effectively address all the following prioritized "common denominators" of purpose:

1. Promoting a sense of self-respect or positive image of "self."

2. Encouraging a respect for the dignity, worth and unique qualities that are "the individual."

3. Motivating students to discover the rewards inherent in learning. Develop a sense of inquiry.

4. Teaching basic functional skills to aid in developing a productive and literate citizenry.

5. Producing experiences leading to happy, courteous, thoughtful, sensitive young people filled with positive memories of a joyful experience in learning.

6. Developing an appreciation for the rich heritage that is ours as a nation and ours as descendants of a given nationality or combination of nationalities.

7. Promoting the importance of family, regardless of family structure.

8. Promoting the dignity of honest labor.

The extent to which classroom level program structure can accomplish these purposes is open to debate. Is large group instruction more effective than "cooperative small groups"? Is lecture/recitation more expedient and, therefore, more effective than self-contained activity centered classes?

The greatest contributor to our educational purposes is a classroom teacher cognizant of appropriate expectations, a teacher who is demanding of young people intellectually while sensitive to individual limitations. If, however, structure is a contributor to successful learning experiences, my bias, when viewing the social studies at the middle school age level, is to place academic classroom emphasis on structured socializing experiences for young people. I would look to providing as many varied opportunities for legitimate social interaction as possible.

I imagine a meaningful social studies program at the middle school age level having the following ingredients:

1. Routine planned attention to current events to blend the child's understanding of the present with events of the past and display the true meaning of a contemporary study of history.

2. Monthly class level activities that provide practical learning experiences for students and encourage an interchange of ideas and reflections. When such learning activities are shared, opportunities for social interaction serve to broaden responsibility for "teaching" and for "learning." Eric W. Johnson, in his writing of Teaching School, Points Picked Up, says:

   > ". . . most of the learning that occurs in our classrooms occurs not because of direct oral instruction but because of conditions we help to create that cause students to learn for themselves and from one another."

3. A set of vocabulary words unique to a given area of study presented during the early days of each unit.

4. A changing array of student work in the classroom and halls.

5. A quarterly or semester department activity designed to celebrate learning, open opportunities to involve students in academic interchange beyond the class level, incorporate adults other than classroom teachers in learning to provide other adult models for students to emulate, and provide for department level planning and goal setting.

6. A sound foundation of "knowledge level" background, obtained through class lecture, class discussion, or reading, upon which to draw when working with higher level thinking skills.

7. Appropriate experiences outside the classroom to broaden students' experiences with their extended surroundings.

Too often social studies classes are associated with the memorization of a tremendously large body of current and historic knowledge. They draw from a daily barrage of current events on radio, television, periodicals and newspapers as well as a video replay of contemporary history on film. Serious students of the social sciences have libraries of primary and secondary resources from which to obtain data. They have a world of wars, political intrigue, social unrest, religious persecution, racial unrest, judicial determinations and economic fluctuations which deserve serious scrutiny. There is no end to the potential flow of "content" as the social sciences have an unending bank from which to draw.

But the middle school student needs something other than extensive exposure to content; they need personal experiences in exercising interpersonal relation skills that can best be obtained by exchanging ideas, attitudes and values in a secure learning environment. It is ironic that we often attempt to teach our social systems, systems based upon the free exchange of ideas and the interaction of people with other people, without giving students like opportunities. Our governing system of checks and balances, for instance, forces state and national leaders to debate and interact one with another. Should we not offer the same cherished opportunities to students in our "social" studies classes?

An element of educational artistry is the ability to create imaginative forums for the exchange of this two-way communication. If "the great end of life is not knowledge but action," as Thomas Henry Huxley proposes, then the means takes on a greater importance than the end. In middle school social studies education, greater emphasis needs to be placed on socializing experiences so students can learn by doing rather than being passive while being told. Such action may be at the expense of exposure to content but not, in my mind, at the expense of learning.

Dr. Darcio Stielstra, Middle School Principal, Chelsea Schools.

The Study of Geography

Geography is a basic element in formal education. Throughout recorded history it has been noted that an educated person is one who has a sense of time and place. A series of studies and reports in the 1970s and 1980s presented evidence that American students were losing their sense of place in their immediate and global environments, both as individuals and groups. In short, they knew little about places or locations in the world with any geographical perspectives.

Beginning in the early 1970s there were discussions regarding the future for geography in the school, with the conclusion that education would increasingly focus on issues of geographic significance.(1) That conclusion may have been reached out of optimism alone, for in 1981 it was reported that geography as a curricular offering in the junior high schools of the nation had continued to diminish and there were fewer students enrolled than in any of the prior fifty years.(2)

A series of reports with serious implications for the level of geography instruction in the schools of the United States followed. One report called for greater attention to the world at large in relation to environment, population, economy, and international relations.(3) Another compared the achievement of American students in mathematics, science, and geography to similarly aged students in seven other technologically advanced nations and found American students lacking in their knowledge of geography.(4) Yet another study showed that the neglect of geography in the curriculum was seriously limiting students' international knowledge and understanding.(5) The evidence suggested that the human, spatial, and regional elements of geography were in need of increased attention in the education of American students.

In response, the Association of American Geographers and the National Council for Geographic Education issued the Guidelines for Geographic Education. The Guidelines reflect the most current thinking about improving geographic education. The content and processes of geography are identified and the place of geography in the curriculum is recommended by the Guidelines.(6)

The Guidelines present a set of fundamental themes which provide a sound basis for elementary and secondary school geography. A sound education in geography provides young people with the perspectives, information, concepts, and skills essential to understanding themselves, their relationships to the earth, and their interdependence with other peoples of the world. It also reinforces and expands the processes of critical thinking and problem solving that are applicable to all parts of the curriculum

Five main themes of geography are recommended as the core structure for curriculum development and instructional materials design. Since skill development is also an important component of geography instruction, there are also a series of suggestions for developing geographic skills. Both the themes and skills components are presented below with a brief expansion of the central ideas underlying each theme and skill.

THEMES

LOCATION: POSITION ON THE EARTH'S SURFACE. Absolute and relative location are two ways of describing the position of places on the earth's surface. In many

situations it is important to identify absolute locations as precise points on the earth's surface. For instance, determining the precise position of fresh water supplies is critical to filling the world's fresh water needs. Determining relative location -- the position of one place with respect to other important places -- is equally significant. If, for example, the positions of fresh water supplies with respect to potential water users is too remote, then it will not be feasible to exploit these supplies.

PLACE: NATURAL AND HUMAN CHARACTERISTICS. All places on earth have distinct natural and human characteristics that give them meaning and distinguish them from other places. The natural characteristics derive from the geological, hydrological, atmospheric, and biological processes that produce landforms, water bodies, climate, soils, natural vegetation, and animal life. Human ideas and actions also shape the character of places. Places vary in their population composition, as well as in their settlement patterns, architecture, kinds of economic and recreational activities, and transportation and communication networks. One place can be distinguished from another by the ideologies and philosophical or religious tenets of people who live there, by their languages, and by their forms of economic, social, and political organization.

Taken together, the natural and human characteristics of places provide keys to identifying and interpreting simple and complex interrelations between people and their environments.

RELATIONSHIPS WITHIN PLACES: HUMANS AND ENVIRONMENTS. All places on the earth have advantages and disadvantages for human settlement. High population densities have developed on flood plains, for example, where people could take advantage of level ground, fertile soils, water resources, and opportunities for river transportation. By comparison, population densities are usually low in deserts. Yet flood plains are periodically subjected to severe damage, and some desert areas have been modified to support large population concentrations.

People modify and adapt to natural settings in ways that reveal their cultural values, economic and political circumstances, and technological abilities. It is important to understand how such human-environment relationships develop and what the consequences are for people and for the environment. This will help increase our appreciation of the natural environment and our cultural heritage.

MOVEMENT: HUMANS INTERACTING ON THE EARTH. Human beings are unevenly distributed across the face of the earth. Some live on farms or in the country; others live in towns, villages, or cities. Yet these people interact with each other; that is, they travel from one place to another, they communicate with each other, or they rely upon products, information, or ideas that come from beyond their immediate environment.

The most visible evidences of global interdependence and the interaction of places are the transportation and communication lines that link every part of the world. These demonstrate that most people interact with other places almost every day of their lives. Interaction continues to change as transportation and communication technologies change. We need to anticipate these changes and to examine their geographical and societal consequences.

REGIONS: HOW THEY FORM AND CHANGE. The basic unit of geographic study is the region. The region is any area that displays unity in terms of selected criteria.

We are all familiar with regions showing the extent of political power, such as nations, provinces, countries, or cities; yet there are almost countless ways to define meaningful regions, depending on the issues and problems being considered. Some regions are defined by a single characteristic, such as their governmental unit, language group, or landform type, and others by the interplay of many complex features. Regions are used as tools to examine, define, describe, explain, and analyze the human and natural environment.

Regions perform numerous functions in geographic education. They define convenience and manageable units upon which to build our knowledge of the world. They provide a context for studying current events. We may view regions as an intermediate step between our knowledge of local places and our knowledge of the entire planet.(7)

GEOGRAPHIC SKILLS

There are geographic skills recommended by the Guidelines for processing information needed in the study and analysis of important issues. The skills recommended by the National Council for the Social Studies as part of its new social studies scope and sequence complement the geographic skills.

Geographic information processing skills can be grouped under five headings:

ASKING GEOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS. Geography is distinguished by the kinds of questions it asks -- the "where?" and "why there?" aspects of the problem. It is important for students to develop and practice skills in asking such questions for themselves.

ACQUIRING GEOGRAPHIC INFORMATION. These skills range from being able to identify locations using grid systems, through making observations and acquiring information in the field, to obtaining statistical data.

PRESENTING GEOGRAPHIC INFORMATION. These skills involve an ability to prepare maps, tables, and graphs, and make an organized, coherent written or oral presentation.

INTERPRETING GEOGRAPHIC INFORMATION. Interpreting involves the ability to discover what a particular map, table, or graph says (e.g., describing trends portrayed on a line graph).

DEVELOPING AND TESTING GEOGRAPHIC GENERALIZATIONS. These skills require an ability to make inferences based on information contained in maps, tables, and graphs.(8)

The next step in improving the role for geographic education is underway in mid 1986. It entails the identification of learning outcomes which curriculum supervisors and teachers may use in the classroom to verify the achievement of content and process. How, for example, might a teacher be certain that students understand the theme location: Position on the Earth's Surface. One way is to provide a variety of learning experiences which focus upon the presentation of that theme. The Geographic Education National Implementation Project (GENIP) has prepared detailed learning outcomes which may be used for developing lessons or evaluating student knowledge and skill in dealing with geography content.(9) The outcomes are based upon key ideas which are subordinate to the themes

identified in the Guidelines for Geographic Education. The key ideas which complement each theme are:

Theme: Location: Position on the Earth's Surface
Key Ideas: 1. Location of places can be described using relative terms.
2. Location of places can be described using reference systems.
3. Reasons can be identified for the location of places.

Theme: Place: Physical and Human Characteristics
Key Ideas: 1. Places have physical characteristics.
2. Places have human characteristics.
3. Places may be described or represented in different ways.

Theme: Relationships Within Places: Humans and Environments
Key Ideas: 1. Relationships within places include how people depend upon the environment.
2. Relationships within places include how people adapt to and change the environment.
3. Relationship within places include the impact of technology on the environment.

Theme: Movement: Humans Interacting on the Earth
Key Ideas: 1. Movement demonstrates interdependence.
2. Movement involves linkages between places.
3. Patterns of movement involve people, ideas, and products.

Theme: Regions: How They Form and Change
Key Ideas: 1. Regions are a way to organize information.
2. A region has common characteristics.
3. Regions change.

Ideas and information about geography in the K-12 curriculum provides a rich and essential element to the educational process. There is little doubt that ignorance about geography has prevailed during the past several decades. It is possible to remedy that situation through careful curriculum development, content selection, and the incorporation of meaningful skills in the study and teaching of geography.

Professor Joseph P. Stoltman, Geography Department, Western Michigan University.

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(1)Vuicich, G. and J. Stoltman. Geography in Elementary and Secondary Education: Tradition to Opportunity. Boulder: ERIC Clearinghouse, 1974, pp. 31,32.

(2)Manson, G. "Notes on the Status of Geography in American Schools." Journal of Geography (December 1981), p. 244.

(3)USNCEE. A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1983, p. 24.

(4)American Education: The ABCs of Failure. A Special Report of the Dallas Times Herald, December 11-21, 1983. Professors G. White and J. Stoltman were responsible for the design of the geography component of the study.

(5)Barrows, T., et al. College Students' Knowledge and Beliefs: A Survey of Global Understanding. New Rochelle, N.Y.: Change Magazine Press, 1981.

(6)AAG/NCGE. Guidelines for Geographic Education. Washington, D.C.: Association of American Geographers and National Council for Geographic Education, 1984.

(7)Global Geography for Middle and Junior High School Students. AIT. Bloomington, IN, 1986, pp. 2.3.

(8)Ibid., pd. 3.

(9)GENIP. Learning Outcomes in Geography: K-6. Draft copy. October 1986. GENIP, 1710 16th St. N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009.

The Kalamazoo Public Schools Element. , Social Studies Program

OVERVIEW OF THE PROCESS

On March 25, 1981, the K-8 Curriculum Committee recommended that a formal examination of the elementary social studies and science programs in the Kalamazoo Public Schools be conducted during the 1981-82 school year. The Board of Education approved this recommenc..tion.

The objective of the study was to obtain teacher impressions of the strengths and weaknesses of the elementary program. This data provided direction for making the most productive use of classroom time devoted to teaching social studies and science.

An opinionnaire was developed by the Elementary Social Science and Science Program Review Committee to collect data from elementary classroom teachers. The "Elementary Social Science and Science Opin. onnaire" was administered at the end of the first semester of the 1981-82 school year. Opionnaires were distributed to 270 elementary classroom teachers and 252 (94%) completed opinionnaires were returned.

Opinionnaire results indicated the following findings in the area of social studies:

- There is a need for revision of the ele..ntary social science curriculum
- A combination textbook/activity approach to the teaching of the subject of social studies is preferred.
- Objectives need to be identified for each grade level.

The Board of Education received the findings. Teachers began to write grade level objectives and to review textbooks for adoption. During the summer of 1982, scope statements and grade level objectives were written. In the fall of 1982, a committee was formed to select a K-6 social studies textbook series. Twelve different series were examined. Provisions were made for the two series with the highest rating (Silver Burdett and Holt) to be in every elementary school and input forms were provided for all elementary teachers. It was recommended that the two series be piloted. Pilot teachers used both texts with students. The teachers overwhelmingly chose Silver Burdett over Holt (4 to 1). On September 13, 1984, the Board of Education approved Silver Burdett's The World and Its People for K-6 social studies. During the summer of 1985, a committee worked to prepare a curriculum guide, revise the grade level objectives and plan for the Fall Inservice.

1985-86 was the year of installation. Inservice for teachers, principals, and support staff was provided and two grade level meetings were held. Teachers were given two different input forms to complete. Two graduate credit courses were offered--one for teachers, one for principals. The courses were respectively titled, "Implementing Elementary Social Studies" and "Supervising Elementary Social Studies." Course requirements generated evaluative data to be used by the summer revision committee. Updates and

monitoring continued via principals meetings, chapter test record sheets, and the monthly "Elementary Social Studies Notes." Based upon teacher input, Nystrom's Primary Social Studies Skills, a hands-on activity approach, was added to the Silver Burdett basal text in grades 1-3 and Hillsdale's Discover Michigan was added to the 4th grade. Also, for grades 3-6 a correlation of social studies content/skill objectives was made to the new elementary literature series, Harcourt Brace Jovanovich's Odyssey Program. A Letter to Parents containing each grade's Mastery Vocabulary List was prepared as well as preprinting and padding of all required activity sheets, maps, and tests.

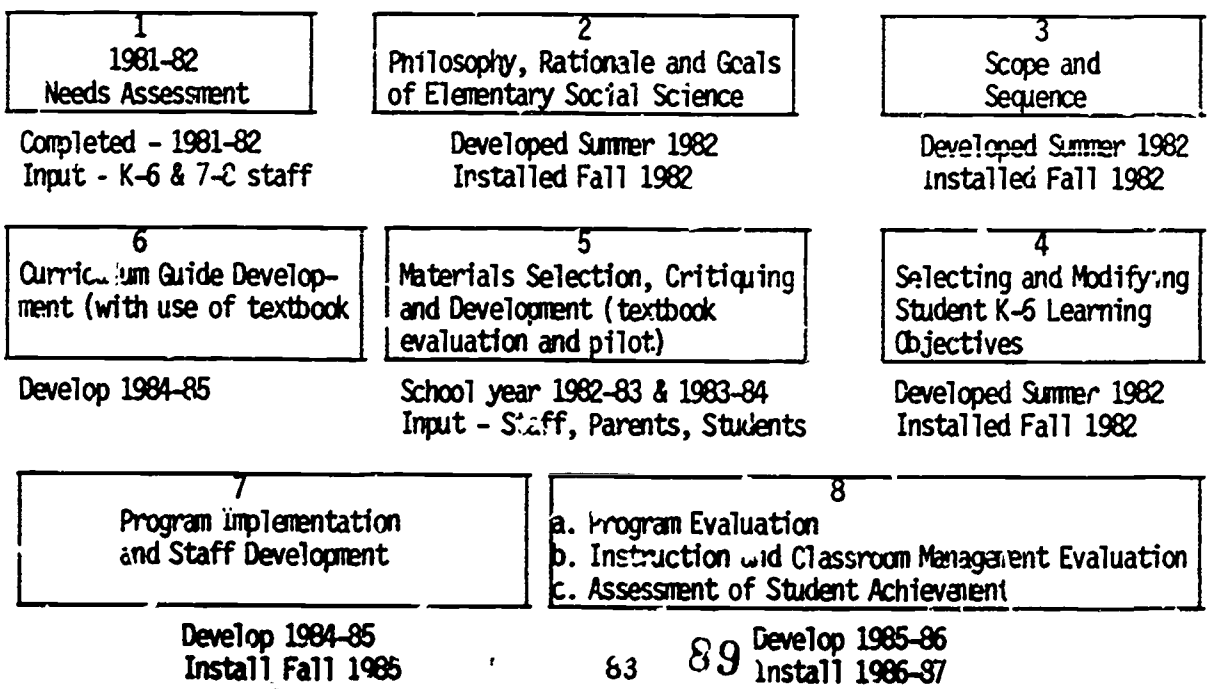
In the summer of 1986, a committee worked to make revisions/adjustments which were the result of teacher input from the installation year evaluations. The revisions were focused around additions to the curriculum guide and instruction/classroom management evaluation and assessment of student achievement. While in 1985-86 students could use chapter tests from the publisher in one of many settings, the test revision committee during the summer of 1986 prepared our own chapter tests and a year-end test to match Kalamazoo Public Schools' grade level objectives. These tests will be administered in the traditional setting in 1986-87. Revisions and validation of these tests will take place in the summer of 1987.

Librarians are working to revise the bibliographies at each grade level. The bibliography will reflect new books which have been purchased to correlate with the social studies grade level objectives and will delete titles of those books which have been withdrawn from school collections. Copies of the bibliographies will be sent to classroom teachers during the 1986-87 school year. They should replace the old bibliographies from the original guides.

A chart has been prepared which traces this process in the K-6 social studies instructional program from the 1981 administration of the opinionnaire to 1985/86, the year of installation, and 1986/87, the year of implementation.

KALAMAZOO PUBLIC SCHOOLS
K-6 SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM
AND INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM

A PLANNING MODEL



ANALYSIS OF THE KALAMAZOO PLAN OF ACTION

From the time we started to work on our elementary social studies program in 1981 with a needs assessment through our 1986-87 implementation of the program, we have kept three questions in mind which addressed development, implementation, and evaluation. Guiding our actions then, now, and as we continue, the questions are:

1. What do we want students to know and be able to do as a result of their social studies experience?
2. How can we make the social studies program reasonable and manageable for classroom teachers?
3. How can we monitor to know if the program is being implemented and is working?

After addressing the first question in our philosophy, scope and sequence, and grade level objectives, we turned our attention to the second question. For the answer, we asked the teachers themselves what delivery system would make teaching social studies most convenient for them. Just what could be done to assist teachers and provide them with the necessary materials and supplies? How could we do the leg-work for the teachers? We developed a curriculum guide that was practical, concise, and didn't weigh sixty pounds. As much as possible, our guide's format and design was similar to the math curriculum guide. Any activity or exercise which we require all students to use, we decided to provide for teachers and have waiting for them in their classrooms in the fall. All desk outline maps, worksheets, and chapter tests which students were to use, we had printed at a central location, gum-padded with 30 sheets to a pad and distributed to our 18 buildings over the summer. This saved teacher time, district money, and better assured that all students would be exposed to the required activities and materials if we provided them.

During our installation year, all teachers were provided with input forms to send in their suggestions as they used these required materials. As they did, these suggestions were shared with other teachers in a monthly newsletter. These Elementary Social Studies Notes became an effective tool for increasing social studies priority status among teachers and principals. They also served as a network among teachers. Teachers soon began to realize that their suggestions were being taken seriously and that changes were being made based upon their suggestions. In addition to sending copies to all elementary teachers, copies were sent to administrators, the media, union officials, and school board members.

Another tactic to address public relations, and make social studies a priority subject involved Letters to Parents. The letters, one for each grade level, are positive in nature and contain four areas: a general overview of what their child will study at that particular grade in social studies, suggestions of how the parent can extend the content to experiences with their child, an invitation to attend open house, and an introduction to the social studies text for each grade. On the back of each letter is the "Mastery Social Studies Vocabulary List" for that grade level. These letters are also preprinted for teachers in the fall. Accompanying the letter packets is a lesson plan for each grade on "What is Social Studies" which is to be presented by the classroom teacher the day the letter goes home. It is the principal's responsibility to check to be sure each teacher sends the letter home before the traditional fall open house.

Our social studies vocabulary words, where applicable, are used as spelling words in the language arts program. Flash cards of each grade's social studies mastery words were printed on hard cover stock and in classrooms for the fall.

Social studies is important, but it is broad and ambiguous to understand for the public and educators alike. If the public knows the content, they'll support the program. To communicate clearly, simply and without jargon just what it is we do in social studies, we devised an attractive, simple visual way to inform people -- educators and public alike -- what students will do and learn as they travel from kindergarten through twelfth grade social studies. Large posters of the diagram have been printed on tag board and distributed to all principals, teachers, support personnel and the media. Extra copies appear in teachers' lounges, libraries, and P.T.A. conference rooms.

Working cooperatively with Western Michigan University's Department of Education and Professional Development, as an incentive for implementing the program, principals and teachers could earn three graduate credits by carrying out responsibilities as outlined in the curriculum guide. Course requirements were designed to be practical and provide data that the social studies revision curriculum committee used in making adjustments necessary for full implementation of the program.

To directly monitor student success and, indirectly, teacher compliance to grade level objectives, timetables for units of study were required. Principals collected each teacher's timetable overview early in the fall. Finally, chapter tests and end of year tests are administered to all students in grades 1-6. Principals collect the chapter test record sheets four times during the year.

SUMMARY

In planning for developing, implementing, and evaluating your social studies program, there are three guidelines to follow:

1. First, package your program for convenience. Make the guide concise. Make materials convenient for teachers.

2. Second, market your program. With parents; with teachers and principals; and with the community market your program for understanding. Use incentives - offer college credit.

3. Third, monitor your program. Use both external and internal techniques. MEAP test scores and system-wide testing.

For additional information on the Kalamazoo Public Schools Elementary Social Studies Program, contact Kelli Sweet, Social Studies Coordinator.

Ms. Kelli Sweet, Social Studies Coordinator, Kalamazoo Schools.

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moderately well. Most districts generally can agree on the importance of teaching certain knowledge, skills and attitudes; however, most do not accomplish what they claim to be accomplishing. In Essexville we are attempting to get a K-12 curriculum in place that is relevant and rigorous. Most of what the Essexville-Hampton District is doing incorporates the best ideas from the Michigan Department of Education, other school districts, our own administration and, most importantly, the district's social studies teachers. If teachers neither "buy into" the curriculum revision plan nor do the real work of that revision, then a school district might as well forget a school improvement plan that involves curriculum changes. It remains to be seen if all of the curriculum improvements are being implemented successfully in the Essexville-Hampton District.

Currently there is:
A. a K-12 social studies curriculum
B. a set of curriculum guides

There still needs to be:
A. a permanent K-12 Curriculum Committee
B. a strategy to implement the use of the curriculum guides
C. a method of evaluation
D. a plan to constantly revise and improve the curriculum

Perhaps a brief account of how the curriculum development in Essexville occurred will help other schools improve their social studies curricula. If professionals involved in curriculum work are forewarned about some of the major obstacles to reform, possibly the most serious problems will be solved efficiently and effectively. What has occurred in the Essexville-Hampton School District is certainly a model for what has happened and should happen in other districts.

The Essexville-Hampton School District was created twenty years ago. Prior to this, the geographic region had been a part of the Bay City School District. For many reasons the creation turned out to be a blessing for the people of Essexville and Hampton Township. The schools have flourished. Relatively vast amounts of money have been available because of a Consumers Power plant that is located within the school district. The schools should be, and are, good. The amazing fact is, however, that the schools in Essexville have the same major problems concerning curriculum that most schools have; that is, they have a curriculum that has been changing gradually over the years so that twenty years after the district was organized, nobody knew what anybody else was teaching.

Early in the spring of 1982, all of the social studies teachers received a note from the superintendent asking us to list the classes that we taught, the units in each class, and an explanation of what we thought might be any weakness in our curriculum. This was the beginning. Later that spring we were given a summary of what all the social studies teachers in the district had had to say about the curriculum. It was obvious to everyone that there were many weaknesses, and that something should be done to improve the curriculum.

I had been teaching history in the high school since 1968 and had no idea what was being taught in the elementary schools or the junior high, and I

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I had been teaching history in the high school since 1968 and had no idea what was being taught in the elementary schools or the junior high, and I

feel quite certain that the teachers in those buildings didn't know what we were doing at Garber High. When Mr. Herb Escott, Assistant Superintendent, asked me to serve on the Curriculum Committee, I accepted rather skeptically, cynically, and reluctantly in the fall of 1982.

The twelve member Curriculum Committee was comprised of teachers and administrators from the elementary, middle and secondary schools. The meetings dealt with numerous curriculum problems. The major debates revolved around: philosophy, goals and objectives, procedure to accomplish task, scope and sequence, direction of committee work, local-state conflicts, and materials. These were all resolved by extensive compromise.

Two especially difficult problems were: First, what steps should we follow to complete the work? This hotly debated issue was over process. Should the theoretical approach used by administrators be used, or should the Committee go directly to adopting materials? The second issue, scope and sequence, was also a hard problem to resolve. Should we stay with what was in place or make significant changes in curriculum that would necessitate much work for the teachers?

Both of these issues were settled through compromise in combination with considerable help from the Michigan Department of Education's Social Studies Specialist. The materials made available from the MDE and an indication of the future of social studies made it possible for the curriculum reform to be accomplished in Essexville. It is important for school districts to take into consideration what the MDE recommends on all important curriculum issues, and it is also vital that districts understand the direction the State is taking on issues such as testing. Although the State of Michigan does not mandate very much, the Department can be extremely helpful to districts attempting to update curriculum.

Once the K-12 curriculum was adopted the hard work of writing curriculum guides began. Agreeing to write guides, accepting a common format for the guides, using goals and objectives, deciding when to write the guides and a number of other problems were all resolved through the use of MDE social studies materials This is not to say that everybody was happy with all the decisions that were made; however, the help from the State made it possible for the work to continue.

The key to curriculum change is the development of curriculum guides that teachers use. In Essexville many of the teachers have curriculum guides that they are constantly revising. When all grades and courses have the guides in place, and the district and State are testing social studies, the Essexville-Hampton School District will be accountable.

The Social Studies Curriculum Committee "completed" its task of changing the K-12 curriculum. The changes in sequence make for a more natural order for learning and applying social studies skills. Teachers will have a better idea about what students have been exposed to, and more realistic teacher expectations can be established for students. Although we would also like to describe our curriculum work as "completed," it is obvious that Supervisor Herb Escott has his work cut out for him because curriculum revision is ongoing with evaluation of the program and further recommendations and improvements needed.

The curriculum work also made it possible to identify some problems in revising school curriculum and using the State guidelines to accomplish the task. Schools need to consider the following concerns that the Essexville-Hampton Social Studies Committee labored with while working on the K-12 curriculum: how much State control or even influence is desirable in a local district's curriculum; how are schools going to combat the misuse of assessment test results; how does curriculum and evaluation work impact labor/management problems; how can fair testing procedures be developed for districts not using State guidelines; and how can we utilize our time and money most efficiently.

Schools must find out what they are teaching. They must plan a curriculum that is practical and efficient for a particular community, state, nation and world. There isn't any sense in trying to reinvent the wheel. Using the State guidelines makes an unmanageable task possible. Essexville-Hampton has a good social studies curriculum; that is only a hypothesis. We must continue to evaluate and work to make it even better. Improvement is only possible with an administration that leads, teachers who will work, and money.

At the outset of this paper, Allie Fox remarks ". . . and no one sees how simple it might be." Looking at what we are, developing a plan, working hard to carry out the plan, evaluating continually and making changes that are essential for young people to succeed in our rapidly changing society is simple, but hard. There aren't any secrets or great discoveries to be made. It isn't even necessary to be an educator to know what must be done in our schools to make them effective. Teachers and supervisors in all school districts should work on their curricula similar to the way Essexville-Hampton is working. We should all incorporate into our curriculum planning the best ideas that are also practical. These ideas should be based upon the direction that our country is going, and upon what is already being done that is successful. Megatrends and In Search of Excellence are two current publications that we in education should study carefully. We must plan curriculum for the future, which is our youth. We must plan our schools not for the "few destructive laggards nor the handful of brilliant performers," but we must pay attention to the care, feeding and unshackling of the average man." (In Search of Excellence, p. xx.)

To adapt another statement from the introduction to In Search of Excellence by Thomas J. Peters and Robert Waterman, Jr., ". . . The excellent companies (schools) require and demand extraordinary performance from the average man (student). We label it productivity (education) through people. All companies (schools) pay it lip service. Few deliver." To deliver, our curriculum must become more relevant to the world of today and tomorrow, not yesterday.

Mr. Robert Skinner, Secondary Social Studies Teacher, Essexville-Hampton Schools.

Teaching "How To" Skills in the Context of Civics/Government Class

State and Local Government: In the Lakeview Community School District of Montcalm County, as well as in other districts around Michigan, students need skills to gather knowledge and attitudes for democratic citizenship. Especially important are the organizational, research, and communication skills. Students must be able to gather information, analyze it, synthesize it, and present it. Social studies education must include help in acquiring these skills. For this reason, we include "how to" materials with assignments that focus on state and local government.

Too many times students fail, because teachers assume that students have acquired the skills necessary to do the specific assignment. The "how to" part of the social studies lesson acts as a review for those who know what to do, but just as important, clearly indicates which students need remedial help before attempting the specific social studies assignment.

Some "how to" lessons include: how to keep a notebook, how to "listen" to speeches by community leaders (or teacher lectures)(1), how to read faster, how to improve your vocabulary, how to use the library, how to read the newspaper (2), how to write a paragraph, how to write a report, how to write a letter to your community leaders and government officials, how to participate in a group discussion, how to make a speech.

The "how to" lessons help students evaluate, understand, and remember what they have read or heard. They help the student view television and films critically. The lessons help students use the library as a "Fort Knox" of useful information and free entertainment.(3) The "how to" lessons not only help students improve their reading of textbooks and similar sources, but newspapers and magazines too. They help students develop an awareness of the newspaper as a primary community resource. The "how to" lessons develop the students' critical thinking skills and encourage students to formulate questions that they would like to have answered while at the local county seat or in Lansing at the State Capital. The lessons help students develop their ability to "put it all together," that is, state their own ideas in writing. Offering information as a speech or in group discussion is important. It is a skill reinforced in the "how to" lessons.

Ms. Barbara Christensen, Secondary Social Studies Teacher, Lakeview Schools (Montcalm County)

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(1)Leona Kriesel Cox, Improving Listening Skills, Hayes School Publishing Co., Inc., U.S.A., 1985.

(2)Materials are the combination of . . . NewsCurrents, Knowledge Unlimited, Madison, Wisconsin as presented by the Grand Rapids Press. Julie C. Morse and Carolyn Pereira's Citizens on Assignment, Chicago Sun Times/ Constitutional Rights Foundation, 1980 as presented by the Detroit Free Press. St. Louis Post-Dispatch, CloseUp and Newspapers in Education, 900 N. Tucker Boulevard, St. Louis, MO 63101. "Power of the Printed Word," International Paper Company, Dept. 15, P.O. Box 954, Madison Square Station, New York, NY 10010.

(3)"Power of the Printed Word," International Paper Company, Dept. 15, P.O. Box 954, Madison Square Station, New York, NY 10010.

National Government: In the School District of the City of Saginaw students prepare for democratic citizenship as well as develop an increased understanding of themselves as a function of the social studies program.

In our study of national government, one thing we use is simulation games. These are structured limitations of real situations to accomplish, at the ninth, eleventh and twelfth grades, with equal success, specific knowledge, skill, and attitudinal objectives.(1)

Our favorite simulation games include:

Simulation Game for the 1787 Constitutional Convention (2)
Adversary Approach: A Simplified Classroom Trial Technique (3)
Mock Congress (A great opportunity for library research since students need to prepare committee reports.)

We find simulation games to be a quick and efficient means of involving students in an area of study. The students find them fun and thus they are highly motivated to participate.

The games involve issues on the students' rights and responsibilities as democratic leaders and the role of law in a democracy. Simulation games allow the students to think at many levels. Students develop problem solving skills. Students' decision making abilities are encouraged. Students learn to cope successfully with different points of view as well as with confrontations and the reduction of problems by examining possible alternate solutions. Throughout the simulation, in order to accomplish the above, the students must gather information, analyze it, synthesize it, and present it.

Handouts to develop critical thinking skills in the below average and average student have proven to be effective tools for enhancing learning. The variety of handouts, samples are in the curriculum guide, demonstrates consideration for the various kinds of questions (recall, translation, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation) necessary for the student to use different levels of thinking.

Mr. Calvin Mott, Secondary Social Studies Teacher, Saginaw Schools

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(1)As defined in our curriculum guide. Guide is available for anyone who wishes to purchase it. Calvin Mott, Secondary Social Studies Curriculum Guide: CIVICS/GOVERNMENT, School District of the City of Saginaw, Saginaw, Michigan, 1985.

(2)Mott, p. 37.

(3)Adopted from Law in American Society, Journal of the National Center for Law-Focused Education. Volume 2, Number 2, May 1973. "Pro Se Court: A Simulation Game," Arlene Gallagher and Elliott Hartstein, pp. 26-30.

Law Related Education:
Patent Law

Being involved in law-related education in Michigan exposes one to an incredible amount of information that excites teaching strategies. One of the difficult things about being involved in law-related education is separating the information into a "good-better-or-best" category for use in the classroom. However, one recent exposure I've had clearly goes beyond these categories and moves into a new one called "great." And, I might add, it did not come from an educational institution. It came from Dow Corning Company of Midland, Michigan, in the form of two of their patent attorneys, Dennis Rainear and Christopher Blank. Every year, including this year, Dennis and Chris go into the Midland area schools on request and do a lesson on patent law that is very interesting, creative and challenging. A lot of this work is on their own time but credit goes to Dow Corning for generously supplying some released time for them.

They use a team approach and what Dennis calls a modified Socratic method of teaching by asking a lot of questions. They deal with the third grade to the eighth grade at present but it can easily be modified to go beyond these grades. As you will be able to see later on in this article, their main goal is problem-solving and creative thinking, two very essential elements in education.

After giving a lesson to the students, Chris and Dennis invite the students to enter a contest involving inventions. I understand that the contest in Midland County started out modestly but has since grown to over four hundred invention disclosures which the two attorneys have sorted through in order to present awards to winners in different categories. The awards are presented at a dinner on Thomas Edison's Day. I believe in 1985 the overall winner drew up and invented a plan for getting the tires on airplanes going before they hit the ground so there would not be so much wear on the tires. A newspaper article in the Saginaw News on April 1, 1985, describes the event.

All right, what is so special about patent law and Chris and Dennis' presentation? Well, the first "idea" that is special is that the distinguished gentlemen of the Constitutional Convention thought it was special enough to be put into the United States Constitution. Article I, Section 8, Clause 8 of the Constitution says, "To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing, for limited times to authors and inventors, the exclusive right to their respectivew writing and discoveries."

In the past, when I have read this to my government students, I have given a cursory explanation and gone on. No more! Now it becomes a discussion about how government enters into a contract with an individual, telling him that if he will devote some of his time to creative thinking and problem-solving, the government will help him to control what is done with the invention and, in some cases, help him gain financial rewards. I also impress upon my students that inventions along with technology have most assuredly made the United States the great nation that it is today. A thought-provoking question to the class is, "Is it the financial rewards that are responsible for most of the inventions and technology in the United States?"

The second idea that is explained by Christopher and Dennis is how to get an invention patented. It must be approved by an examiner and must follow certain criteria. The following criteria are put on a chart for the students to see.

Criteria on the chart

Patents
Basic Requirements

Useful

New

Non-obvious

Patent

Proper
Subject
Matter

Complete
Invention
Disclosure

Priority
of
Invention

Youngsters look for solutions

Plane wheels, mousetraps, shower heads get their attention

By Zada B. Cambridge
News Staff Writer

MIDLAND - Young inventors here are showing how things most of us take for granted can be improved.

Take the wheels of an airplane. Most people may accept the friction that exists when aircraft tires hit a runway.

But Gavin Green doesn't.

Green, 12, a seventh-grade student at Central Intermediate School, said a paddle wheel on the side of each tire can catch the wind and accelerate the tire so it is at speed when it hits the ground.

The mechanism is Green's first invention. It's on paper now, but his building skills are being honed in his father's workshop. Green has made a wooden airplane and birdhouse to date and is planning more projects.

Deciding on a problem was harder than finding a solution, Green said. His father came up with the problem. "I had a lot of different ideas (at solving it), then used my first idea."

Twelve-year-old Stephanie Heit has an idea for a better mousetrap.

The seventh-grade student at Jefferson intermediate School invented a box-like trap with several one-way doors which let mice into a maze. Door stops prevent the mice from escaping. Small holes allow mice to catch the scent of the food inside, and a piece of glass over the top of the box allows Heit to see when mice have been caught.

"It can catch more than five mice. When you want to get rid of them, you can take the trap out to the woods (or away from the house) and let them out (by opening a latch on the glass top).

"At our cottage, our dad was catching a lot of mice with one trap. He had to set it every time. With this, he could catch them without having to kill them."

Heit, who collects mice figurines, said people who prefer to could put poison in the trap.

Scott Johnson, 14, is the last one into the shower each morning after his mother, father and brother. He came up with a way to take advantage of that last bit of warm water in the tank.

An eighth-grader at Northeast Intermediate School, Johnson created a drawing of a three-head shower -- designed to aim water at the body from three directions and keep it warmer in the process.

Green, Heit and Johnson were winners in the intermediate school-age division of a contest held by the Saginaw Valley Patent Law Association. Participating were more than 400 students from Midland Public Schools, Coleman Community Schools, Meridian Public Schools and the Bullock Creek School District.

The above article expresses the enthusiasm that the students of Midland County are showing for this project. Participation is expected to increase this year.

The Saginaw Valley Patent Law Association is planning to expand the program and offer some courses in creative thinking. They are planning a seminar to which they are inviting experts in the field of creative thinking.

Anyone who is interested in finding out more about the "Patent" project or the creative thinking seminar may contact Dennis Rainear, c/o Dow-Corning Corporation, 2200 W. Salzburg Road, P.O. Box 0094, Midland, MI 48486-0994.

Thinking for the Twenty-First Century:
Global Perspectives, A Course of Study

"As we enter the global phase of our human evolution, it becomes obvious that each man has two countries, his own and planet earth." (Rene Dubois)

"Americans are in need of exploring the international issues that currently face our global community . . ." (Ambassador J. Petree)

Of the many responsibilities facing social studies teachers in the 1980's, a top priority is the preparation of students to become productive citizens of their communiuties, their nation and their world. The need for an international perspective is based on the dynamics of our era and the pace at which we live, interact, and depend on one another. Because of these challenges, mankind collectively needs to develop an awareness of the issues and their implications for the United States and the World.

However, international issues facing the global community are varied and, by their individual and collective nature, complex and intertwined. Because of this, the task of developing and presenting global concepts and issues can become a rather frustrating experience. The variety of topic areas and the varying degrees of exposure that students have had with global issues and education can often make the most fundamental consideration take on special meaning and significance in the planning of a course whose purposes are the introduction of and development of global issues/global perspectives. Nevertheless, within the Social Studies curriculum of Traverse City Senior High School such a course does exist.

Global Perspectives, designed to meet the above mentioned general purposes, is open to all 10th grade students as an alternative to American History. The course is predicated on the fact that the global issues that affect our society and other societies are complex and interwoven; that these issues and their interrelationships that tie us to other nations, regions, and indeed, even to people (whether as groups or as individuals) are crucial to know and to understand. Throughout the semester, using readings, exercises, discussions, simulations and research projects, students examine and answer such questions as: (1) Is our world shrinking? (2) How is our world divided? (3) What are the global dynamics that make the "world go 'round"? (4) What are the major global problems affecting the world today and what are some tentative solutions to those problems? (5) In modern times, what attempts have been made to provide for a "safe" world?

An introductory unit, Developing A Global Perspective, is aimed at making students aware of the general concept of global interdependence by discussing the first two questions mentioned above. For example, students explore the ramifications of the pronouncements (a) "The world is flat" and (b) "The world is round." These discussions are intensified when new information regarding the physical shape of the world is introduced (the world as you well know is neither of these). This in turn leads to a discussion and to other lessons regarding the man-made divisions of the world (e.g., East/West blocs; first, second, third, and fourth worlds, North/South).

Following the introduction, the Global Forces unit focuses on the global dynamics that make the world "go 'round." Such concepts as ideology, balance

of power, technology, trade and development--major factors in understanding the dynamics of global affairs--are introduced and discussed. For example, the simulation/game STAR POWER is used to examine the balance of power concept whereas the film "Yesterday, Tomorrow and You" introduces students to the concept of change in the form of technology, the need to understand it and its ramifications.

The third unit, Global Issues, introduces students to major issues facing the world today such as population, food/hunger, resources, environment, armaments and human rights. Where they most appropriately relate, issues are examined in conjunction with various regions of the world. For example, human rights is discussed in relationship to a study of South Africa. However, as an overall picture, students, given world population data (e.g., the % of people expected to live to 74/50, % of people severely malnourished, % of people who live in urban areas, etc.), and are asked to compare it to their school/classroom. Additionally, students are involved in the simulation BALDICER as part of their examination of food/hunger; case studies are used to discuss human rights; showing the film "The Day After Trinity" begins a discussion of armaments and its related topics, war/peace and nuclear proliferation.

The culminating unit, Global Decision Making Simulation, is a teacher's delight, not only as "instructor" but also as "observer" because the "teachings" are actively demonstrated. Students at the beginning of the course selected a country to research. This research, designed as a series of task sheets, allows students to systematically gather information about their country's historical, political, economic and social development as well as to become informed of their country's position on such topics as terrorism, world debt, nuclear proliferation, hunger/population problems, human rights, etc. Additionally, students write letters to their respective embassies as part of their research. Armed with this profile, students demonstrate their understanding and appreciation for their country through role-playing in a Model United Nations General Assembly. In addition to learning about parliamentary procedure used at the United Nations, students are taught to write resolutions that pertain to issues discussed throughout the semester as they relate to their country's interest and to debate those issues with other countries' representatives in an effort to resolve crucial issues that face our global society.

Students evaluating this course give it high marks. Students suggest that they have gained a global perspective that recognizes that nations, areas, and people are interrelated and interdependent; that they have to examine their own attitudes and values in order to gain a sense of individual responsibility as members of an interdependent world; that they can identify, define and discuss the major global issues that face all people of the world; that thinking for the twenty-first century can be found in Global Perspectives, a course of study.

Mr. Al Kniss, Secondary Social Studies Teacher, Traverse City Schools.
Mr. Larry Dodd, Secondary Social Studies Teacher, Traverse City Schools.

Global Studies I and Global Studies II

Current news events such as the trade deficit, international terrorism, famine, and the threat of nuclear war are global in nature and affect our daily lives. In order to cope with the future, students will need to have the skills, information, and perspective to analyze our planet's problems.

In order to meet these needs, Ypsilanti High School offers Global Studies I and Global Studies II. Topics covered are graph skills review, interdependence, comparative economic systems, comparative cultures and religions, the developing world, map skills review, food and population issues, nuclear war/peace issues, international terrorism, human rights, and other topics of interest.

Students work both individually and in groups in response to a hands-on approach consisting of media presentations, lecture/discussions, simulations, oral presentations, panel discussions, problem solving factivities, and projects. For example, students construct graphs using current data thereby gaining the skills needed to compare and evaluate data presented in the economic development and the issues oriented topics. During our study of food and population, students examine development strategies, participate in decision making simulations and compare their decisions with those actually made in Sri Lanka. After studying terrorism and opposing viewpoints on how to end terrorism, groups of students participate in panel discussions presenting their opinions on how to end terrorism complete with supportive arguments, facts, and examples.

Global Studies is a challenging course to teach in that it demands that the instructor constantly update and revise the materials being taught. However the students' interest which extends to bringing in additional newspaper items and a willingness to ask questions makes up for the effort on the part of the instructor.

Furthermore it is important as we head toward the twenty-first century for students to appreciate and understand the economic and environmental interdependence of this planet. Students learn to look beyond simplistic slogans to the multifarious causes and solutions to problems. They begin to realize that the people of this plan have more in common than separating them. Hopefully students will realize as did Martin Luther King Jr. that: "Peace is not merely the absence of tension, but the presence of justice and brotherhood."

Ms. Carol Cramer, Ypsilanti Schools

Global Insights
(Cultural Geography)

It is generally assumed that American students are very unfamiliar with world events, geography, and world cultures. This is probably as accurate an assumption for our school as for any other. In an attempt to change this situation in 1981, four teachers from quite different experiences merged their abilities in a cooperative interdepartmental effort and developed a non-western course of study for freshmen. The course is a year-long study of several cultures in the world, geography, and current events.

Our students will usually take European History, American History, and American Government in their sophomore, junior, and senior years respectively, so, in order to not duplicate, we concentrate our regional studies on Africa, China, India, the Soviet Union, Latin America, and the Middle East. We generally spend about a month on each region, blending in a significant consideration of world issues. We are always anxious to link daily events with the history, politics, and economics of the various regions, but we also pursue such world issues as poverty, international trade, conflict, environmental concerns, and human rights in a determined way and such other units as pejudice, language and religion. As a part of this analysis, we also study their causes, history, and possible solutions. The attempt is made to emphasize our global interdependence.

The course was first attempted without a text, but this posed several problems, and the second year of the class the teachers began using the Allyn and Bacon text, A Global History. We use many films and filmstrips, speakers, and many activities. Students do group and independent research projects and presentations. We have cultural performances during the day, and encourage students to attend such events in the evening. Students are encouraged to find solutions to societal problems and are active in several activities throughout the year that suggest their understanding of the need for people to help those less fortunate. We have been involved in the CROP walk, food drives, and the students are sponsoring two young people through the Christian Children Foundation. The class is a spawning area for a very active United Nations Club. We also have a "sister" relationship with a Bogota, Colombia high school.

We begin the course in September with an introduction to the study of people and cultures, emphasizing throughout the course that people everywhere are different, even within our own classrooms; there is no one best way to dress, speak, eat, or think. We then introduce geography, political science, economics, and comparative political and economic systems to the students. After this introduction to the various social sciences, we begin our study of the regions and countries noting the uniqueness of the culture, politics, economics, history, and geography of each. As the end of the year approaches, students have a very good understanding of the world as it was, as it is today, and we then look ahead to future issues, problems, and solutions.

We have found Cultural Geography to be an excellent vehicle for introducing our freshmen to all the social sciences, generally, and to an awareness of the uniqueness of the various peoples of the world, specifically, and to problem-solving so we might arrive at solutions to the difficulties that face our human system.

Mr. Steve Thomas, Okemos Schools

SUGGESTED READINGS ON JAPAN

The following resources on Japan are recommended for consideration and inclusion on your MUST READ list

IF

-- you tend to recoil or act defensively when confronted with news headlines such as:
"Japanese students surpass those in U.S., Report Says - American Educators urged to copy foreign success" (The Detroit News, 1/6/87)
or
"Schools: Japan builds a better education . . ." (Free Press 1/12/87)

-- You have entertained the notion that the "United States and Japan, who have acted respectively as teachers and learners, are preparing to shift roles to those of classmates learning from each other" (Educational Policies in Crisis) but, YOU are not sure why!

-- you want to break up the ". . us vs. them mind set . ." (Chicago Tribune 6/27/87)

-- you earnestly and sincerely want to develop a strong valid social studies curriculum following guidelines set forth by the Michigan Department of Education.

-- you understand the necessity of Global Education being taught in our schools and the need for a "Global Community" mentality permeating our society.

-- you are simply curious about Japan, the Japanese people and more specifically Japanese education.

1. White, Merry. The Japanese Educational Challenge - A Commitment to Children, New York: The Free Press, 1987

The author provides a comprehensive look at the commitment Japan has made to developing its human resources. She presents her factual information by infusing personal perspectives of key individuals involved in the educational process: children, parents, as well as teachers.

White concludes her work by addressing in a global sense, through specific examples (e.g. Japan and the United States), the inter-relatedness of cultural priorities and educational expectations. This book will prove useful for the reader who wants an overview of education in Japan beginning in the home and continuing through upper secondary school.

2. Duke, Benjamin. Lessons for Industrial America, The Japanese School. New York: Praeger Publishers, 1986.

Duke reports on the Japanese educational system by identifying and isolating four characteristics of the Japanese worker (e.g. loyalty, literacy, competency,

and diligence). As he focuses one by one on each descriptor he shares his perceptions as to how the educational system assisted in the development of workers with particular characteristics/attitudes (e.g. the loyal worker).

This book can enhance one's study of Japanese education and should provide the reader with an added dimension of understanding the relationship between education and the workplace.

3. Rohlen, Thomas P. Japan's High Schools, Berkeley, California: University of California Press, 1983.

The focus of this book is on the non-compulsory yet hierarchical upper secondary schools of Japan. The information is presented through a description of five high schools in Kobe which represent a cross section of the educational order (bottom to top). The author provides clarification and a sense of appreciation for the similarities and differences between high schools in Japan and the United States.

This book should prove useful for the reader who wants to achieve a greater understanding of the high schools in Japan.

4. Shimahara, Nobue K. "The Cultural Basis of Student Achievement in Japan," Comparative Education, Vol. 22, No. 1, 1986 pp 19-26.

This article will prove useful for the reader attempting to put in perspective the relationship between the characteristics and priorities of a culture and the end product of its educational system.

Shimahara identifies and describes three aspects of the Japanese culture that promote high student achievement (e.g. creating a learning environment, indigenous Japanese psychology, and group orientation).

5. Cummings, William K. Education and Equality in Japan, Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1980.

Cummings describes what constitutes equal education during the compulsory school years (1-9) of students in Japan.

This book will prove useful for the reader who wants to learn about the many factors that contribute to the achievement of egalitarianism in Japanese schools.

6. _____, et al., ed. Educational Policies in Crises. Japanese and American Perspectives, New York: Praeger Publishers, 1986.

This book is the result of a cooperative effort of Japan and the United States. It consists of a series of papers prepared by experts from both countries and is presented in a point counterpoint format.

This particular publication should prove useful for the reader who is interested in examining and comparing Japanese and United States educational policies.

7. Stevenson, Harold / Azyma, Hiroshi / Hakuta, Kenji, ed. Child Development and Education in Japan, New York: W.H. Freeman and Company, 1986.

A book divided into two sections. Section one consists of articles on various aspects of child development in Japan. The papers are written by experts in the field from Japan as well as the United States. Section two contains summaries of related empirical research. Much of the discussion regarding the research is presented in a comparative manner.

This book will prove useful for the reader who is interested in the practices and concepts of contemporary Japanese education reported by psychologists, sociologists and anthropologists.

8. (a) Japanese Education Today. U.S. Study of Education in Japan, January, 1987. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402.

This report is a product of a cooperative effort of Japan and the United States. It is the culmination of the efforts of United States representatives to critique the Japanese education system.

(b) Educational Reforms in the United States. A Report of the Japan - United States Cooperative Study on Education, January, 1987. Made by the Japanese Study Group. (Available from: Embassy of Japan. 2520 Massachusetts Ave., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20008)

This document constitutes the effort of representatives from Japan to report on contemporary education in the United States.

Together the two reports should provide some insights into the strengths and weaknesses of education in Japan and the United States as viewed by the researcher.

9. Husin, Torsten. The School in Question, A Comparative Study of the School and its Future in Western Societies. New York: Oxford University Press, 1979.

This book emphasizes the global nature of problems being experienced in education by industrialized nations throughout the world. It is a comparative study of institutionalized schooling and what appears to be its bleak future.

The comparisons and generalizations made by Husin should prove informative for the reader who also senses that there is a general malaise in education and is interested in discovering some of the possibilities being discussed and considered for re-shaping education.

10. Ohmae, Kinishi. Beyond National Borders, Reflections on Japan and the World. Homewood, Illinois: Dow Jones-Irwin, 1987.

While focusing on the challenges of Japan in its new role in the world community, the author makes points which have important implications for educators in countries throughout the world.

This book will enable readers to gain a greater sense of the complexities of our increasingly interdependent global society.

Ms. Marsha J. Fortner, Genesee Intermediate School District, Michigan
(A Michigan State University Doctoral Student whose major area of research is a comparison of education in the Federal Republic of Germany, Japan, and selected Michigan schools.)

Economic Education Through "DEEP"

The Michigan Economic Education Council (MEEC) in cooperation with the Michigan Department of Education (MDE) has launched a major initiative in Michigan to establish DEEP (Developing Economic Education Program) school systems throughout the state. Thirty-three (33) school systems have been formally designated as DEEP school systems as the 1986-87 school year begins. By 1990, the goal of having at least 70% of Michigan's public school students enrolled in DEEP school systems should be achieved.

So what is a DEEP school system? Good question! Basically, DEEP is a process for enhancing a K-12 curriculum in economic education. Here are the essential elements that characterize a DEEP school system.

1. Following informational meetings with administrators, teachers, and other appropriate individuals (e.g., curriculum committees and lay advisory committees), a formal DEEP agreement is signed (usually at a meeting of the local Board of Education).
2. One of the university-based economic education centers is linked with the school system in terms of providing resource materials and consultant services.
3. The local system appoints someone as the economic education coordinator for the school system. That individual becomes a Certified DEEP Trainer (CDT) through a special workshop conducted by MEEC and the Joint Council on Economic Education (JCEE).
4. A formal needs assessment is conducted to identify what is being done with economic education throughout the K-12 curriculum and what inservice, curriculum development, and resource material needs exist.
5. In cooperation with state DEEP personnel (provided through the university-based economic education center), goals are established and plans are developed and executed to meet identified needs.
6. Evaluations are conducted to assess progress towards and achievement of established goals; new goals are formulated and plans developed.

The DEEP process is an ongoing one. It is inter-disciplinary by nature and K-12 in its scope. The basic goal is to significantly raise levels of economic understanding. The integration of economic concepts into the curriculum as well as the development of a capstone course (or courses) in economics is the curriculum thrust of DEEP. A variety of print materials and media are made available to teachers and curriculum planners to aid the developmental process.

The current initiative is being fueled by a three-year grant (1985-88) by the W.K. Kellogg Foundation through the New York-based JCEE. Supplemental funding is provided by the MEEC. Mr. Tim Schilling serves as the state DEEP Coordinator and works out of Central Michigan University and Eastern Michigan University. Dr. Anne Hansen, Director of School Program Services, is the MDE liaison person; Dr. Robert Ristau, the Executive Director of MEEC, is the DEEP project director.

To learn more about DEEP and the current program, write MEEC, 204B Sill Hall, Eastern Michigan University, Ypsilanti, MI 48197 or call 313-487-2071.

Dr. Robert Ristau, Professor of Economics, Eastern Michigan University.

A PHILOSOPHY AND RATIONALE FOR SOCIAL STUDIES EDUCATION IN MICHIGAN*

INTRODUCTION

The central purpose of social studies education in Michigan is the development of citizenship. The goal of citizenship, in turn, is the constant effort through decision and action to foster just relations among people and institutions.

The welfare of individuals and the welfare of society are tightly bound. Young people need to learn to live well as social beings. From childhood on they are part of social worlds extending from their everyday groups and communities to their country and the world at large. To find their ways in these social worlds young people themselves need the personal capabilities and moral commitments for wise choices of action in their social, political, and economic roles, those present and those yet to come. The society in which young people will continue to live is one of continuity and change, diversity and commonality, difficulty and opportunity, democracy and its insufficient practice. Such a society needs knowledgeable, thoughtful, and ethical participation by its citizens.

Both personal and social welfare require that schools educate for citizenship. Many areas of school programs as well as out-of-school life contribute to the development of citizens. Still it is social studies education which focuses directly and systematically upon those learnings required. Schools, therefore, must provide it for all young people from kindergarten through high school.

In social studies education four elements are essential: knowledge; democratic and humane values; skills in acquiring information and thinking about social affairs; and social participation. Programs must bring these elements together to foster a sense of efficacy, sound decision making, and responsible action.

The consequences of slipshod education for citizenship are severe. Young people and their schools, parents and the public, all must accept their responsibility for vital social education.

FOUR ELEMENTS OF SOCIAL STUDIES EDUCATION

1. Knowledge

Developing knowledge has long been accepted as a major goal. Yet questions about what knowledge continue.

Whatever has been traditionally included is not necessarily the knowledge of most worth. Neither are items of information organized as mere description or narrative, nor sweeping abstractions outside students' experiences and

*This statement, pages 104 through 113, and the range and instructional focus material included on pages 115 through 117, are taken from the proposed state document entitled "Essential Goals and Objectives for Social Studies Education in Michigan, K-12 (May 1987)."

understanding. Although what young people are to learn need not be limited to the instantly useful, it ought to have recognizable and projected usefulness in helping them to comprehend their social worlds and to make the decisions surely to be called for.

1.1 Concepts and Generalizations Are Significant

What young people ought to develop is knowledge of powerful concepts, generalizations, and theories. More comprehensive and more surely supported, such knowledge accounts for new particulars encountered in the course of living. Knowledge in the form of ideas can replace the confusion of unfamiliar and discrete events with some degree of meaning and so allow for some degree of influence and direction.

Items of information are not unimportant. Some few are significant in themselves. Others are important as information about a particular, problematic condition, "the facts of the case," necessary for analysis and decision making. Most important, however, is acquiring further information which can be reorganized with the old in the form of concepts and generalizations. Out of scanty information sound ideas can rarely be formed. Unless relations among facts are grasped, what might become powerful ideas are left as empty verbalization, memorized but inert. Young people need a rich fund of information, but information selected with the intent of developing ideas.

1.2 Knowledge Must Represent the Best of Scholarship

Social studies must draw heavily upon the social sciences, including history, and from related fields such as law, psychology, the humanities, journalism, and the arts. Education in the social studies does not aim to turn students into social scientists. Suitable organization for scholars in some academic field may not be suitable for the learning stages of young people. Many of the problems of society which students must address are not dealt with handily by any one field. Nevertheless, from the fields of scholarship come the surest knowledge we have. Young people are entitled to make it their own. Society properly expects schools to rely upon it.

Of course, that the fields of scholarship have already developed significant ideas does not mean that students simply memorize them. Students must have experiences appropriate for understanding.

Moreover, the scholarly fields are both bodies of knowledge and methods of inquiry. Students must come to see relations between the questions and hypotheses directing inquiry and the means of producing evidence in support. By their own inquiry students can find and interpret information, develop knowledge for themselves. Understanding the ways in which claims to knowledge are generated encourages both evaluation of its worth and continuing reformulation.

1.3 Knowledge Develops

Young people must come to see that the ideas which make up the body of the scholarly fields change over the years. Knowledge is not fixed. Changing

conditions require not merely new or current information but new directions in thought, even in interpreting the past. Fresh conceptual frameworks and more basic theory do better at accounting for social relations, describe more accurately, and predict more surely. Students must see that their own knowledge like that of scholars is the basis for further knowledge, deeper and revised.

1.4 Knowledge Must Be Balanced

All of the social sciences--and whatever illuminates from other fields--ought to be represented in the social education of young people: history, political science, sociology, anthropology, geography, and economics. All of them speak to the problems of social living. One field strengthens the others. Neither the past nor the present can be neglected, while both ought to point to the future. Study of what is American is clearly essential. Still the reality of world interdependence requires studies not only of the peoples of Canada, Europe, Asia, Africa, Latin America, and the Middle East, but also of the global system itself.

Young people must understand what is meant by a frame of reference. They must learn to see events and conditions from the standpoints of the several groups of people affected by them, whether Americans or peoples elsewhere. Part and parcel of students' understanding ought to be comparisons of past and present, one area and another, one system with others, this point of view and another.

Knowledge must also be balanced between understandings needed in young people's own immediate social worlds and society at large. The former is often slighted for the latter. Nonetheless, even pervasive social problems need not be considered as public issues only, without recognized relation to students' own lives. Young people should see their social studies education as helpful in their everyday living.

Lastly, students need balance in their knowledge of both the good and the bad in human society, of people's successes and failures, of their dreams and struggles, of what is or has been noble, contemptuous, or simply mediocre. If human society has difficulties, injustice, and even misery, it may also have joy and promise of human betterment. Views of society as either largely rotton or almost unblemished encourage apathy, not a sense of efficacy.

1.5 Knowledge Must Be Intellectually Honest

The best of knowledge describes the social world as it is and not necessarily as people may like to believe it is. Because such knowledge may contradict the beliefs or interests of some in the community or of some powerful groups or organizations, indeed some students themselves, knowledge in social studies can be the subject of controversy and pressure. Because young people must learn to think through controversial issues, their knowledge cannot be limited or distorted by what is merely congenial.

For knowledge does matter. While classrooms need not exclude bits of information contributing primarily to enjoyment, passing interest is not

enough. Mere collections of information are soon forgotten. What young people and their society need is sound knowledge that can be brought to bear on the social world, knowledge that makes a difference.

2. Values

Neither schools nor social studies classrooms can be wholly neutral when it comes to matters of value; virtually all actions express the primacy of some values over others. Still schools and classrooms can act in accordance with basic values significant to them and society, and they can and must avoid the indoctrination of particular values.

2.1 Core Values Are Vital

Schools and especially social studies classrooms ought to model the respect for human dignity upon which democratic society rests. Both formal and informal culrriculum should be based on reasoned commitment to such core values as open opportunity for all, regardless of race, ethnic group, sex, religion, social class, creed, abilities, or handicaps; freedom to teach and learn to express ideas; respect for the power of thought; support for the rule of just laws, the right and responsibility to participate in their making, and due process; concern for the welfare of others; the opportunity to search for satisfying directions and personal fulfillment; and social justice which balances individualism with the common weal, as much of good with the least concomitant loss.

2.2 Value Conflicts Are Ever Present

Important as commitment to core values may be, their meaning in the ordinary circumstances of living is rarely clear and certain. Moreover, these values are held with a host of others widespread in our culture: competition, cooperation, materialism, achievement, enjoyment, loyalty to family and friends, desire for status or power, racism, security, and more. Ours is a complex and pluralistic society. True, people hold many values in common. Yet values also differ from group to group and person to person, while every individual faces the dilemmas arising out of conflicts in his or her own values. As society shifts and changes, values change, or seem less sure, or require reinterpretation. It is hard to say which of conflicting values will carry most weight in the actual situations of either personal living or social policy making. Students must learn to expect a competition of values.

2.3 Values Must Be Recognized

Identifying their own values must be a part of students' education in social studies. So also must be recognizing the values of others and their seeming sense in the terms of others' lives or cultures.

2.4 Thoughtful Examination of Values is Indispensable

Values are inherently part of choosing courses of action both in personal living and society's policy making. Students must see the values at stake, consider their consequences, choose priorities for particular situations, and reconcile incoherent values. Neither indoctrination nor

expression of off-the-cuff preference is thoughtful. Nor is the belief warranted that just any value is as good as any other; some values are better than others as are the reasons to support them and the consequences to follow.

Both the support of exemplary models in practice and thoughtful examination of values are necessary. Out of such maturing experience comes personal integrity, based, not on expedient accommodations, but moral principles.

3. Skills

Young people need skills to make their knowledge and values active and so continue in the lifelong process of learning.

3.1 Students Need Communication Skills Focused on Social Affairs

Especially important is the ability to read with comprehension, thought, purpose, and satisfaction. Of the many reasons to read, two stand out. Much of what is of significance for citizenship is in print. Readers can move through material at their own pace, one appropriate to their abilities or purposes, be it skimming, comprehending or reflecting. Although general reading ability is important, it does not guarantee competence in reading about social matters. Students must be able to read not only the content of social science and history in their textbooks and similar sources, but also newspapers, magazines, charts, maps, cartoons, graphs, and literature. Hence, social studies education must include both help in reading such material competently and encouragement for reading widely.

Since television and to a lesser extent films are increasingly sources of information and points of view, young people need from social studies education what is ordinarily overlooked: seeking out the worthwhile; attending with comprehension; and evaluating critically.

Moreover, students must develop ability to state their ideas in writing: to describe, narrate, explain, sumamrize, and support their positions in plain and organized fashion.

Discussion is so commonplace an activity in the life of society, so much a means of influencing opinion and arriving at decisions that social studies education must foster young people's skills: listening to others, offering information, advocating, keeping on subject, clarifying, supporting, summarizing, and finding common ground.

3.2 Students Must Learn to Find Information

Students also need skills in using books as references, locating information in the library, surveying, interviewing, and observing at first hand. Such skills are tightly related to formulating directing questions: what is to be found should be what students aim to know. While at times it is enough to look up some few specific items of information, finding out ought ordinarily to be related to search for what students consider significant to themselves and society.

3.3 Young People Must Learn to Think for Themselves

Passive and gullible citizens cannot promote a just society nor develop themselves to the full. Thinking for yourself goes hand in hand with a sense of efficacy. In social studies classrooms students need systematic opportunities to criticize interpretations and positions by noticing assumptions, facts, included or omitted, on subject or off, consistencies and inconsistencies. Students must make inferences, take positions and problems apart, and organize accounts and explanations. Students must practice the processes of conceptualizing, and of formulating hypotheses and marshalling the evidence to support or deny them. Above all, young people must practice applying the ideas they have developed.

Although much of students' thinking is likely to lead to positions already formulated by others, students will have practiced inquiry, searched for meaning. Nevertheless, education in social studies ought to encourage fresh points of view. What is unconventional or original, especially when it stems from search, contributes richness to social thought.

3.4 Decision Making is Crucial

Knowledge, values, and skills come together in decision making, surely a competence required of citizens. Decision making is a form of search: recognizing and analyzing a problematic situation; seeing alternative courses of action and projecting their consequences; identifying the values at stake and making the trade-offs almost certainly required; and coming to a reasoned position worthy of commitment. No previously set answers can be had. Upon occasion no decisions can be made and the proper course is to suspend judgment.

Special care must go to seeing that neither teachers nor students impose their particular values or positions on individual students. Predetermined consensus cannot be required. Decision making must be open and honest, thoughtful and systematic. While airing opinions may be stimulating at times, mere expression of opinions is not decision making. Of course, students have a right to free speech. Yet in social studies education statements ought to be subject to the challenge of serious examination. Some decisions are, indeed, better than others, and some positions are simply untenable.

All of these skills should be developed in significant social studies content. Practicing skills in trivial content is using students' time inefficiently. What is significant deserves to be discussed, thought over, and put to use.

4. Social Participation

Everyone lives as part of social groups, which influence and are influenced by their members. Without direction toward action, social studies education becomes passive.

4.1 Classrooms and Schools are Place for Participation

Since social studies classrooms and schools are themselves social situations, they can offer ample opportunities for group interaction and

enterprise. Many kinds of activities are the ground for majority and minority views, compromise, negotiation, advocacy, empathy, try-outs of new ways of behaving, and decision making.

4.2 Much Can Be Learned Outside School's Walls

Observation is useful: for example, of harvesting, a court of law, or a newsroom. Community interviews and surveys collect information often hard to get from other sources. Discussion meetings with people of different backgrounds, ages, or race furnish insight.

4.3 Community Service is Valuable

Young people, especially adolescents, ought to engage in community work. Some may be in jobs for pay. Some may volunteer service in day-care centers, political campaigns, cleaning up a local river, or whatever. Every community has work in need of doing. Young people need the satisfactions of responsibility and the chance to rub elbows with many sorts of people. Schools and social studies classrooms along with other community organizations ought to make such experience possible.

Such participation ought to be accompanied by serious consideration of what can be learned: the workings of an organization; the give-and-take in human relations; or the requirements of effective roles.

These four elements--knowledge, valuing, skills, and social participation--are integrally related. Knowledge, values, skills, all require a base in concrete experience of participation. Information and ideas do not point to decisions until they are melded with values and thought. Values held without thought of their consequences are dangerous. Inability to communicate and find out makes for ignorance and cuts off participation. The best of knowledge and values amount to little unless they are put to use. Participation without knowledge, thought, and humane values cannot be reconciled with the requirements of personal growth or the principles of a just society. Each element supports the others in making decisions required for participating in social life.

CHARACTERISTICS OF PROGRAMS

If the four elements of social studies education are to be translated into actual learning opportunities proper for the many sorts of young people, programs will have to show at least these characteristics.

1. Social Studies Must Be Provided for All Students, Kindergarten through High School

Learning opportunities must be genuine, mindful of students' backgrounds, capabilities, and purposes, and available to all, of whatever racial or ethnic group, sex, creed, age level, or social class, whether handicapped or not, whether of great, few, or ordinary abilities.

2. Emphasis Should Go to Basics Widely Applicable

Social studies programs ought to emphasize what has wide and continuing usefulness, not ready recounts, opinions, or simple collections of information

about one topic or another. The focus ought to be on what is basic to further learning and inquiry into the human condition.

Social studies must be more than a mere collection of current emphases: consumer education, reading, multicultural education, law-focused education, the study of futures, value clarification, career education, environmental education, global education, all to be sure, valuable. A well-constructed program will include them as aspects of a whole. It is not enough, by way of example, to see the economic system largely through the eyes of consumers, though consumer roles ought not be neglected.

Effective reading about social affairs, to cite another example, requires both concrete experience and conceptual baggage, quite as necessary for meaning as vocabulary and specific reading skills. Surely young people ought to see their own racial, ethnic, and religious roots, but to see them out of relation to those of others or the coherence of society is to miss the point of cultural pluralism and the need for social justice. Understanding American society needs melding with global perspectives. A proper social studies program will integrate many areas of concern, out of which basic learnings grow or to which basic learnings are applied.

3. Selection Will Have to Be Made

It is patently impossible for students to "cover everything."

The elementary program ought to be broad, drawing widely from several fields. As students at secondary levels mature, their interests and abilities call for more specialized choices. What counts for society is a sufficient pool of competencies among its citizens, not identical competence. Even so, secondary programs ought to have coherence in place of addition of topics or courses.

The difficulties of selection are eased when programs give up the repetition of topics, reworked in greater detail, from grade to grade. What is needed is fresh vantage points and broader applications.

4. Programs Need Defensible Structure

No one organizational scheme is consistently best among those which aim to integrate all elements of social studies education. Curricular programs may be organized around public issues or young people's personal problems; around threads of identified concepts, skills, and values; by academic fields especially when tney can be related one to another; around topics with a focus; by chronology, especially when major interpretations can be built; out of inquiry and search by concerned individuals or groups; or from the requirements of investigations or social participation. Variety accommodates a broader range of purposes and appeals. Whatever the organizational schemes, social studies programs need conceptual frameworks and structure.

5. Common Goals Must Be Translated into Local Programs

Both the State of Michigan and local school districts have common goals which mest with goals for social studies education. Common goals, however, do not require standardized programs. Worthwhile social studies classrooms are more likely where schools, teachers, students, and their communities commit themselves to their own implementation of common goals.

6. Objectives Ought to Be Clear

Although variations should and will occur from one person to another, what is to be learned ought to be clear enough to all to give purpose and direction to classroom learning at every grade level. Objectives should be conceived in terms of both behavior and content, not merely in one or the other. Many specific kinds of learning can be suitably phrased as specific performance objectives. Nevertheless, many other complex and significant kinds of learning cannot be suitably phrased as specific performance objectives. Other complex and significant kinds of learning can be stated only in more general terms, though still as behavior in content. The demands of stating objectives in terms of specific items of readily identifiable or measurable performance ought not to govern the selection of all objectives.

7. Learning Activities Must Be Appropriate for Objectives

Learning activities must be rich and varied enough to appeal to many sorts of students and to allow for individualization. Activities must provide opportunities for students to learn whatever is identified in objectives.

From early childhood through high school young people need concrete experience in observing and influencing the workings of the social world. Without that experience, formal thought and mature values cannot grow.

Both expository and discovery methods are appropriate when they complement each other in the stream of learning activities. Genuine inquiry calls for both.

Controversy cannot be excluded from classrooms. It is not cut and dried but the differences of competing points of view that are essential for decision making.

Thus, observing at first hand, or from films or filmstrips, or pictures; role playing or simulating; action projects; responding to and raising questions of thought and value; chairing a meeting or committee; reading for many purposes and in many kinds of material; writing to explain; formal practice in processes of decision making: all of these and many more will make up more effective classroom patterns than day-in-and-day-out recitations from textbooks and daily lectures by teachers.

8. Varied Instructional Materials Are Needed

For varied, rich, and significant learning activities a wide range of instructional materials are indispensable. Many modern textbooks recognize this requirement by including a variety of reading materials and suggested activities, accompanied by additional, related, non-text material. Whether or not from published programs, students need case studies, realia, simulation exercises, maps, graphs, recordings, first hand accounts, filmstrips, reading materials at suitable levels of difficulty, and much more in their classrooms or from a handy media resource center or library.

9. Classroom Climate Must Be Supportive

Significant learning objectives representing all four elements of social studies education need careful assessment and evaluation. Assessment and

grades based chiefly on attainment of knowledge turn effort away from other just as essential objectives. Assessment must not be limited to what can be tested cheaply or easily; not all significant learning in social studies can be measured precisely in practical ways. Tests are only one among many sources of evidence. Informal evaluation of hard-to-test-for objectives focuses attention on the need to achieve them.

Students, their teachers, and their parents need to see what has been and what is yet to be attained. Schools need information for regular and systematic consideration of the effectiveness of programs. The public needs information for policy making at local, state, and national levels.

WHO IS RESPONSIBLE?

Many kinds of people have vested interests in social studies education. Teachers and administrators must give leadership to strengthening educationally sound learning opportunities. Young people have responsibilities for their own learning. The public must set and support sound policies. Challenging social studies programs are more likely when students, teachers, parents, administrators, and people from the community at large practice their right and responsibility to participate in decision making, each group in its own way. Sound education for citizenship influences the common lot of all.

CONSTRUCTING A K-12 SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM

The Social studies curriculum offered* in a school district should reflect a logical and consistent approach to curriculum and instructional program development and improvement. Historically, the focus of most K-12 social studies curriculum programs reflect the "expanding environment" for grades K-6 and the "contracting environment" for the secondary schools (7-12).

Obviously, for a variety of reasons a district might prefer, with good and sound reasons, to have the emphasis in their social studies programs at grade levels other than those listed on the following pages. They might also choose to have a larger number of social studies offerings than what is indicated on the following pages.

The range and instructional focus in this document reflects recommendations included in the Michigan State Board of Education's Better Education for Michigan Citizens: A Blueprint for Action. It also addresses: (1) recommendations included in earlier approved State Board of Education documents (e.g., Multicultural Education Policy/Position Statements, Global Education Guidelines, Environmental Education Guidelines, Consumer Economics Education Guidelines, and (2) legislative mandates in regard to civics/government and Michigan studies. Within this document special attention is also given to the area of law-related education.

As Michigan school districts review and revise where needed their social studies program, appropriate attention should be given to state statutes and State Board of Education recommendations in regard to social studies education (see Appendices A and B).

For example, in regard to multicultural education, attention should be given to the notion that the confluence of many cultures has been characteristic of American life throughout our history. The great variety of cultures has been a powerful influence in structuring our social system, enriching our national heritage, and creating some of our most critical problems. The social studies curriculum should, wherever relevant, stress the contributions of individuals from many groups to our national development.

The social studies curriculum and instructional program at any level--elementary, middle/junior, senior--should reflect the entire K-12 continuum. A sound program is one which is characterized by something more than "token attention" to the matter of vertical and horizontal curriculum articulation and integration.

In particular, when decisions are being made as to instructional emphasis, serious and careful attention should be given to the soundness of what is being proposed in regard to the development level of students and the immediate relevance of the curriculum and instruction in the lives of the learners. The evidence, as reported in survey after survey, continues to support the thesis that as students progress from one grade to another, too many of them develop

*See Page 118 for a Curriculum Development Model.

GRADE 10-12 POSSIBLE ELECTIVE OFFERINGS:

ANTHROPOLOGY

COMMUNITY STUDY

ECONOMICS

ENVIRONMENTAL STUDIES

ETHNIC STUDIES

WORLD GEOGRAPHY

HISTORY (STATE & WORLD)

HUMANITIES (COURSE)

INTRODUCTION TO THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

LEADERSHIP SEMINAR

POLITICAL SCIENCE

PSYCHOLOGY

SOCIAL PROBLEMS

SOCIOLOGY

URBAN STUDIES

WOMEN'S STUDIES

SUGGESTIONS FOR DISTRICTS TO CONSIDER AS THEY MAKE RANGE AND INSTRUCTIONAL EMPHASIS DECISIONS

1. APPROPRIATE ATTENTION SHOULD BE GIVEN TO SOCIAL PARTICIPATION ACTIVITIES IN WHICH STUDENTS CAN APPLY SOCIAL STUDIES CONTENT WITHIN THE CLASSROOM, THE SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY.

2. BASIC GEOGRAPHY SKILLS SHOULD BE INTRODUCED, DEVELOPED AND REINFORCED AS APPROPRIATE AT ALL LEVELS.

3. APPROPRIATE ATTENTION SHOULD BE GIVEN AT ALL LEVELS TO THE CONCEPT OF GLOBAL INTERDEPENDENCE AND ISSUES/TROPICS SUCH AS:

FOOD

HEALTH

POPULATION

WAR, PEACE AND ARMAMENTS

ENVIRONMENT

THE ROLE OF RELIGIONS IN THE HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

RACE AND ETHNICITY

RIGHTS AND RESPONSIBILITIES

RELIGIOUS ISSUES

PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY

INTERNATIONAL MONETARY AND TRADE RELATIONS

LANGUAGE

ARTS AND CULTURE

ENERGY

POVERTY

RELATIONS AMONG NATIONS/STATES

4. APPROPRIATE ATTENTION SHOULD BE GIVEN AT ALL LEVELS TO BOTH CONTEMPORARY AND ANCIENT HISTORY OF EACH GEOGRAPHIC REGION UNDER STUDY. ATTENTION SHOULD ALSO BE GIVEN TO CONTRIBUTIONS OF EARLIER CIVILIZATION TO MODERN HISTORY AND CULTURAL TRADITIONS.

GRADE 10-12 POSSIBLE ELECTIVE OFFERINGS:

ANTHROPOLOGY

COMMUNITY STUDY

ECONOMICS

ENVIRONMENTAL STUDIES

ETHNIC STUDIES

WORLD GEOGRAPHY

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stronger feelings of boredom and dislike for what goes on in social studies classrooms. (See reports such as those by Goodlad* and Sizer**.)

As local school district administrators, board mebers and teachers review and revise as needed their social studies curriculum and instructional programs, students, parents, and appropriate other citizens should have real and meaningful involvement in the process in the initial stages of the project as well as the usual "after the fact reporting." (See Appendix B A Position Statement and Resource Guide on Involvement of Parents and Other Citizens in the Educational System.)

As described in the Philosophy and Rationale section of this document, the social studies program should include suggested courses and opportunities for all students to complete a specified number of hours in volunteer types of community service activities. (See Recommendation included in Boyer Report***.)

There is also a need for districts to include within their secondary offerings the opportunity for all students at the twelfth grade level to select from various course offerings such as those listed at the top of page .

Consistent with various current reports, state statutes and State Board of Education recommendations, range and instructional focus recommendations on pages 115-116, include: (1) an emphasis on geography, and the development of appropriate geographic skills by all students and (2) an emphasis and particular attention to the concept of global interdependence and related issues.

*Goodlad, John I. A Place Called School. McGraw-Hill Book Company, N.Y., 1983, pp. 210-213.

**Sizer, Theodore. Horace's Compromise - The Dilemma of the American High School. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1984, pp. 27-30, 53-58.

***Boyer, Ernest L. High School, A Report on Secondary Education in America. Harper and Row, N.Y. 1983, pp. 100-106.

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SEVEN STEP PROCESS MODEL FOR

CURRICULUM REVIEW*

FLOWCHART OF SEVEN STEP PROCESS MODEL

1	2	3
Philosophy, Rationale, and Goals	Recommended Range and Instructional Focus	Locating, Selecting Modifying Student Learning Objectives
6	5	4
Program Implementation and Staff Development	Selection Development and Evaluation of Materials	Curriculum Guide Development/Update

7

a. Program evaluation

b. Instruction and Classroom Management Evaluation

c. Assessment of Student Achievement

*Davis, James E. and Holey, Frances, Editors, Planning a Social Studies Program: Activities, Guidelines and Resources. Social Science Education Consortium, Inc. Boulder, Colorado, 1977. pp. 3-6.