

CURRICULUM REFORM IN HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES,
1960-1965--A SURVEY OF THE LITERATURE

by

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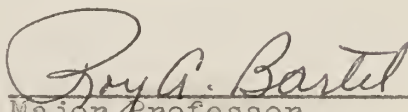
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INTRODUCTION

Background and Significance of the Study

There is "ferment" in the teaching of history and the social studies in the public schools today. Fraser,¹ Gibson,² and Hartley,³ to name just a few, have attested to this fact. But just what is happening in this field? Will there be a "new social studies" comparable to the "new mathematics" and the "new science"?⁴ Mayer,⁵ under a commission from the American Council of Learned Societies and the Carnegie Institute, attempted to answer those questions in 1962. Gibson,⁶ in the winter of 1964, surveyed the "expanding horizons of the social studies." The present researcher felt that a survey in the spring of 1965 of the literature on the developments in history and social studies teaching would make possible an updating of those earlier attempts, and would permit a study of other points of view, in

¹Dorothy M. Fraser, "What's Happening in the Social Studies," Curriculum Report (Curriculum Service Center/NASSP), 3:2, March, 1965.

²John S. Gibson, New Frontiers in the Social Studies, 2.

³William H. Hartley (President, The National Council for the Social Studies), "Foreword," Social Studies in the Senior High School (ed. Willis D. Moreland), v.

⁴The elementary school principals of the nation apparently thought so in April, 1965; see "New Social Studies Are on the Way, According to Elementary Principals," NEA Reporter, 4:3, May 14, 1965.

⁵Martin Mayer, Social Studies in American Schools.

⁶Gibson, op. cit.

the hope of reaching some conclusions about the extent and direction of reform in this field. Such a survey would be of value to the researcher in his teaching, perhaps also to the school system in which he teaches, and possibly to other teachers and their administrators.

Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this study was to answer the question: "Can a reform of the curriculum in history and the social studies take place that would be comparable in degree and quality to the changes that have occurred recently in science and mathematics?"

Hypothesis. The working hypothesis of this study was as follows: "It is possible to develop a 'new social studies' comparable to the 'new mathematics' and the 'new science'."

Definitions

For the purposes of this study, curriculum was defined as ". . . all the experiences pupils have under supervision of school authorities" ¹ It was also taken to mean such peripheral areas as teacher education and training that are necessary to present those experiences. The researcher was aware of the meaningful distinction that can be made between

¹Kimball Wiles, The Changing Curriculum of the American High School, vi.

"curriculum development" and "instructional improvement,"¹ but he felt that for the purpose of this paper the two could be combined under the single term "curriculum reform" without doing injustice to the research.

The terms reform and revision were used interchangeably to mean widespread change in subjects taught and methods of teaching.

In this study, history (the study of man's past in its unique aspects), was separated in meaning from the social sciences (the scientific study of man in society for the purpose of forming generalizations). The latter term included, but was not limited to, geography, political science, economics, anthropology, sociology, and social psychology. The term social studies was used to describe the content of the social sciences as applied to the public schools.

Other terms were defined as used.

¹See G. Wesley Sowards, "A Re-Vitalized Social Studies Curriculum; an Opportunity for the Taking," The Educational Forum, 28:262-263, March, 1964.

SCOPE AND PROCEDURES

The Research Design

This was a survey of the literature, analyzing materials in periodicals and books.

Sources and Kinds of Data Needed

Sources of data were materials that the researcher could secure in libraries, in bookstores, or through the mail in the time available.

These types of data were needed: (1) information about the development of the new mathematics and science programs; (2) discussions of problems involved in curriculum reform in history and the social studies; (3) reports on current curriculum reform projects in this area; (4) compilations of promising new techniques in the teaching of social studies and history; and (5) data as to conclusions reached by other researchers on trends in history and social studies curricula.

Procedures

After collection of data, it was necessary to analyze the material to (1) set up certain criteria for comparing reform in history and the social studies with reform in mathematics and science; (2) formulate ideas about basic areas of difference between mathematics and science, on the one hand, and history and the social sciences, on the other; (3) compile a survey of new programs and techniques that might resolve

such differences; and (4) reach some conclusions in regard to the original hypothesis.

Limits of the Study

The study was limited to printed and mimeographed materials with copyright dates from January, 1960, to May, 1965, which were available in the libraries of Central Missouri State College, Warrensburg, and Kansas State University, Manhattan; or which could be ordered by the author from January to May, 1965.¹

The focus of the study was limited to the secondary level although discussion of problems of curriculum sequence and articulation required the inclusion of certain material about the elementary history and social studies program.

The objective validity and universal application of conclusions reached were limited by the author's personal bias resulting from his undergraduate major in history and his view that this discipline is more of a humanity than a science.

¹"Few of the national programs go back farther than 1960, and many of them were started in only the last year or so;" Fraser, op. cit., 2.

THE MATHEMATICS AND SCIENCE MOVEMENTS AS
A MODEL FOR REFORM

The Philosophy Behind the Reforms

Mayer¹ has outlined the philosophy behind the curriculum reforms in mathematics and science. He said that this philosophy consists of two assumptions, an argument, and a conclusion.

First assumption. The real world really exists. It is more than just "something" in the mind of the observer. Different people see the same readings on laboratory instruments; experiments can be duplicated. If this real world of nature is asked a good question, over and over again, it will give the same answer, within a statistically predictable range. Where the answer varies unpredictably, the question is no good.

Second assumption. On some basic level, all human learning involves the same process. The scientist who is discovering new truths is going through basically the same process as the young child learning for the first time an older truth.

Argument. If all learning follows basically the same procedure, and operates on a world that really exists, then every completely naive human intelligence (assuming such existed) would organize each wholly new experience in the same way. In other words, it is theoretically possible that if mankind had no background or identical backgrounds, men would draw

¹Mayer, op. cit., 170-174.

from the same experiences the same beliefs about reality. This reality, however, is far more complicated than "common sense" would lead men to believe. In order to develop more plausible and consistent explanations of the world than those reached by common sense, mankind has evolved scholastic disciplines, which often contradict the conclusions of common sense. Education, in all civilized societies, is a process of initiating the young into these disciplines.

Conclusion. The difficulties of learning are inherent in the material to be learned. Any difficulties experienced in mastering an experimentally verified truth exist only because common sense has been misled by raw experience. Teaching, then, is the reorganizing of raw experience in such a way that the human mind will discover the usable patterns of thought called disciplines rather than the irrelevancies called common sense. The problems of improving education therefore consist of (1) developing "pedagogic models" (e.g., ripple tanks for wave motion in physics) that force the learner to reach the same conclusions about reality as the scientist; and (2) educating teachers in how to use these models in the classroom.

Goodlad¹ has discussed another conclusion inherent in the preceding syllogism: all students can eventually learn the same material; the "slow" learners will just take longer to learn a given item than the faster ones. Lest this infer that

¹John I. Goodlad, School Curriculum Reform in the United States, 61.

the schools should begin to try to teach nuclear physics to morons, it must be stated that a point is reached after which it is inexpedient and uneconomical to try to develop pedagogic models that will reach mentalities of a certain level.

Bruner's Theories

Bruner, also, has discussed the ". . . fundamental processes involved in imparting to young students a sense of the substance and method of science."¹ He said, first of all, that the primary objective of teaching must be to lead the student to a knowledge of the structure of the discipline under study.

Grasping the structure of a study is understanding it in a way that permits many other things to be related to it meaningfully. To learn structure, in short, is to learn how things are related.²

Such a knowledge of structure is vital not only because it makes learning a subject for the first time much more interesting and comprehensible, but also because it makes later learning easier, too, and greatly facilitates retention of what has been learned. Or as Bruner stated it, in part:

The curriculum of a subject should be determined by the most fundamental understanding that can be achieved of the underlying principles that give structure to that subject. Teaching specific topics or skills without making clear their context in the broader fundamental structure of a field of knowledge is uneconomical in several deep senses. In the first place, such teaching makes it exceedingly difficult for the student to

¹Jerome S. Bruner, The Process of Education, vii.

²Ibid., 7.

generalize from what he has learned to what he will encounter later. In the second place, learning that has fallen short of a grasp of general principles has little reward in terms of intellectual excitement. The best way to create interest in a subject is to render it worth knowing, which means to make the knowledge gained usable in one's thinking beyond the situation in which the learning has occurred. Third, knowledge one has acquired without sufficient structure to tie it together is knowledge that is likely to be forgotten. An unconnected set of facts has a pitifully short half-life in memory. Organizing facts in terms of principles and ideas from which they may be inferred is the only known way of reducing the quick rate of loss of human memory.¹

From this central principle there follows a corollary: the design of curricula must be carried out by men with the deepest understanding of the discipline involved, since they will be most qualified to determine what are the basic organizing principles of the field. Any successful curriculum reform, therefore, must enlist the services of the leading scholars in the particular field being revised.²

Bruner's second major point was that

. . . any idea can be represented honestly and usefully in the thought forms of children of school age, and . . . these first representations can later be made more powerful and precise the more easily by virtue of this early learning.³

Thus it is no longer necessary to delay the consideration of certain topics until the child is "ready" to handle them. The problem, rather, consists of designing lessons that fit the

¹Ibid., 31-32.

²Ibid., 32.

³Ibid., 33; Bruner's statement that ". . . any subject can be taught effectively in some intellectually honest form to any child at any stage of development" (Ibid.) is more often quoted, but the researcher thought the quotation used above was a more accurate expression of Bruner's thought.

thought patterns of children of different ages--i.e., teaching difficult mathematical topics to third- and fourth-graders by going through concrete operations instead of trying to explain it to them in formal verbalisms they obviously will not be able to grasp. A corollary of this second principle is the "spiral curriculum". This is a curriculum in which topics introduced in the lower grades are repeated in a broader and more sophisticated manner throughout the child's school career, each repetition being more complex by virtue of building on what was learned previously.¹

Bruner's third, and last, requirement for modern curriculum building was that the course work be designed to stress the role of intuition.

It is the very strong conviction of men who have been designing curricula, in mathematics and the sciences particularly, over the last several years that much more work is needed to discover how we may develop the intuitive gifts of our students from the earliest grades onwards.²

This is not to be interpreted to mean that students are to be encouraged to engage in ignorant guessing, but rather that students who are familiar with the material in the lesson are to be encouraged to "jump" to new ideas or approaches by intuitive means rather than by going through all the steps in scientific analysis. The analytic method will then be used to validate the answers, ideas, and approaches achieved by intuition. Apparently a process similar to the one just described

¹Ibid., 52-54.

²Ibid., 58-59.

is used by the best scientists and mathematicians on the frontiers of knowledge, and Bruner felt the curriculum should be designed to encourage it, from an early age.¹

Requirements of Zacharias and White

Zacharias and White, leaders of the famed Physical Science Study Committee, which developed the first "new science" program (in physics) have devised from that program a set of requirements for curriculum revision in other areas. These requirements, in contrast to those of a more theoretical nature given by Mayer and Bruner, stressed criteria of a more practical and organizational type. There are, said Zacharias and White, four distinct components in a program of curriculum revision:

- (a) the process of determining the precise boundaries of the educational unit that will be treated;
- (b) the process of identifying the subject-matter which is to be dealt with within that educational unit;
- (c) the embodiment of that subject-matter in material form, as text, laboratory, or classroom materials, and other learning aids;
- (d) the preparation of teachers on the new subject-matter and in the use of materials.²

An additional requirement, not part of this list, but certainly integral to the program, is that of "feedback" on the effectiveness of the materials designed and subsequent

¹Ibid., 55-68.

²Jerrold R. Zacharias and Stephen White, "Chapter 5: The Requirements for Major Curriculum Revision," New Curricula (ed. Robert W. Heath), 69.

revision.¹

In the area of financing, White and Zacharias stated that

costs in the United States are likely to run in the neighborhood of \$1 million per annum over a period of five years for any major program, and . . . a revision which relies heavily upon the preparation of motion pictures will find it necessary to spend at least half as much again.²

Finally they added that "the quality of revision is a reflection of the quality of those who carry it out; the mechanisms in themselves produce nothing of value."³

Summary of Criteria from the New Mathematics and Science Programs

From the foregoing discussion, the following points were set up as possible criteria for curriculum reform:

(1) the subject matter should be of such a nature as to permit different individuals studying the same data to reach similar conclusions;

(2) the subject matter should also permit the development of pedagogic models which will lead students to discover the truths of the discipline;

(3) teachers must be educated in the use of the materials they bring into the classroom;

(4) the primary aim of revision must be to lead the student to discover the "structure of the discipline";

¹Ibid., 76.

²Ibid., 80.

³Ibid., 77.

(5) the leading scholars of a discipline must be enlisted in the effort to reform the curriculum in that subject-matter field;

(6) intellectually sound material should be taught to even the youngest student; it is no longer necessary to consider "readiness" as a binding factor;

(7) revision should aim at the development of a spiral curriculum--i.e., one that is coordinated and articulated, repeating itself at higher levels on more complex terms;

(8) a new curriculum should be aimed at encouraging an intuitive grasp of the subject, and the use of "scientific" intuition;

(9) revision programs must have as their goal the development of materials to be used in the classroom;

(10) feedback or evaluation must be a constant feature of any revision program;

(11) programs must be of some length--at least five years in most cases; and

(12) large sums of money, in the neighborhood of \$1 million per year, are required.

Granted that fulfillment of these requirements would not guarantee a revision program with results similar to the new mathematics and science, these criteria nevertheless constituted a starting point for any successful program, and served as a useful measuring device.

DIFFICULTIES IN REFORM OF HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

For the purposes of analysis, this section was divided into three parts: difficulties arising from philosophical differences between history and the social sciences on the one hand, and mathematics and the natural sciences on the other; difficulties arising from lack of agreement on certain issues; and difficulties resulting from certain agreed-upon obstacles.

Differences in Nature of the Disciplines

There is a fundamental difference between the theoretical bases of history and the social sciences, and mathematics and the natural sciences. As Mayer stated it, the basic problem is that

when one must deal with words and deeds . . . rather than with meter readings and mathematical symbols, reality seems to be what can be found in the mind of the beholder. Asked the same good question, reality will give different answers from culture to culture or from time to time.¹

This implies that "prior learnings" will be more important than "the basic learning process" (discussed earlier) in determining what the individual sees when he looks at the world. Thus if the real world exists at least in part in the mind of the beholder, and human intelligence reacts to experience largely on the basis of varying prior learnings, then the difficulties of learning are largely inherent in the learner rather than in

¹Mayer, op. cit., 174.

the material to be learned. As a solution to this problem, some scientists, according to Mayer, will argue that if the child is caught young enough (in elementary school) the disparity among prior learnings can be controlled. Others would contend that the ideal pedagogic model can cut across prior learnings. Still others grant the difficulty involved in history and the social sciences, but insist that teaching must deal with only a finite and probably small number of erroneous prior learnings; therefore a manageable number of pedagogic models will have the effect of bringing all the pupils to the same "starting point". On the other hand, however, some social scientists fear that the differences introduced by prior learnings will be too various and too great to be controlled by analysis of the contact between students and material.¹

Further, this difference has implications concerning use of the inductive approach and analogy.

How far others can follow the mathematicians and scientists in adopting an inductive approach is still an open question. Induction or 'heuristic', as the mathematicians practice it, is a process of approximation. A child need not be told that his answers are right or wrong, because he can feed them back into the problem himself, see how they work out and hunt around for the reasons for error. [Problems in history and the social studies are usually not so self-contained.] The scientists, moreover, make heavy use of analogy, which is more complicated in its effects when the subject under consideration is less simple.² [Social problems are usually "less simple".]

¹Ibid., 175.

²Ibid., 176-177.

Evidence as to the vital nature of this philosophical difference accumulated rapidly. Zacharias and White concluded, in part, that

other disciplines, and particularly those within the social studies and the humanities, will prove far more difficult to handle, and will require even more exhaustive experimentation than physics or the other natural sciences.¹

Time magazine expressed the problem vividly:

. . . History is a can of worms; its truths tend to be value judgments, not physical facts. However much a superb teacher leads a student to true investigations, not timid indoctrination, the final conclusion is partly subjective.²

Turner continued along this line:

They [the American Council of Learned Societies] were not at all certain that a method of teaching which had been used effectively to introduce advanced mathematics in the elementary schools would achieve similar results with disciplines which rely heavily on verbal formulations.³

The last point is a key one; if young children are to deal with advanced topics, they must be able to grasp the material intuitively without becoming involved in verbalisms with which they are not prepared to deal. In mathematics, for example, third-graders are able to handle problems illustrating the commutative law, but would be lost if asked to handle the verbal expression of that law. In history and the social studies, on

¹Zacharias and White, op. cit., 80.

²"High Schools: A Burst of Reform," Time, 81:68, February 1, 1963.

³Gordon B. Turner, "Chapter 9: The American Council of Learned Societies and Curriculum Revision," New Curricula (ed. Robert W. Heath), 152.

the other hand, nearly the only way the grasp of a principle can be demonstrated is by verbal expression by the student.

A "Working Seminar on the Improvement of the Social Studies Curriculum" at Stanford in 1963 concluded that

Bruner's studies of concept attainment deal largely with the attainment of non-verbal concepts in a clinical environment. The translation of his findings into classroom handling of the verbal concepts which predominate in the social studies has not been made, and may not be possible.¹

Issues

The first area of disagreement among history and social studies curriculum reformers concerned whether reform is really necessary. It was possible to get agreement that the history and social studies curriculum follows the general pattern which was outlined in 1916 by the Committee on Social Studies of the National Education Association's Commission on Reorganization of Secondary Education.² But there agreement ended. Cummings

¹G. Wesley Sowards, A Working Seminar on the Improvement of the Social Studies Curriculum, 23.

²This basic pattern is as follows:

Seventh grade: No one course is standard for this grade. A general social studies course or a course in state history, government, and geography are most common.

Eighth grade: United States history.

Ninth grade: World geography or civics.

Tenth grade: World history.

Eleventh grade: United States history.

Twelfth grade: Problems of democracy or American government;

thought that "the present state of the social studies curriculum is not a cause for alarm."¹ He based this statement on the belief that changes have been made over the years within the existing framework--e.g., more recent history within the American history course, more non-European cultures in world history, and courses on Communism in Problems of Democracy. Bragdon agreed with Cummings, when he stated: ". . . There is nothing inherently wrong with this common pattern."² He would, though, change teaching methods within the pattern. The authoritative positions of Cummings and Bragdon notwithstanding (Cummings is a Social Science specialist for the United States Office of Education, and Bragdon is a Phillips Exeter Academy history instructor and textbook author), the researcher concluded that their viewpoint was by far in the minority. The majority of sources had statements similar to those of Carr:

The social studies curriculum is badly in need of examination and revision. This is a statement to which all but the most complacent of teachers will subscribe The

to a lesser extent: economics, sociology, or psychology.

Source: Howard H. Cummings, "Part One: The Social Studies in the Secondary School Today," Social Studies in the Senior High School (ed. Willis D. Moreland), 4-5.

Compare this pattern with the proposed New York City program shown in Appendix II, p. 81.

¹Cummings, op. cit., 5.

²Henry W. Bragdon, "A New Curricula in Social Studies with Emphasis on History," Revolution in Teaching (ed. Alfred de Grazia and David A. Sohn), 299.

social studies curriculum has on the whole been improved through . . . piecemeal-patchwork on an old garment. It is time to ask whether an inclusive and extensive national effort, comparable to that undertaken in the sciences and mathematics, is not in order.¹

The next area of disagreement (after that of the necessity of revision) was where to begin with the revision. Many authorities felt that no meaningful progress can be made until there is agreement on the goals to be achieved by the history and social studies curriculum.

Todd, as a spokesman for this group, said that "those who in the name of revision begin the job with exclusive concern for content are putting the cart before the horse."² The Stanford seminar, mentioned earlier, agreed that a high priority should be given to efforts to clarify goals. "Goals to be achieved," said the conference, "loom as a major determiner of almost all other matters"³ But an equally prestigious and vocal group, using the reform programs in the sciences and mathematics as an example, strongly disagreed with this first point of view. They pointed out that the successful new mathematics and science projects spent little time on goals and rather were most concerned with teaching their subject-matter well.

¹Edwin R. Carr, The Social Studies, 23.

²Lewis Paul Todd, "Afterword: Revising the Social Studies," The Social Studies and the Social Sciences (sponsored by the American Council of Learned Societies and the NCSS), 291.

³Sowards, A Working Seminar on the Improvement of the Social Studies Curriculum, 21.

Metcalf has well stated this position:

Because statements of purpose seem to have had no effect upon what teachers teach, or the way in which they teach, some reformers are now taking the position that purposes are unimportant, and that we ought to roll up our sleeves and seek improvement in courses without very much worry about our purposes. This is a healthy attitude to the extent that certain purposes are granted for the sake of working diligently on construction of the means necessary to their achievement.¹

Becker joined this group by stating,

. . . Instead of bogging down in the futile attempt to agree on over-all goals and philosophies, we [should] put together working projects composed of teachers and scholars who use their freedom to create new approaches and materials to fulfill their goals. From this effort in time will come the consensus needed for long range general change.²

A compromise approach to this issue was found in

Bruner's work:

In planning a curriculum, one properly distinguishes between the long-run objective one hopes to achieve and certain short-run steps that get one toward that objective. Those of a practical turn of mind are likely to say that little is served by stating long-term objectives unless one can propose short-run methods for their achievement. More idealistic critics may too readily dismiss short-run educational goals on the grounds that they cannot see where they lead. We are inclined to take a middle ground. While one benefits from clarity about the ends of education, it is often true we may discover or rediscover new ultimate objectives in the process of trying to reach more modest goals. Something of this order seems to have occurred in recent efforts to improve school curricula.³

¹Lawrence E. Metcalf, "Some Guidelines for Changing Social Studies Education," Social Education, 27:197, April, 1963.

²James M. Becker, "Prospects for Change in the Social Studies," Social Education, 29:31, January, 1965.

³Bruner, op. cit., 69.

If, for the sake of analysis only, the necessity of formulation of goals was granted, the next issue--and a lively one--was which goals to adopt. "It was evident from the beginning," said Turner, "that disagreement about the purposes that the social studies program is supposed to serve was going to present a major obstacle to curriculum reform."¹ One of the sharpest points of contention concerned "good civic behavior" as a goal. The National Council for the Social Studies has endorsed this statement: "The ultimate goal of education in the social studies is the development of desirable socio-civic and personal behavior."² A leading opponent of such a goal, Charles Keller, has said in part, "I insist that no discipline --or federation of subjects--should ever impose a pattern of behavior on anybody."³ He added that

students should learn how to think, to weigh evidence, to come to their own conclusions. They should understand things, not just know them. . . . Then they will develop attitudes for themselves; thus, we hope, they will become good citizens.⁴

A leading proponent of citizenship education, Samuel McCutchen, believed that

¹Turner, op. cit., 139.

²Jack Allen, et al., "The Role of the Social Studies," Social Education, 26:315, October, 1962.

³Charles Keller, addressing the New England Area History Conference, Regis College, Weston, Massachusetts, October 17, 1964; quoted in Gibson, op. cit., 11.

⁴Ibid., 11-12.

unless we can focus sharply and successfully and demonstrate that we can really develop civic competence, our place in the school curriculum--our percentage of student time--is sure to diminish.¹

On the other side, Mayer thought that ". . . as a practical matter, 'citizenship' is a hopeless goal for instruction. Any stupidity can be defended as helping to promote it."² But, in Gibson's opinion,

. . . "good citizens" do not necessarily result from absorption of knowledge and skills. The content, understanding, skills, and values which emerge from the social studies curriculum must be directed toward some higher, behavioral goal, which, in the writer's opinion, should be patterns of responsible and effective behavior.³

Again, on the opposite side, a report on Robert Feldmesser's sociology curriculum reform project stated that "attitudinal or behavioral changes have been explicitly rejected as goals" for the project.⁴ Other differences over goals appeared to be variations on this same theme of behavioral objectives versus cognitive objectives.

A fourth major area of disagreement in history and social studies curriculum revision was what Scholastic Teacher called "the basic issue in curriculum planning":⁵ the

¹Samuel P. McCutchen, "A Discipline for the Social Studies," Social Education, 27:65, February, 1963.

²Mayer, op. cit., 99.

³Gibson, op. cit., 12.

⁴Quoted in Curriculum Service Center/NASSP, "Who is Working on What?" Curriculum Report, 3:12, March, 1965.

⁵"Social Studies Revision," Scholastic Teacher, 45:2T, October 21, 1964.

divergence between those who favor the traditional approach, with the social studies centered on history, and those who wish to emphasize the behavioral sciences. Another aspect of this divergence is the "separate-discipline approach" versus the "integrated approach." Fraser has summarized the issue here:

Social studies are a federation of seven academic disciplines, but this federation is frequently a reluctant one, to believe many of the spokesmen for the separate disciplines. School programs continue to draw heavily on the traditional fields of history, geography, and political science although an occasional historian can be heard muttering about withdrawing to join the humanities. But economics and sociology are asking for and getting more attention, while anthropology and psychology are coming strongly into the picture. Some observers fear that the battle among the several social sciences for places in the curriculum has only begun, and that this fight will be no more civilizing than war ever is.

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Some believe and proclaim forcefully that the integrity and usefulness of each contributing discipline can be preserved and its insights understood only if its content is studied within the framework peculiar to that field of knowledge. Others contend equally strongly that an interdisciplinary design should be used, a design that is problem-centered and draws data and concepts as they are pertinent from all the social sciences. The proponents of an interdisciplinary approach also argue that the amount of school time that can be devoted to social studies makes it impossible for a student to study significantly from each of the seven fields when they are presented in separate-subject format.¹

With this overview in mind, the researcher found that a detailed consideration of the various viewpoints in this difficulty was indicative at least of the extent of differences involved. "In the strongest possible terms," said the sociologist Feldmesser, "we shall make no progress in transforming the social studies

¹Fraser, op. cit., 2-3.

into social science until we slaughter the sacred cow of history."¹ On the other side, Mayer commented that

the 'study of society by the scientific method,' however (resting as it does on faulty extrapolations of erroneous perceptions of data gathered without criteria of significance), is no more defensible than current events as a school subject.²

Patterson, a political scientist, was forced to agree:

Today, the social sciences seen from the middle distance seem extraordinarily diverse, sprawling, complex, and often either portentously tentative about the obvious, or given, as Ann Roe once said, to better and better research designs about matters of less and less importance. As an influence upon the schools, they are handicapped by their lack of anything resembling a unified body of social science theory.³

The seminar at Stanford in 1963 seemed to spend more time haggling over the issue of the "integratedness versus separateness" than any other. The chairman of the seminar, in the very first session, was questioned about his differentiation of the social sciences and history. In reply, he called attention to " . . . the specific way in which the National Science Foundation excluded history from the list of social

¹Report, Conference of the Social Studies and Humanities Curriculum Program, at Endicott House of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Dedham, Massachusetts, June 9-23, 1962; quoted in Franklin Patterson, "Social Science and the New Curriculum," Revolution in Teaching (ed. Alfred de Grazia and David A. Sohn), 290.

²Mayer, op. cit., 134-135.

³Patterson, op. cit., 289-290.

science disciplines it could and would support financially."¹

A professional historian in the group noted that the Social Science Research Council includes history in its listings.

Mention was also made, on the other hand, that the new national Commission on the Humanities apparently intends to embark upon projects in the social studies area. Then, according to the report,

this led to considerable discussion of the extent to which boundaries are important and necessary within knowledge. Some took the position that they would prefer to see the lines between areas of knowledge in the social sciences lessened, with at least one speaking out strongly for more concern over the essential unity of all knowledge and for attention to the relation of social science to natural science. Others felt that to diminish the lines of separation in the social sciences at this time would obscure some important aspects of social knowledge and would thus not be a wise thing. This seemed to lead to an acceptance by the group of some boundaries as being necessary and desirable at the scholar's level, but brought up questions of the importance of this separateness in elementary and secondary schools. More specifically, there was discussion to the point of using all, or at least many, different social disciplines in relation to the study of important social matters. Questioning centered on the extent to which an attempt should be made to develop an amalgam of these when several were used, or the extent to which the integrity of each must be kept in mind and their boundaries made evident.²

Later, the seminar raised questions, without answering them, as to whether or not the "structure" idea was workable in the social studies field. The report on the conference continued: "By this time the matter of 'amalgam' or 'separateness' was

¹Sowards, A Working Seminar on the Improvement of the Social Studies Curriculum, 6.

²Ibid., 6-7.

seen as a real issue."¹ Another faculty seminar was referred to at this point. It was noted that in the other seminar the "uniqueness" of the several separate social sciences did not become obvious until the group addressed itself to a problem. Then the several ways of viewing the problem, each related to one of the disciplines, would become visible.² Finally, the Stanford report said, "there was some tendency to agree with the spirit of the 'do less but do it well' point of view but some questioning as to how the 'less' which is to be dealt with is to be selected."³

This is a key conclusion. The use of interdisciplinary "concepts" or "generalizations" was mentioned often as a means of integrating the curriculum. This may be a more difficult task than expected. As Fraser pointed out, there are two "unresolved questions": "Whose set of concepts, generalizations, and ideas is to be selected . . . ? By whom is the selection to be made?"⁴ In this regard, Kaltsounis,⁵ in 1964, surveyed fourteen professors representing all of the social sciences, asking them to identify five basic principles of social science. Only one principle, the idea that human beings are social creatures, was listed by as many as three professors.

¹Ibid., 7.

²Ibid., 15.

³Ibid., 18.

⁴Fraser, op. cit., 4.

⁵Theodore Kaltsounis, "Current Basic Principles in Social Sciences," Education, 84:274-279, January, 1964; reported in Sylvia E. Harrison and Robert J. Solomon, "Review of Research in the Teaching of Social Studies: 1964," Social Education, 29:282, May, 1965.

Most of the professors limited their lists of principles to their own fields.

Lewis Paul Todd, editor of Social Education, has argued aloquently for an integrated approach.

We only compound the confusion we are in when we assume that we can begin to grope back toward reality merely by acquiring a better understanding of economics, political science, sociology, and the other disciplines of the social and natural sciences. The whole is greater than the sum of its parts, and we will get no place with revision if we do not understand that this is true. The understanding we seek of ourselves and our fellowmen is not to be found in the separate disciplines, taken singly or collectively. It is to be found, if at all, in those areas of knowledge where the special fields of research impinge one upon another¹

But Griffin, by means of a close analysis of the structure of the natural sciences, has pointed out again the difficulty of integrating history and the various social sciences. He said:

The point worth emphasizing is that physics, chemistry, and astronomy were not "brought together" by the fiat of curriculum-makers; they came together when they had reached the level of abstraction at which "explanations" in one field were seen to clear up and remove the contradictions, evasions, or inadequacies in the content of another field.

It seems to me quite reasonable to hope that something of the same sort may happen--in time--in the social sciences. If and when it does, the work of constructing a curriculum will be greatly facilitated as will many other things. . . . In my judgment we are almost sure to find that we must reverse our premature effort to combine content "drawn from" such widely divergent disciplines as history, economics, sociology, government, social psychology, anthropology, and geography into a viable school subject; that we have confused sheer syncretism with synthesis; and that we cannot hope to "teach children to see relationships" by combining a largely arbitrary

¹/Lewis Paul Todd, "Editor's Page: the Seamless Web," Social Education, 27:204, April, 1963.

selection of content from many apparently unrelated sources, labeling the melange "unified," and hoping that pupils can be enticed somehow to swallow it all in one great gulp.¹

An often-suggested solution to this difficulty is for more integration at the lower school levels, less at higher.

Sutherland, however, in his analysis of structure in the history curriculum, presented a reverse thesis:

I feel that the child must learn the structures of these disciplines before he attempts to solve problems which by their very complexity are far beyond his limited competence. . . . I think we must leave the integration for the final year or two of the high school and to the university.²

In summary, it was manifestly evident that the issue of amalgam versus separateness and the related problem of which separate disciplines to include in the curriculum is indeed a major one.

The last issue in history and social science curriculum revision concerned the development of a national curriculum and a national center to promote it. Todd pointed out that one out of every five Americans moves every year, thus making necessary nation-wide agreement at least as to what should be taught at each grade level.³ Carr discussed this issue in some detail:

Americans have become highly mobile, and a large fraction of our people change residence each year. Many children

¹Alan Griffin, "Revising the Social Studies," Social Education, 27:296-297, October, 1963.

²Neil Sutherland, "Structure in the History Curriculum," Social Education, 26:140, March, 1962.

³Todd, "Afterword: Revising the Social Studies," The Social Studies and the Social Sciences, 299.

change schools a half-dozen times or more before they graduate from high school, if they ever do graduate. This seems to call for more uniformity throughout the country, not only in over-all content. Many educators agree. But others react to this suggestion with dismay; they anticipate a highly structured, rigidly prescriptive curriculum as the end product of any attempts at uniformity. Others believe that it is possible to structure a nationwide program within which teachers in local schools can make desirable adaptations.¹

Anderson,² Todd,³ Gibson,⁴ Ianni,⁵ and some members of the Stanford conference⁶ all called for a national curriculum center to serve at least as a clearing house for information on revision, and at most as a center of direction. A reply came from one of the members of the Stanford conference:

" . . . Our society would not support any single national center, and . . . too much reliance should not be put on the development of such a center."⁷ Ianni, head of the United States Office of Education's research division, felt, naturally

¹Carr, op. cit., 31.

²Howard R. Anderson, address given at the 1961 convention of the National Council for the Social Studies; quoted in Todd, "Afterword: Revising the Social Studies," The Social Studies and the Social Sciences, 301.

³Todd, "Afterword: Revising the Social Studies," The Social Studies and the Social Sciences, 301-303.

⁴Gibson, op. cit., 3.

⁵Francis A. J. Ianni, "Chapter 10: The Curriculum Research and Development Program of the U.S. Office of Education: Project English, Project Social Studies, and Beyond," New Curricula (ed. Robert W. Heath), 198.

⁶Sowards, A Working Seminar on the Improvement of the Social Studies Curriculum, 14-15.

⁷Ibid., 18.

enough, that the Office of Education should perform the national clearing-house role.¹

Obstacles

Besides the issues just discussed, several obstacles to history and social studies curriculum revision were often mentioned in the literature surveyed. Some of them may prove to be more difficult to solve than the issues, but the problem here was one of removing the obstacles, rather than resolving different points of view.

The first obstacle was what Scholastic Teacher called "the active public interest in what is being taught in this field."² The paper continued:

While the man in the street may not understand developments in other fields--math [sic], physics, etc.--he does have specific expectations in social studies--particularly the teaching of U. S. history, government, and economic system, and the role of the U. S. in the world today.³

Turner was another authority who noted that history and the social sciences " . . . must deal with sensitive issues of political, social, and economic policy."⁴ He added, in part, that

¹Ianni, op. cit., 199.

²"Social Studies Revision," Scholastic Teacher, 45:3T, October 21, 1964.

³Ibid.

⁴Turner, op. cit., 144.

some of the social sciences present problems unknown to the more impersonal disciplines. A child may, for example, unduly personalize matters that are presented in sociology or psychology or he may make direct applications to himself and to his environment that are unjustified.¹

Bragdon quoted Feldmesser as conceding that ". . . scientific objectivity may seem to the layman and the school child like the abdication of ethical standards."² The Stanford conference agreed that "studies are needed concerned with the emotional block to the learning of concepts in the social studies."³ The conference explained:

It would appear that knowledge from the social sciences has difficulty in gaining ascendance over the 'common sense' of the learner. . . . there is a tendency for individuals to reject out-of-hand content that seems to insult or attack their personal belief structure.⁴

While admitting the problem involved here, Becker believed that

the protests about social studies by pressure groups and the lunatic fringe seem to indicate the social studies curriculum "does matter"--that what kids learn in school about the subjects of social science inquiry directly affects for good or ill, the kind of people they will be.⁵

He went on to state that the time has given the physical sciences greater freedom of inquiry, and that perhaps the same will happen to social studies.⁶

A second obstacle to reform concerned the restrictions of state laws. Carr has discussed the problem here, also.

¹Ibid.

²Bragdon, op. cit., 300.

³Sowards, A Working Seminar on the Improvement of the Social Studies, 23.

⁴Ibid.

⁵Becker, op. cit., 21.

⁶Ibid.

Proscriptions throw the curriculum out of balance, expending too much time and effort on one area at the expense of others. When certain topics are required to be taught at particular grade levels or for particular periods of time, they prevent the development of a logical course of study. Almost invariably these requirements introduce an element of rigidity into the curriculum which makes it less responsive to social change and causes it to become an obstacle in the path of curriculum revision. More than one state curriculum revision program in the social studies enthusiastically begun and conscientiously formulated and planned has failed because of the restrictive legal framework within which the revision had to be carried out.¹

A third hindrance to reform, and perhaps the most difficult of all, was that of teacher knowledge, abilities, and skills.

With notable exceptions that prove the rule, school teachers in the social studies are not characteristically well prepared even in history or the older social sciences (e.g., economics, geography), to say nothing of the newer fields. Nor do the extreme pressures of day-to-day teaching allow them time in which to read or study to raise their level of scholarly competence, assuming that motivation to do so might be present. By their lack of broad or special preparation in the disciplines and their demolishing schedules, social studies teachers are driven to the easy way out: reliance on a standardized text in history or civics for most of what they try to teach. To expect such hard-pressed people to innovate, especially in a curriculum area as sensitive and inchoate as the "new social studies," would be naive.²

Becker agreed that the level and content of teacher education remains one of the strongest brakes on curriculum reform.³ Further, the report of the Stanford conference stated that "this group would like to call attention to the cruciality of

¹Carr, op. cit., 26-27.

²Patterson, op. cit., 291.

³Becker, op. cit., 22.

teacher education in this whole matter of improvement in the social studies."¹ Mayer indicated the magnitude of the problem involved here when he said,

Reform of secondary instruction and teacher training presupposes at some point in time the reform of the colleges, on the average, despite great improvement during the last decade, the weakest section of the American educational effort.²

Goodlad concurred:

The most pressing need for curriculum reform today is in the four-year college. . . . Such a revolution, decades overdue, will ultimately have a far greater impact on the quality of teachers and the quality of instruction they will provide in pre-collegiate schools than all the tinkering with certification requirements now going on in state capitols. The primary cause of inadequate teacher preparation and the pre-collegiate education dependent upon it is a badly fragmented collegiate curriculum which tosses together the significant and the trivial, fails to give its students a meaningful view of education, and does not teach its graduates the self-renewing quest for knowledge.³

Sowards joined the group with his remark, " . . . It is clear that curriculum improvement and teacher improvement are literally inseparable."⁴ In response to a proposed curriculum centered on anthropology, Mendenhall pointed out that

present courses and personnel must be taken into account. A too precipitate introduction of an anthropological framework might well prove a catastrophe. To the extent that the basic organization of most secondary school courses, as well as the training of their teachers, is

¹Sowards, A Working Seminar on the Improvement of the Social Studies, 24.

²Mayer, op. cit., 181.

³Goodlad, op. cit., 72-73.

⁴Sowards, "A Re-Vitalized Social Studies Curriculum," Education Forum, 28:266, March, 1964.

still essentially historical, perhaps a first step should be to slowly broaden this historical foundation.¹

This same comment could be made about many other proposals for a revised curriculum with a non-historical theme.

The next three obstacles to reform were, for the purpose of this paper, considered together. One concerned the lack of leadership. Hunt observed that since we have no national ministry of education to establish practices and courses, this task has fallen on state departments of education, and they have followed rather than led.² Goodlad agreed when he said that "efforts by state departments to clarify their proper function in curricular development and to formulate guidelines for local school districts are long overdue."³ Another brake on reform was listed by Hunt: authors and publishers are, for financial reasons, reluctant to invest in the publication of experimental or controversial materials.⁴ To illustrate his point, he noted that university scholars, foundations, and special interest groups (rather than publishers) have taken the initiative by subsidizing the study of neglected areas and the publication of needed resources--e.g., the World War II

¹Thomas C. Mendenhall, "Social Studies, History, and the Secondary School," Social Education, 27:204, April, 1963.

²Erling M. Hunt, "Changing Perspectives in the Social Studies," High School Social Studies Perspectives (Erling M. Hunt et al.), 7.

³Goodlad, op. cit., 8.

⁴Hunt, op. cit., 80.

publications of the Institute of Pacific Relations, about Japan.¹ And finally, Hunt pointed out college-entrance requirements as a check on change.²

There was one last obstacle, largely eliminated in the period 1960-1965, but still worthy of mention: financing. Todd,³ Goodlad,⁴ and Bruner⁵ all expressed considerable concern that history and the social sciences, in addition to those disciplines known as humanities, were being neglected in favor of the natural sciences. The new National Defense Education Act, passed in October, 1964, served to eliminate much of this worry by granting federal funds for the humanities and social sciences.⁶ The monies appropriated under this Act for Project Social Studies have fallen considerably short of the minimums listed by Zacharias and White, but since this precedent was established, financing is no longer a concern of the first importance.

¹Ibid., 7, and footnote on 8.

²Ibid., 8.

³Todd, "Afterword: Revising the Social Studies," The Social Studies and the Social Sciences, 287-288.

⁴Goodlad, op. cit., 77.

⁵Bruner, op. cit., 78-79.

⁶"Curriculum Revision Projects: English and the Social Studies," Scholastic Teacher, 46:14T, February 18, 1965.

PROJECT SOCIAL STUDIES AS A MEANS OF REFORM

One possible means of finding solutions to the issues and obstacles just discussed is Project Social Studies, begun by United States Office of Education in 1962, under its Cooperative Research Program.¹

Activities of Project Social Studies²

The Project has three types of activities: (1) the establishment of curriculum centers, in which new materials, methods, and techniques are to be worked out; (2) the establishment of research projects, through which basic and applied research in the social studies will be carried on; and (3) the stimulation of developmental activities, designed to cover a wide range of social studies undertakings.³ Activities in group three include such things as the financing of seminars, the Stanford seminar discussed earlier being one of them. The most visible aspects of Project Social Studies are the twelve

¹"Project Social Studies: A Search for Goals," Everyweek Teacher, 29:101, March 26, 1965.

²Now known officially as the United States Office of Education Programs for English and the Social Studies ("Curriculum Revision Projects: English and the Social Studies," Scholastic Teacher, 46:14T, February 18, 1965); for the purpose of this paper, the more common term "Project Social Studies" was used.

³Carr, op. cit., 42.

curriculum projects that have been set up, beginning in April, 1963.¹

Generalizations Concerning Project Social Studies Curriculum Centers²

Extent of national control. Except that members of government committees receiving applications for funds have the power to report or approve proposals, no one in government has attempted to dictate or direct the specific nature of proposals for projects. Decisions about what to do and how to do it have been left in the hands of the directors of Project Social Studies centers. This procedure and the fact that a large number of centers undertaking somewhat similar projects have been established help to assure that no single national curriculum dictated by a small group of persons can develop from these activities. This lack of centralized control became more evident when the researcher tried to find a pattern for ordering the projects in Table I (on the following pages). The only pattern he could set up was as follows: the first two projects in Table I are concerned with the development of a sequential curriculum; the next with a curriculum for able students; next,

¹"Project Social Studies: A Search for Goals," Everyweek Teacher, 29:101, March 26, 1965.

²Rather than engage in excessive citation, the researcher thought it best to state that the generalizations made on the following pages were derived from Table I and the sources listed in Appendix IV, p. 87. Therefore only direct quotations were footnoted in the remainder of this section.

TABLE I

A SUMMARY OF CURRICULUM PROJECTS IN PROJECT
SOCIAL STUDIES, APRIL, 1965¹

Name of project	Location	Director or co- director	Purpose
Preparation and Evaluation of Social Studies Curriculum Guides and Material for Grades K-14	University of Minnesota	Edith West	To prepare teachers' guides for grades K-14, a complete set of resource units for grades K-12, and sample instructional materials
The First Three Courses in a Sequential Social Studies Program for the Secondary School	University of Illinois	Ella C. Leppert	To develop and disseminate in public schools the first three courses in a sequential junior-senior high program
High School Social Studies Curriculum for Able Students	Carnegie Institute of Technology	Edwin A. Fenton and John M. Good	To develop an entire set of original materials for students with recommended procedures for teaching them throughout the high school years
A Jurisprudential and Social Sci- ence Curriculum for Grades 8-10 Focusing on the Analysis of Controversial Public Issues	Harvard University	Donald W. Oliver	To train students to examine and analyze, through discussion and argument the kinds of disputes that give birth to conflict

¹Sources of data used in construction of Table I: see
Appendix IV, p. 87.

TABLE I (continued)

Name of project	Location	Director or co-directors	Purpose
Identification of Major Concepts from the Social Sciences, Development of Materials and Techniques for Teaching Them, and Evaluation of Their Applicability and Utility in Grades V, VII, and XI	Syracuse University	Roy A. Price	(1) To identify the major concepts from the social sciences and allied disciplines (2) To examine the major workways of these disciplines (3) To develop and evaluate at three grade levels illustrative materials for use by teachers and students that effectively translate the concepts and workways into classroom practice
New Approaches to and Materials for Sequential Curriculum on American Society, Grades 5-12	Northwestern University	John R. Lee	To integrate concepts from the social sciences into the study of American history in grades 5, 8, and 11
History and Social Studies Curriculum Materials: Average Terminal, College Bound and Adults	Amherst College	Van R. Halsey and Richard H. Brown	To develop, test, and make available to teachers source material units for use in possible new approaches to the teaching of American history at the junior and senior high school levels and for adult education

TABLE I (continued)

Name of project	Location	Director or co- directors	Purpose
A Sequential Curriculum in Anthropology for Grades 1-7	University of Georgia	Marion J. Rice and Wilfred C. Bailey	To develop instructional material in anthropology for pupil and teacher use in grades 1-7
Preparation of Teaching Guides and Materials on Asian Countries for Grades I-XII	University of California at Berkeley	John U. Michaelis	To develop curriculum guides and materials which would lead to more effective programs for teaching about Asian countries, peoples, and cultures in elementary and secondary schools
Development of Economics Curriculum Materials for Secondary Schools	Ohio State University	James P. Shaver	To prepare a semester course for secondary school students based upon economics as a discipline
Development and Evaluation of a 12th Grade Course in the Principles of Economics	San Jose State College	John G. Sperling and Suzanne E. Wiggins	To develop a one-semester course in economics for the 12th grade
The Development of a Basic Social Science Course for Undergraduate Students in the Natural Sciences and Engineering	Massachusetts Institute of Technology	Daniel Lerner	To design a social science course for college students whose professional careers will be in natural sciences and engineering

a curriculum for analysis of controversy; the following two with concepts; the next with original source material; next, materials for anthropology; the next with materials on Asia; the following two with economics materials; and the last, with a college social science curriculum for engineering and science students. By attacking on a broad front and from many different approaches at the same time, Project Social Studies apparently has tried to avoid becoming involved in resolving directly the issues discussed earlier.

Organization of the projects. From Table I it can readily be seen that each of the twelve centers is located in a university. Further (though not stated in the table), each is headed by a university professor; in one instance (the Anthropology Project at the University of Georgia) a high school teacher is co-director. Most of the twelve projects include four groups of people on their staffs: scholars from subject departments, experts in learning theory, practicing high school teachers, and psychometricians responsible for assessing the effectiveness of the project.

Relation of centers to new research. Fenton and Good pointed out that a working team along the lines just described is capable of producing materials that are up-to-date or at the forefront of research. "If arrangements can be made to hasten publication," they said, "the new social studies, like the new math and science, will represent the latest and best

work of some of the nation's foremost scholars.¹

Emphasis on structure and inductive teaching. With the single exception of Donald Oliver's project at Harvard, each of the projects seeks to identify the structure of social science disciplines or to build a curriculum around social science concepts. Thus far, however, no consensus about structure has emerged. Some groups seem to identify the term with generalizations drawn from the social sciences, others use the terms structure and concepts interchangeably; some imply structure is synonymous with the social scientist's mode of inquiry. In the matter of encouraging inductive learning rather than memorization of pre-digested generalizations, most of the projects attempt to promote such learning by stressing a variety of materials, instead of textbooks.

Emphasis upon the disciplines. With the exception, again, of Oliver's project at Harvard, all of the projects in Table I intend to teach generalizations and concepts drawn from the disciplines of history and the social sciences. In the courses which are being designed, students will organize knowledge as historians, geographers, political scientists, and so on organize it. Two projects--those at Syracuse and Northwestern--are primarily devoted to identifying generalizations from the disciplines and to arranging them in sequential order for teaching. All of them have scholars on their staffs, one

¹Edwin A. Fenton and John M. Good, "Project Social Studies: A Progress Report," Social Education, 29:207, April, 1965.

of whose major functions is to identify the most significant parts of their disciplines. These same scholars or other members of the staff then incorporate the ideas which have been identified into materials suitable for inductive teaching at various grade levels. The emphasis upon disciplines, however, does not mean that the projects intend to base each course exclusively upon one discipline. On the contrary, a study of their purposes as stated in Table I, indicated that many of them hope at the same time to integrate materials and techniques from the various disciplines within each course they write.

Emphasis upon sequential learning. "Sequence" is a term often used in Table I. Each of the projects makes an effort to build each course securely upon what students already know. Each project has tried to develop a hierarchy of learning to be taught in sequence beginning with the simple and moving toward the more sophisticated. This arrangement takes place within individual courses, and in the Minnesota center, for the entire curriculum from the kindergarten through the sophomore year of college. Several directors are also concentrating their attention on devices to eliminate unnecessary repetition which has sometimes crept into cyclical curricula.

Types of materials being produced. From a study of the purposes listed in Table I, it is evident that every project is engaged in the production of materials. The majority of projects embraced a multi-media approach to learning and have

produced specific audio-visual aids for specific purposes in specific lessons. Some materials are designed to supplement work in traditional texts and can be useful for a week or so in a course. Others cover an entire year's work or work for as much as three or four years. They consist of readings, games, films, filmstrips, tape recordings, transparencies for the overhead projector, and other audio-visual aids.

New subject emphases. It is evident from Table I and descriptive materials that there is increased emphasis upon knowledge and methods from anthropology, sociology, and economics as an addition to the traditional group of history, geography, and political science.

Aid to teachers. Each project recognized its responsibility to help the teachers learn to manage the new materials which are being developed. The materials are tested in the classroom and revised in the light of problems that have developed from their use. Some groups have even written daily lesson plans to indicate clearly what the writers of particular materials think might best be done with them.

Evaluation. Each of the twelve Project Social Studies centers has a psychometrician on its staff to evaluate its work. Most groups try out their materials on experimental classes and test their results against control groups in the same schools. At several centers, testers are developing new evaluating instruments designed to assess the ability to reach objectives not covered by traditional examinations.

Publication and availability. None of the materials produced by the Project Social Studies centers are yet available to the schools. No arrangements have been made for publication nor has a policy been established by the government. Several committees have wrestled with the publication problem for three years, and innumerable meetings devoted to weighing the interests of the four major groups involved--the public, universities, the authors, and the publishers--have taken place. The Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (in which the Office of Education is located) expects to establish a policy in the near future.

Summary

To summarize the curriculum projects in Project Social Studies: there appeared to be an absence of central control; a significant number of scholars from the disciplines of history and the social sciences seemed to be involved; structure, inductive teaching, sequential learning, the approach to learning of the various disciplines, and integration of the disciplines were emphasized; all projects aimed at production of many types of materials for classroom use; the social sciences were given more attention than previously; every project was engaged in evaluation; and publication of Project Social Studies materials remained a problem.

OTHER PROJECTS AND NEW TECHNIQUES AS A MEANS OF REFORM

Since there are some forty projects listed in Appendix I (page 77), and only twelve of them were discussed in the last section, it was obvious that a significant portion of revision of the history and social studies curriculum is being done by groups outside Project Social Studies. This section will attempt to discuss some of those other projects, although it is highly possible that some important projects will be overlooked, since "new programs appear as unexpectedly as asparagus shoots in a spring garden."¹

Local Programs

According to Fraser² practically all of the 437 school systems quizzed in the fall of 1964 by the National Council for the Social Studies said that they had continuing revision activities under way. Some of the more extensive and ambitious include New York (see Appendix II, p. 81), Cleveland, Detroit,

¹Curriculum Service Center/NASSP, "The Proper Study of Mankind: Some Inductions Regarding Changes in the Social Studies," Curriculum Report, 3:7, March, 1965.

²Fraser, op. cit., 2; after the present page, the same footnoting procedure was followed in this section as in the previous one. Sources for the data in this section were as follows: Gibson, op. cit., 16-99; Goodlad, op. cit., 42-46; Curriculum Service Center/NASSP, "Who is Working on What?" Curriculum Report, 3:8-12, March, 1965; and "Curriculum Revision Projects: English and the Social Studies," Scholastic Teacher, 46:14T-19T, February 18, 1965.

St. Paul, Oakland, California, Ann Arbor, Michigan, and Providence, Rhode Island. For example, the Greater Cleveland Social Science Program, under the sponsorship of the Education Research Council of Greater Cleveland and the direction of Raymond English, hopes to develop a curriculum for students from kindergarten through the twelfth grades which will recognize the ideas and generalizations from all social science disciplines, carrying them along sequentially from year to year as well as articulating them at each level.

Independent Depth Projects

A. Basic Concepts in History, Amherst College; chairman: Edwin Rozwenc. With high school teachers as collaborating authors, the Amherst faculty are writing a series of volumes designed to "lead students to discover the organizing power of the concepts the historian employs."¹

B. Anthropology Curriculum Project, Chicago, Illinois; chairman: Malcolm Collier. Financed by the National Science Foundation, this group aims to produce materials for use in already existing courses rather than for a separate anthropology course. Early units have included such items as detailed descriptions of actual situations, culled from the field notes of professional anthropologists.

¹Curriculum Service Center/NASSP, "Who is Working on What?" Curriculum Report, 3:8, March, 1965.

C. Secondary School Project, Eagleton Institute of Politics, Rutgers; chairman: Donald Riddle. Its efforts so far have been aimed at the production of materials for the Problems of Democracy course.

D. Civic Education Project, American Heritage Foundation, New York; chairman: Henry Toy. Known officially as the Joint Committees on Civic Education, this project is sponsored by the American Heritage Foundation, supported by the Danforth Foundation, and carried out by the Lincoln Filene Center at Tufts, with the cooperation of the University of California at Los Angeles, the University of Michigan, and the National Council for the Social Studies. Activities include surveying and publishing effective civics materials already in existence as well as new materials; relating materials on due process of law and political behavior to civics education programs; and opinion sampling of 1,800 students to determine the political nature and thinking of the American high school senior.

E. High School Geography Project, Montana State College, Bozeman; chairman: Nicholas Helburn. In place of cooperating teachers, using provisional editions of new materials (the standard procedure for revision projects), there have been experimenting teachers in grades nine through twelve, devoting nearly all of their time to the development and presentation of one-year geography courses. These courses differ greatly in content but attempt to fulfill general objectives outlined by project headquarters. Each of the ten experimenting teachers has been teamed with a professional geographer, and each team,

in turn, has maintained communication with headquarters through correspondence with--and visitations from--members of the central staff.

F. World History Project, Northwestern University; chairman: L. S. Stavrianos. This is one of the oldest revision projects, having begun in 1958. It has so far produced a world history text and an accompanying book of readings, plus operating summer workshops for teachers. The materials are aimed at producing a genuinely global course rather than the usual West-oriented one.

G. Foreign Relations Project, North Central Association, Chicago; chairman: James Becker. Since its start in 1955 the Project has developed an extensive list of units--the Foreign Relations Series--concise studies of United States foreign policy problems; has sponsored many conferences and workshops; and has provided consultant services to teachers and school systems throughout the country. All of these activities are part of a continuing effort to stimulate interest in foreign policy and to promote instruction in foreign relations in the schools.

H. Sociological Resources for Secondary Schools, Dartmouth; chairman: Robert Feldmesser. Two series of materials are to be produced: one for use as the base for a senior high school sociology course, the other for supplementary use in other courses. In both cases the units will be self-contained. "The object of these units is to convey a cognitive understanding of the field of sociology. Attitudinal or behavioral

changes have been explicitly rejected as goals."¹

I. Economic Education Activities, Joint Council on Economic Education; chairman: M. L. Frankel. The Joint Council has brought about the production of a wide variety of materials for all grade levels, diverse audio-visuals, and a teacher-training program, and has provided clearinghouse services for economics teachers. These activities have been brought to bear on eleven large school systems in 1964, and twenty-four other school systems will be added in 1965 and 1966. In all of these system-wide projects, seasoned economists are working with administrators and teachers in implementing the many facets of quality economic education.

J. Economic Literary Series, Council for the Advancement of Secondary Education (CASE); chairman: Galen Jones. Established under the sponsorship of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, CASE initiated a program of research and preparation of materials to improve the teaching of economics in high school. A pair of research studies were carried out to establish priorities among the economic concepts that should be covered in secondary school social studies courses. On the basis of the studies, the CASE Economic Literacy Series of five student texts was published. The Series is designed to provide a comprehensive program of economic education. The texts may be used as text materials for a course in

¹Curriculum Service Center/NASSP, "Who Is Working on What?" Curriculum Report, 3:12, March, 1965.

economics or the core for units of studies in other high school social studies courses.

K. Curriculum Development in the Social Studies, Educational Services, Incorporated, Cambridge, Massachusetts; chairman: Elting E. Morison. The corporation set up to market the "new science" programs has now turned its attention to history and the social studies. The team composed of Jerome Bruner, psychologist, Harvard; Elting Morison, historian, M.I.T.; George C. Homans, sociologist, Harvard; and Franklin Patterson, political scientist, Tufts will attempt to prepare a completely revised social studies curriculum for the entire elementary-secondary school span, and one "which will involve an integration of the various disciplines."¹

State Projects

Along with several other states, Minnesota, Wisconsin, Oregon, and Indiana are engaged in state-wide social studies curriculum projects. A notable aspect of the Oregon program is its provision for pre-evaluation of the current social studies program before embarking upon any major revision.

Consortia

There are a number of consortia (groupings of school systems or university specialists) concerned with history and

¹Curriculum Service Center/NASSP, "Who Is Working on What?" Curriculum Report, 3:11, March, 1965.

social studies curriculum revision. The Cleveland project is actually consortium of school systems in the Cleveland area. In Westchester County, New York, the Board of Cooperative Educational Services has been established which brings together nineteen school systems for the purpose of curriculum revision. This is an example of a type of venture which would not be possible for the participants to undertake individually. At the university level, Professor Irving Morrisett at Purdue directs the Social Science Education Consortium which will bring together social scientists from Midwestern universities to consider curriculum changes from grades one to twelve.

Professional Associations

" . . . Today all of the social science professional societies have established committees to forward the cause of their several disciplines in the schools of America."¹ For example, the American Sociological Association is cooperating with Robert Feldmesser's sociology project at Dartmouth, and the American Economic Association is in partnership with M. L. Frankel's program for the Joint Council on Economic Education.

The joint efforts of the American Council of Learned Societies and the National Council for the Social Studies have produced some important work for the cause of revision. One of the more notable of these is the 1962 publication, The

¹Patterson, op. cit., 292.

Social Studies and the Social Sciences (sponsored by the ACLS/NCSS). In this book a prominent scholar from each of the fields of history, geography, political science, economics, cultural anthropology, sociology, psychology, Asian studies, and Russian studies presented a paper outlining the basic concepts, knowledge, and techniques from their respective fields that are important for high school students to acquire by their senior year. This work served to indicate areas of agreement among the disciplines, and possible objectives for revision projects. The ACLS/NCSS effort has also included sponsorship of Mayer's report on The Social Studies in American Schools, and numerous conferences on revision.

Government Support

In addition to Project Social Studies, already described, federal assistance to certain projects in the social sciences is also channeled through the National Science Foundation. Dr. Malcolm Collier's Anthropology Curriculum Study Project and Robert Feldmesser's sociology project at Dartmouth, Helburn's High School Geography Project and the Educational Services, Incorporated, program in Cambridge and Watertown, Massachusetts, all derive support from the NSF's Science Course Improvement Project. Political science, history, and economics are not considered "sciences" by the NSF and thus lose out in terms of support from this government agency.

Summary of Other Projects

In summary, there is a great deal of important curriculum revision activity going on outside Project Social Studies. This activity is taking place on many fronts: local school systems, independently sponsored (though often university-connected) projects-in-depth; state-wide projects under state departments of education; consortia combining school systems or universities; public school committees of professional associations; and government-supported projects. In many respects the general characteristics of these projects were found to be similar to those of Project Social Studies. One similarity was the absence of a central plan or procedure to coordinate the different activities. This trait was even more conspicuous than in Project Social Studies since many projects were by definition independent or were set up to promote the interests of a particular group. In many projects there was the familiar stress on structure, inductive teaching, sequential learning, the discipline approach, and the integrated approach, all to be achieved primarily through the production of a wide assortment of appropriate materials. And as in Project Social Studies, the newer behavioral sciences were strongly represented. The only major point of difference--other than the greater variety of projects--was that publication was less of a problem since most of the projects were financed by private foundations and groups.

This survey of Project Social Studies and other projects

was thought by the researcher to be of small value unless a survey was made of some new ideas and techniques being produced by such activities.

New Techniques

Two teaching techniques were mentioned often enough in the descriptions of the various projects to indicate a trend: simulation or gaming, and the use of case studies, or "post-holing." Gibson identified part of this trend: "the case study approach is rapidly gaining ground in the social studies, although the pace at the elementary level leaves much to be desired."¹ Further evidence of the strength of this movement is the new National Council for the Social Studies program, under the direction of Merrill Hartshorn, to develop case studies of democracy at work, using U.S. Supreme Court decisions.² Case studies based upon real events are, according to Gibson, one of the best ways to relate the outside world to the world of the classroom. Actual or realistic cases fortify the problems approach and can stress the making of decisions. Preferably, cases should be open-ended, with judgments or decisions suspended so that the student can consider several alternatives and thus participate in the decision-making himself.³

¹Gibson, op. cit., 23.

²Gibson, op. cit., 23.

³Ibid.

The case study approach, when applied to the study of history, becomes what Charles Keller has called a "posthole"--i.e., a study in depth of a particular event or series of events from the past.¹ Postholing was mentioned more often than any other technique as a means for improving the teaching of history in the public schools. Educational Services, Incorporated, has adopted postholing as the most promising approach for solving some of the problems of the subjective nature of history.² Postholing usually places great emphasis on original documents as a means of getting the "feel" of a historical period--and the period must be narrowly limited in terms of the problem being investigated. "Coverage" is being abandoned as a goal for historical instruction. Bragdon, a leading advocate of postholing, urges that the history classroom contain facsimile maps and documents from the period under study; artifacts, tools, and scientific instruments of the period; and a classroom library.³

The second new technique is gaming--i.e., simulation of problems involving choice and decision. The use of games is an attempt (1) to bring the future into the present, permitting students to play roles in a setting to which they would not be

¹Charles Keller, "Needed: Revolution in the Social Studies," Crucial Issues in the Teaching of Social Studies (ed. Byron G. Massialas and Andreas M. Kazamias), 42-43.

²"High Schools: A Burst of Reform," Time, 81:68, February 1, 1963.

³Bragdon, op. cit., 302.

exposed until adulthood, (2) to act as motivating devices, and (3) to eliminate the teacher as the judge since the games themselves are self-judging, the outcome determining one's success.¹ Realism, case studies, student participation, and process (rather than mere form) are all a part of gaming, which can serve, according to Gibson, as an excellent vehicle in relating realistic situations to the substance of the social studies.²

Educational Services, Incorporated, has already developed a game of "Empire" which is designed to teach about the American Revolution. The economists at Carnegie Institute of Technology have developed an economics game for ninth graders, and social scientists at Johns Hopkins University have constructed a game called "Legislation" which deals with the legislative process.³

¹Harrison and Solomon, "Review of Research in the Teaching of Social Studies: 1960-1963," Social Education, 28:281, May, 1964.

²Gibson, op. cit., 26.

³Gibson, op. cit., 27-28.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary

The purpose of this paper was to answer the question, "Can a reform of the curriculum in history and the social studies take place that would be comparable in degree and quality to the changes that have occurred recently in science and mathematics?" An affirmative answer to this question was taken as a working hypothesis. Verification of the hypothesis was sought by means of a survey of the literature in the period 1960-1965, which was a time of great activity concerning the history and social studies curriculum.

From a study of the mathematics and science curriculum reform programs, certain criteria were devised for use as a basis of judgment. Three of the most important of these criteria were that (1) the subject matter should be of such a nature as to permit different individuals studying the same data to reach similar conclusions; (2) the study of the subject must reflect the structure of the discipline; and (3) the emphasis must be on intuitive thinking.

The difficulties in history and social studies curriculum reform were then surveyed. A discussion of the theoretical bases of history and the social sciences highlighted a major difficulty: the partly subjective nature of history and the social sciences in contrast to the highly objective nature of the natural sciences and mathematics. This implied that problems in history and social studies teaching reform rest in

in part with the learner himself, while teaching problems in mathematics and science are inherent in the material to be learned rather than in the learner. This meant that reform in history and the social studies, if reform is, in fact, possible, is going to be more difficult than in science and mathematics.

Next, issues in history and social studies curriculum revision were surveyed. They included lack of agreement about the necessity of reform, about where to begin reform, about the necessity of goals, and about what goals to choose. One of the most important issues was whether to have an "integrated" curriculum or a "separate-discipline" curriculum, and, if the latter, which disciplines were to be included. The last-mentioned area of disagreement was over a national curriculum and a national center to promote it.

Then obstacles to reform (about which there was substantial agreement) were discussed. The obstacles were the public and controversial nature of topics in the history and social science field; restrictions of state laws; weaknesses in teacher ability and education; lack of leadership; conservatism of publishers for financial reasons, and college-entrance requirements.

As possible means of reform, the twelve curriculum centers in Project Social Studies were reviewed next. Observations were made regarding amount of national control, organization of projects, relation of projects to new research, emphases of the projects, materials being produced, aid to

teachers, means of evaluation, and publication of materials.

To complete a survey of means of reform, other projects and new techniques were surveyed. The projects ranged from the local level to state and federal, and included history and all the social science disciplines. Their approaches and aims were found to be very similar to those of Project Social Studies. The most prominent new techniques mentioned were gaming and the use of case studies.

Conclusions

The first conclusion reached was that it is probably not possible at this time to reach any conclusions. As Becker said,

In attempting a discussion of the problems and possibilities of curriculum change in the social sciences, one is immediately confronted with a paradox: Never before in our history has there been such general agreement about the need for change in the high school social studies curriculum; never before in our history has there been less general agreement about precisely what needs changing and how the changes should be made.¹

Many other sources agreed. "The Curriculum Service Center staff quickly found when they began looking for answers that an orderly presentation of generally accepted 'best thinking' is just not possible in the spring of 1965."² Carr was able to state only that whether the new programs

. . . will actually lead the social studies in new directions can be only a matter of conjecture at this time. . . .

¹Becker, op. cit., 20.

²Curriculum Service Center/NASSP, "The Proper Study of Mankind," Curriculum Report, 3:1, March, 1965.

At present they indicate no more than the great ferment in the field.¹

Goodlad, in 1964, thought that "most of the current reforms are too embryonic to warrant description at this time."² Fraser thought that conclusions were difficult to arrive at because

Many of the recommendations being made about content, emphases, and placement are contradictory and very frequently confusing;

No generally accepted solutions for the specific limitations seen in existing courses and sequences have as yet emerged; and

No single widely accepted pattern by which to determine what should be taught and where stands out, nor even two or three strong alternative patterns.³

Kenworthy reinforced this position, and managed to sound firm while reaching no real conclusion, when he stated that

no one should be so foolish as to predict what form the social studies curriculum of most schools will take in the foreseeable future, but one can state categorically that there is more soul-searching in this field than there has been for many years.⁴

Two sources, however, were willing to identify certain trends, although they stressed the tentative nature of their findings. Harrison communicated with major social studies project directors, and found this general pattern in their responses.

¹Carr, op. cit., 38.

²Goodlad, op. cit., 42.

³Fraser, op. cit., 2.

⁴Leonard S. Kenworthy, "Ferment in the Social Studies," Phi Delta Kappan, 43:16, October, 1962.

(a) the development of sequential curriculums for grades K-12 such that a year's course would build on the skills and concepts introduced in previous years;

(b) elimination of much of the unnecessary repetition of content inherent in the traditional fifth, eighth, and eleventh grade American History sequence;

(c) area studies and study in-depth of selected topics;

(d) communicating to students the methods of inquiry of the social scientist;

(e) greater use of readings, case studies, and primary sources;

(f) greater emphasis on developing skills of inductive thinking and critical analysis;

(g) greater emphasis on the affective as well as the cognitive outcomes of instruction.¹

The researcher's own findings, expressed on page 45 and page 54, agreed substantially with most of these.

Second, Fraser identified these trends:

(1) Just about everyone is giving priority to the establishment of a conceptual framework for social studies instruction, for a single course, a group of courses, or an entire program.

(2) There is much more, and much more skillful, planning for the cumulative, sequential development of skills and generalizations from year to year and course to course.

(3) There is movement away from broad surveys--often cyclically repeated, superficial, and incomplete--and toward more intensive and careful studies of a limited number of selected topics.

(4) The traditional dominance of history, civics, and geography is being reduced, and materials and content from the other social sciences are moving into the secondary school curriculum.

¹Harrison and Solomon, "Review of Research in the Teaching of Social Studies: 1964," Social Education, 29:281, May, 1965.

(5) Much more attention is being given to the possibility of developing a "world view," a "global framework" through social studies instruction.

(6) More provisions are being made for the serious study of some of society's unsolved problems.

(7) There is some action and much more talk about teaching the methods of scholarship characteristic of the social sciences and encouraging the use of these methods by high school pupils.

(8) The "multi-media" approach in the preparation and selection of learning materials is rapidly gaining ground.¹

Since these two authorities were willing to identify tentatively some trends, the researcher thought it possible to try to reach some conclusions in regard to the criteria listed on pages 12 and 13.

(1) Not fulfilled, at least not at this time. The partially subjective nature of history and the social sciences has been, in the researcher's opinion, amply documented. Some progress may be possible here, but it will take time. The social sciences are extremely young fields, and may improve with age. In Mayer's view,

Getting at the reality of the conservation of matter or the development of vertebrates or the periodic table may not be, as a teaching matter, all that different from getting at the phenomena behind Progressivism or Marginal Analysis or the Protestant Ethic--or, for that matter, the language behind the grammar.²

(2) Largely dependent on the answer to number (1), therefore not fulfilled. Pedagogic models are of little use

¹Fraser, op. cit., 3-7.

²Mayer, op. cit., 176.

when they lead students to a wide range of conclusions. But here, again, some progress may be made over time, and here, again, Mayer commented:

. . . The construction of pedagogic models in the social studies will be more difficult than it is in science. But it has, after all, been done--in the Bible, by Plato and Aristotle, by Hobbes and Locke and Hume, by Adam Smith and Karl Marx and Sigmund Freud.¹

The researcher noted, however, that all of the proposed models require a high level of reading competence.

(3) No conclusion because of lack of evidence. Mayer thought administrators were a block here because they, rather than teachers, choose classroom materials.² The researcher found no evidence on this point other than Mayer's remarks.

(4) Fulfilled, but with little effect. Nearly all projects proclaim a knowledge of the "structure of the discipline" as one of their goals, but it was obvious there was little agreement as to what this meant or how it was to be achieved.

(5) Fulfilled, as the survey of projects amply indicated, although there are occasional lapses. For example, the Stanford seminar hoped to have ten discussion groups composed of state department of education personnel and college and university social scientists, but

there were just nine people in attendance representing seven State Departments of Education, and four social scientists from four separate institutions of higher education in three different states. . . . The fact that it was not possible to attract more State Department of Education personnel and college and university

¹Ibid.

²Ibid., 179-180.

social scientists to this conference may well constitute a peculiar sort of "finding" for this working-seminar.¹

(6) Fulfilled, but limited by the necessity of reading ability for much historical and social science data. Many projects are working on a K-12 sequence, and there have been such suggestions as giving first-graders a "ready-made" archaeologist's project to dig in, with artifacts pre-placed at certain levels.

(7) Fulfilled, to the extent that several projects have a spiral, sequential curriculum as their goal. Accomplishment, due to the nature of history and the social sciences, may prove more difficult, although some elimination of repetition is obviously possible.

(8) No conclusion. As Mayer said, this is an "open question" (quoted on page 15). Bruner noted that the historian uses intuition to select what is relevant in the period he is studying;² but can such a process be taught to elementary and secondary students? For a discussion of the problems, see pages 15 and 16.

(9) Fulfilled--obviously.

(10) Fulfilled, for Project Social Studies and many others.

(11) Fulfilled, for the most part. The Project Social Studies curriculum centers are scheduled to run from three

¹Sowards, A Working Seminar on the Improvement of the Social Studies Curriculum, 4-5.

to six years, and most commonly five.¹

(12) Partially fulfilled. The Project Social Studies centers have a limit of \$250,000 per year,² but with so many projects going on everywhere, it is difficult to get a true financial picture of any one subject field or type of curriculum program.

A mere counting of the terms "fulfilled," "not fulfilled," or "no conclusion" did not give an accurate conclusion in regard to the validity of the hypothesis. It was noted that all but two of the "fulfilled" expressions were qualified in some way. Moreover, not all of the criteria were of equal weight--e.g., requirement (1) about the nature of history and the social sciences is more of a limiting factor on what can be accomplished than the requirement for evaluation (criterion 12).

Further, other data and conclusions brought out in the report had to be considered of at least equal weight with the criteria listed above. For example, the disagreement over "amalgam versus separateness" (actually an aspect of criterion 1) is as great an obstacle to reform as any in the list. Still another block to reform, this one not specifically listed by any source, but certainly indicated by the discussion of the criteria, is the reading ability (or lack of same) of students.

¹"Project Social Studies: A Search for Goals," Everyweek Teacher, 29:101, March 26, 1965.

²Fenton and Good, "Project Social Studies: A Progress Report," Social Education, 29:206-208, April, 1965.

Reading competence is obviously a factor in reaching many of the goals named by reformers, but many students appear to be deficient in this ability. Cummings hinted at this problem when he pointed out that "the educational tests given by the armed service to volunteers and inductees under Selective Service reveal the fact that 20 per cent between the ages of 18-23 cannot read at the sixth grade level."¹ This implied that a significant portion of high school students are not capable of performing work at the secondary level. Although it was evident from the survey of reform projects that audio-visual as well as printed materials are being produced, it was also obvious that case studies, postholes, units, books of readings, and collections of source materials--all printed materials--make up the largest part of the products of the projects. Not only is the emphasis on reading, but it is on reading with a high level of comprehension. The sample of revised history curriculum material in Appendix III, page 84, by almost any standard of judgment requires a high level of reading competence in order to perform the tasks assigned in the sample. Obviously, a student cannot use the new materials to "induct" or learn "structure" in history and the social studies, no matter how brilliantly conceived the new materials are, unless he can read them meaningfully. In a very important sense, then, improvement in the history and social studies curriculum is predicated on the quality of elementary reading instruction.

¹Cummings, op. cit., 3.

In addition to the factors just mentioned, any conclusions regarding the hypothesis had to include consideration of one overarching element: the lack of agreement among reformers as to what reforms to make and how to achieve them. Such disagreement diffuses the efforts at reform, spreads sometimes meager resources even thinner, and confuses those educators whose task it will be to translate revision proposals into operating programs.

Therefore, in the light of all these factors--unsatisfactory fulfillment of the criteria developed from the mathematics and science programs, disagreement over the issue of "amalgam versus separateness," dependency on the quality of the elementary reading program, and overall lack of agreement on directions or methods of reform--the hypothesis was rejected. It was concluded at this time that development of a "new social studies" comparable to the "new mathematics" and "new science" is highly unlikely. Considering the number of issues, obstacles, and limiting factors derived from the data studied, it is misleading to use the term "new social studies" unless careful distinction is made between the limited quality and magnitude of reforms possible in the history and social studies curriculum, in comparison with reforms in other fields. In the matter of organization of reform projects, however, some meaningful similarities can be found. Although the original criteria from science and mathematics teaching reforms were considered unfulfilled to such a degree that it was necessary

to reject the hypothesis, certain criteria concerned with organization are now being fulfilled or can profitably be taken as goals--e.g., length of time for projects, use of evaluation, and requirements for funds.

Furthermore, rejection of the hypothesis does not mean that improvements in the history and social studies curriculum are impossible. Something can, for example, be done about the repetitiveness of present courses. The National Defense Education Act institutes for history and social studies teachers can improve the state of teacher education. Moreover, the vast variety of materials being produced by the reform projects can be of immeasurable aid to the teacher who wishes to go beyond the textbook. (Whether he can use them to teach structure and induction is another matter.)

In addition to the rejection of the hypothesis, two other conclusions were reached. The first was that some sort of national clearing house is needed to at least keep track of what is happening in history and social studies curriculum reform. Apparently, no centralized effort is being made to prevent duplication or promote intercommunication of developments. This means that the teacher and the administrator in the field have no one source for complete information, nor any guidelines for putting all the units, pamphlets, books, and films being produced into a meaningful curriculum. Perhaps the lack of agreement discussed earlier prevents the development of such a center, but something is needed.

The last conclusion was that the average-terminal and slow-terminal (or drop-out) students have largely been neglected in the reform efforts. Such a conclusion is a corollary of the discussion above on the cruciality of reading ability for success with the new materials. A comment by Gibson indicated that he had reached a similar conclusion.

Materials in the social studies for the non-college bound student are sorely lacking, and educators everywhere must be urged to fill in the gap here. After all, the some 65% [sic] of our high school students who do not go on to college are participants in our democratic society, and more of them vote eventually than do the ones who go to and graduate from colleges. An argument can be made that the social studies in the schools are more important for the general or vocational student than they are for those destined to go on to college. This area, then, is perhaps the greatest shortcoming in the social studies today.¹

It seemed to the researcher that some type of project connecting reading improvement with the history and social studies program is necessary, if the secondary curriculum is not to be completely at the mercy of the elementary reading program.

Finally, even though conclusions about history and social studies revision must at this time be tentative, and even though improvement as great as that in mathematics and science seems improbable, still, "a journey of a thousand miles begins with but a single step." (Chinese proverb) A survey of history and social studies curriculum reform, 1960-1965, indicated that--at last--the first step toward a better curriculum than the present one had certainly been taken.

¹Gibson, op. cit., 32.

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"Project Social Studies: A Search for Goals," Everyweek Teacher, 29:101, March 26, 1965.

Rice, Marion J., and Wilfred C. Bailey. "University of Georgia: A Sequential Curriculum in Anthropology for Grades 1-7," Social Education, 29:211-212, April, 1965.

Shaver, James P. "The Ohio State University: Economics Curriculum Material for Secondary Schools," Social Education, 29:215-216, April, 1965.

Shinn, Ridgway F. "Geography and History as Integrating Disciplines," Social Education, 28:395-400, November, 1964.

"Social Studies Revision," Scholastic Teacher, 45:2T-4T, October 21, 1964.

Sowards, G. Wesley, "A Re-Vitalized Social Studies Curriculum," The Educational Forum, 28:261-266, March, 1964.

Sperling, John G., et al. "Centers Established in 1964: A Brief Report," Social Education, 29:224-225, April, 1965.

Sutherland, Neil. "Structure in the History Curriculum," Social Education, 26:133-136, 140, March, 1962.

[Todd, Lewis Paul]. "Editor's Page: the Seamless Web," Social Education, 27:181, 204, April, 1963.

"Upgrading Edonomics," Scholastic Teacher, 45:1T-2T, November 11, 1964.

West, Edith, "University of Minnesota: An Articulated Curriculum for Grades K-14," Social Education, 29:209,211, April, 1965.

APPENDIXES

APPENDIX I

Directory of Social Studies Projects¹

Note: This directory was prepared by Professor John U. Michaelis, Department of Education, University of California, Berkeley, California. Where the project title does not indicate the grade or level of emphasis, a parenthetical note follows the title. Sponsorship is indicated in parenthesis after each project.

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

Becker, James M., Foreign Relations Project (Secondary), North Central Association, Chicago, Ill. (North Central Association, U.S. Office of Education support of Seminars on Democracy and Totalitarianism)

Brown, Richard, and Van R. Halsey, History and Social Studies Curriculum Materials; Average Terminal, College Bound, and Adults, Amherst College, Amherst, Mass. (U.S. Office of Education)

Collier, Malcolm C., Anthropology Curriculum Study Project (Secondary), Chicago, Ill. (National Science Foundation)

English, Raymond, Social Science Program (K-12), Educational Research Council of Greater Cleveland, Cleveland, Ohio (The Council)

Feldmesser, Robert A., Sociological Resources for Secondary Schools, Dartmouth College, Hanover, N.H. (National Science Foundation)

Fenton, Edwin A., High School Social Studies Curriculum for Able Students, Carnegie Institute of Technology, Pittsburgh, Pa. (U.S. Office of Education)

Frankel, M. L., Economic Education Activities (1-12), Joint Council on Economic Education, New York, N.Y. (Various associations and groups)

¹Source: John R. Gibson, New Frontiers in the Social Studies, 101-104; this directory is to be revised by Michaelis, summer, 1965.

- Gibson, J. S., and W. C. Kvaraceus, The Development of Instructional Materials, K-6, Pertaining to Race and Culture in America, Lincoln Filene Center, Tufts University, Medford, Massachusetts. (U.S. Office of Education)
- Helburn, Nicholas, High School Geography Project, Association of American Geographers, Montana State College, Bozeman, Montana (National Science Foundation)
- Hill, Wilhelmina, Committee on Curriculum Guide (K-12), Geographic Education, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C. (National Council for Geographic Education)
- Lee, John, New Approaches to and Materials for a Sequential Curriculum on American Society, Grades 5-12, Social Studies Curriculum Study Center, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill. (U.S. Office of Education)
- Lee, Marvin, Economics Education Committee of the Southern States Work Conference (Secondary), College of Education, West Virginia University, Morgantown, West Va. (Joint Council on Economic Education)
- Leppert, Ella C., The First Three Courses in a Sequential Social Studies Program for the Secondary School, Department of Education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois (U.S. Office of Education)
- Lerner, Daniel, The Development of a Basic Social Science Course for Undergraduate Students in the Natural Sciences and Engineering (College), Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, Mass. (U.S. Office of Education)
- Long, Harold M., Improving the Teaching of World Affairs (K-12), Glen Falls Public Schools, Glen Falls, New York (National Council for the Social Studies)
- Maher, John E., Development of Economic Education Programs (K-12), Joint Council on Economic Education, New York, N.Y. (Joint Council on Economic Education)
- Michaelis, John U., Preparation of Teaching Guides and Materials on Asian Countries for Grades I-XII, Department of Education, University of California, Berkeley, California (U.S. Office of Education)
- Morison, Elting E., A Program of Curriculum Development in the Social Studies and Humanities (1-12), Educational Services, Inc., Watertown, Mass. (Various foundations)

Morrisett, Irving, The Social Science Education Consortium (1-12), Department of Economics, Purdue University, Lafayette, Ind. (U.S. Office of Education)

Oliver, Donald, A Jurisprudential and Social Science Curriculum for Grades 8-10 Focusing on the Analysis of Controversial Public Issues, Graduate School of Education, Harvard, Cambridge, Mass. (U.S. Office of Education)

Patterson, Franklin, and John S. Gibson, The Lincoln Filene Center for Citizenship and Public Affairs (Elementary and Secondary), Tufts University, Medford, Mass. (The Lincoln Filene Center)

Price, Roy A., Identification of Major Concepts from the Social Sciences, Development of Materials and Techniques for Teaching Them, and Evaluation of Their Applicability and Utility in Grades V, VIII, and XI, Department of Education, Syracuse University, Syracuse, N.Y. (U.S. Office of Education)

Rader, William D., Elementary School Economics Program, Industrial Relations Center, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill. (The Center)

Riddle, Donald H., Secondary School Project, Eagleton Institute of Politics, Rutgers University, New Brunswick, N.J. (The Institute and Fund for the Advancement of Education)

Roswenc, Edwin C., Basic Concepts in History and Social Science (Secondary), Department of American Studies, Amherst College, Amherst, Mass. (The College)

Rundell, Walter Jr., Service Center for Teachers of History (Secondary), American Historical Association, Washington, D.C. (The Association)

Senesh, Lawrence, Elkhart, Indiana Experiment in Economic Education (1-12), Department of Economics, Purdue University, Lafayette, Ind. (The University, Elkhart Schools, and Carnegie)

Shaver, James P., Development of Economics Curricular Materials for Secondary Schools, Social Studies Curriculum Center, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio (U.S. Office of Education)

Sperling, John G., and Suzanne Wiggins, Development and Evaluation of a 12th Grade Course in the Principles of Economics, Department of Economics, San Jose State College, San Jose, California (U.S. Office of Education)

Stavrianos, L. S., World History Project (Secondary), Department of History, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill. (The University and Carnegie)

Toy, Henry, Civic Education Project (1-12), American Heritage Foundation, New York, N.Y. (Danforth Foundation)

West, Edith, Preparation and Evaluation of Social Studies Curriculum Guides and Materials for Grades K-14, Minneapolis, Minn. (U.S. Office of Education)

Bibliography of Related Studies

Davis, O. L., The Usefulness of Graphic Illustrations in the Social Studies, Kent State University, Kent, Ohio (U.S. Office of Education)

Easton, David, and Robert D. Hess, Study of Political Socialization, Department of Political Science, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill. (The Department)

Johnson, Carl S., and Charles A. Dambach, Survey of Printed Materials on Conservation Education, Research Foundation, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio (U.S. Office of Education)

Joyce, Bruce, and Carl Weinberg, Sociology in Elementary Social Studies, Department of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill. (The Department)

Ojemann, Ralph H., Preventive Psychiatry Program, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa (Various foundations)

Taba, Hilda, Thinking in Elementary School Children, Department of Education, San Francisco State College, San Francisco, Calif. (U.S. Office of Education)

Harnack, Robert S., The Use of Electronic Computers to Improve Individualization of Instruction through Unit Teaching, School of Education, State University of New York at Buffalo, New York (U.S. Office of Education)

Sanders, Norris, Use of a Taxonomy of Questions to Increase the Variety and Quality of Thought in the Classroom, Manitowoc Public Schools, Manitowoc, Wisconsin (The Manitowoc Schools)

APPENDIX II

A Proposed History and Social Studies Curriculum
for the New York City Public Schools¹

The following was taken from a ninety-five page "position paper for discussion and review." Plans call for try-out of courses of study in the 1965-66 school year, and complete curriculum switch-over for the school year 1966-67.

The proposed new course of study has been developed along "guidelines" that include the elimination of repetitious content, the inclusion of non-western cultural areas, and the inclusion of new concepts and skills in sociology, anthropology, and psychology as well as history, geography, economics and government. It would also provide methods of "inquiry" and "discovery" through the use of actual source materials.

If the course of study is approved substantially in its present form, the new grade-by-grade sequence would be as follows (the following material is a direct quotation, but for the sake of readability it was double-spaced):

"Kindergarten: Our Families and Other Families--How They Live and Work. This would introduce the concept that man 'is a social being in a family unit dependent upon the cooperation of many people close and afar.' There would also be an introduction to civil liberties, rights, and civic responsibilities.

"First Grade: Schools: Now and Then; Here and There. Nature and significance of education to the child and to society.

¹"Social Studies Revision," Scholastic Teacher, 45: 2T-4T, October 21, 1964.

"Second Grade: The Child in His Many Community Relationships.

The community, its functions and operations. Goods and services, transportation, and communication.

"Third Grade: Primitive and Early Cultures--Case Studies.

Study of societies such as those developed in early valley civilizations in Asia and Africa. Studies might be drawn from Incas, Aztecs, Mayans, Eskimos, Lake Dwellers, Bushmen, Maoris, Masai warriors, Algonquins, or Iroquois.

"Fourth Grade: Story of the United States. Introduction to geography, history, adventure, and heroes of the United States.

"Fifth Grade: Urban America--A Case Study of the New York Metropolitan Area. Particular emphasis on the problems of the New York Metropolitan Area.

"Sixth Grade: Contributions of the Past to Western Civilization. Greece, Rome, medieval and Renaissance Europe. Judeo-Christian tradition.

"Seventh Grade: American History--Development of Democratic Society in the United States. Geographic setting, American values, chronological development of American history, political and social institutions of the United States.

"Eighth Grade: Geography and Man. Basic principles of modern physical geography. Study of Western Hemisphere. Case studies of Canada, United States, Latin America.

"Ninth Grade: Non-Western Civilization. Case study of Egypt or Israel; China and Japan; India or any other 'significant' Southeast Asian nation; the Congo and Ghana or any other 'significant' Sub-Saharan nation; the Soviet World.

"Tenth Grade: Western Civilization. Western Europe analysis. Democracy, nationalism, industrialization, colonialism. Historical illustrations through developments in England, France, Germany, Italy, etc. Current world problems.

"Eleventh Grade: American Studies. U.S. government, social and cultural institutions, foreign policy.

"Twelfth Grade: Economics in first semester. Second semester one of the following: Problems of Democracy, Modern World Problems, Introduction to Behavioral Sciences, Government, Metropolitan Studies, Modern Geography, or Advanced Placement."

APPENDIX III

A Sample of Revised History Curriculum Material

The author thought it profitable to include the following as an example of the type of work being done in the revision projects. The material below is quoted from the "Teacher's Edition" of The Ratification of the Constitution and the Bill of Rights written by Peter Schrag under the editorship of Van R. Halsey and published by D. C. Heath in 1964.

As an introduction to the unit, the high school student using the booklet is to read the following quotation, with these questions in mind: "What is history? Where does one find it? How is it made? What is the difference between history and patriotism?" (A direct quotation was again double-spaced for readability.)

"These men did not walk alone on that spring morning into that Philadelphia Convention. There walked in with them the thousands upon thousands of shadowy nameless persons who had through the centuries worked toward liberty and order. There were those struggling figures who through years of labor and agony and sacrifice had been working out the priceless practical principles of Anglo-Saxon liberty.

"And so the fathers of our Constitution embodied in that instrument the spirit of the Magna Charta and the petition of rights and the bill of rights and the habeas corpus act, of all that made the people of England great, and an adaptation

of those great principles of American life through the practical working of 150 years of American government.

"Then, at the end of four months, these men, after discussing, debating, and deliberating, brought forth the most finished, polished and balanced relation between a people and their government that the human mind has ever conceived. . .

From Oratory, Randolph Leigh, Ed., 1927, Putman & Sons, N.Y."

The teacher's selection on this quotation reads (again, a quotation is double-spaced):

"Monday: Section I assigned for reading in class.
Questions for discussion, preferably in a 200 word composition:

"What is your reaction to the quotation from the speech?
Assuming you had read this statement in a history textbook,
would you feel that it represented a worthwhile description of
the subject with which it deals? If you feel you do not know
enough to make a final judgment, what more would you like to
know, and where might you go to find out? Turn in your paper
at the end of class.

"The idea here is merely to put the student on his own right away, to ask him to make a statement about the quotation and to begin working toward some notion of what history is and what the historian does. Our object is not to make historians; the object is merely to make the student think. Submitting papers at the end of class will give the teacher a chance to plan a discussion for the following day.

"Section I can be used as a point of reference at any stage of the unit, but its main function is in helping to establish a definition of history (why the quotation is not good history) and in providing some idea about the use of sources, where they can be found, the likelihood of varied views in history, and the limits of any conclusion. There is no intention to be either 'patriotic' or to have fun with the naiveté of the statement. The intent is merely to begin to differentiate between history and a comment on history."

APPENDIX IV

Sources of Data on Project Social Studies

Edwin Fenton and John M. Good, "Project Social Studies: A Progress Report," Social Education, 29:206-208, April, 1965; Edith West, "University of Minnesota: An Articulated Curriculum for Grades K-14," Social Education, 29:209-211, April, 1965; Marion J. Rice and Wilfred C. Bailey, "University of Georgia: A Sequential Curriculum in Anthropology for Grades 1-7," Social Education, 29:211-212, April, 1965; Ella C. Lepert, "University of Illinois: A Sequential Junior-Senior High School Curriculum," Social Education, 29:213-215, April, 1965; James P. Shaver, "The Ohio State University: Economics Curriculum Material for Secondary Schools," Social Education, 29:215-216, April, 1965; Edwin A. Fenton and John M. Good, "Carnegie Institute of Technology: A Social Studies Curriculum for Able Students," Social Education, 29:216-218, April, 1965; Roy A. Price, "Syracuse University: Social Science Concepts and Workways as the Basis for Curriculum Revision," Social Education, 29:218-220, April, 1965; Donald W. Oliver, "Harvard University: A Curriculum Based on the Analysis of Public Controversy," Social Education, 29:220-223, April, 1965; John R. Lee, "Northwestern University: Materials for a New Approach in American History," Social Education, 29:223, April, 1965; John G. Sperling et al., "Centers Established in 1964: A Brief Report," Social Education, 29:224-225, April, 1965; "Project Social Studies: A Search for Goals," Everyweek Teacher, 29:101, March 26, 1965; "Curriculum Revision Projects: English and the Social Studies," Scholastic Teacher, 46:14T-19T, February 18, 1965; Curriculum Service Center/NASSP, "Who is Working on What?" Curriculum Report, 3:8-12, March, 1965.

CURRICULUM REFORM IN HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES,
1960-1965--A SURVEY OF THE LITERATURE

by

DOUGLAS EDWIN WILSON

A. B., University of Missouri, 1963

AN ABSTRACT OF A MASTER'S REPORT

submitted in partial fulfillment of the

requirements for the degree

MASTER OF SCIENCE

College of Education

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas

1965

The purpose of this paper was to answer the question, "Can a reform of the curriculum in history and the social studies take place that would be comparable in degree and quality to the changes that have occurred recently in science and mathematics?" As a working hypothesis, the statement that "it is possible to develop a 'new social studies' comparable to the 'new mathematics' and 'new science'" was advanced. Verification or rejection of the hypothesis was sought by means of a survey of the literature in the period 1960-1965, which was a time of great activity concerning the history and social studies curriculum.

From a study of the mathematics and science curriculum reform programs, certain criteria were devised as a basis for judgment. The difficulties in history and social studies curriculum reform were then surveyed. They consisted of a philosophical problem, of certain issues, and of certain obstacles.

As possible means of reform, the curriculum centers in Project Social Studies were reviewed next. To complete a survey of means of reform, other projects and new techniques were discussed. In the light of these data, certain conclusions were reached. The first was that it is not possible to reach any firm conclusions at this time--there is too little agreement among reformers. Nevertheless, an attempt was made to accept or reject the original hypothesis on the bases of the criteria that had been set up, and other data that were discussed. On these bases, the hypothesis was rejected. It was

concluded that because of philosophical difficulties inherent in history and the social sciences, plus lack of agreement on the means and directions of reform, comparison of reform in this field with that in mathematics and science is not meaningful, except on an organizational basis. To speak of the "new social studies" is to ignore the partly subjective nature of history and the social sciences in contrast to the highly objective nature of mathematics and the natural sciences. It is also to ignore the very real differences of opinion among recognized authorities in history and social studies education as to where to begin with reform, what goals to aim for, and what to include in a new program. Therefore it was concluded--although tentatively, because of disagreement among authorities surveyed--that a "new social studies" comparable to the "new mathematics" and the "new science" is not possible at this time. Some revision is, however, thought possible.

Two further conclusions were reached: (1) a national center to coordinate revision is needed; and (2) general and vocational students have been neglected in the reform programs in comparison with college-preparatory students, and corrective measures in this regard are desirable.

