A REVIEW OF SELECTED SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULA
FOR AUSTRALIAN PRIMARY SCHOOLS: 1952-1984

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Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education by major thesis in the University of Melbourne, 1985.
Of course people are at risk through innumeracy of verbal illiteracy - but hardly a handful compared with the social illiteracy one sees; those thousands of people facing countless and myriad social problems with only the formula for nitric acid or a memorization of 'The View from Westminster Bridge' to help them.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am indebted to the following people who forwarded copies of curriculum guidelines, provided information by letter, or gave their time to discuss developments in social studies with me:--

Mr. Brian Best, Supervisor of Social Studies, Education Department of Tasmania.

Miss Patricia Braithwaite, Senior Education Assistant, Education Department of Tasmania.

Mr. Mark Brown, Education Officer (Social Studies), Curriculum Branch, Education Department of Western Australia.

Mr. W. Ekins, Convenor, South Australian R-7 Social Studies Curriculum Committee, Education Department of South Australia.

Mrs. Lee English, Curriculum Branch, Education Department of Queensland.

Ms. Rosalie McIlrick, Social Studies Consultant, New South Wales Department of Education.

Ms. L. Muirhead, Project Leader, Primary Social Studies, Curriculum and Research Branch, Education Department of Victoria.

Mr. Peter MacColl, Curriculum Branch, Education Department of Queensland.

Mr. David Nelson, Secretary, St. George Council for Social Education in Schools, Engadine West Public School, Education Department of New South Wales.

Mr. Irving Nicholson, Lecturer, Adelaide College of the Arts and Education (Underdale Campus).

Ms. Janet Stone, Curriculum Branch, Education Department of Queensland.

I would also like to thank Gayle Fitzclarence for her assistance in the typing of this thesis, and my wife for her
patience during the period this thesis was written and with the proof-reading of the final draft.

Finally, I am indebted to my supervisor, Mr. Karel Reus, for his guidance and assistance during the preparation of this thesis.
ABSTRACT

This thesis analyses social studies curriculum prepared by State Education Departments in Australia for use in primary schools. Curriculum statements from Victoria, New South Wales, Queensland, South Australia and Western Australia, in the period from 1952 to 1984, are examined.

The study focusses on identifying the materials which have been produced, the ways in which social studies has been defined, the aims and rationale for programs, the learning experiences and teaching strategies which are outlined, the content which has been suggested, and the ways in which the outcomes of the program might be evaluated. A final chapter outlines the perceived strengths of the curriculum documents reviewed and suggests areas in which future development might take place.
CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The major purpose of this thesis is to describe and analyse aspects of selected social studies curricula for primary school children using curriculum statements prepared by State Education Department curriculum committees as source materials. The study was designed to be a textual criticism, a critical study directed towards determining the features of primary school social studies as outlined in publications prepared specifically for the guidance of teachers.

The particular focus of this study is an analysis of new curriculum publications published after 1980. However, in order to clarify the significant features of new social studies programs it was also decided to complete an analysis of social studies curriculum statements in the previous thirty years. Therefore, courses of study in social studies for primary schools after 1952, have also been reviewed.

REVIEW OF PREVIOUS RESEARCH

In the preparation of this thesis previous research, which focused on the description and analysis of social
studies curriculum statements, was reviewed.¹

A brief review of some of the curriculum publications in the period from 1952 to 1969 was completed by McLeod.² He noted that there was a great deal of similarity in the various courses of study, and was critical of many features of these courses. He suggested that statements of aims were nebulous, that methods of teaching were not clearly outlined, and that there was too much emphasis placed on content, instead of intellectual skills such as data gathering and reasoning.

Developments in social studies curriculum have also been analysed by Whitehead³ and Kydd⁴. Both writers were

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engaged in research and development activities associated with the revision of primary school social studies curriculum in Victoria which culminated in the complete publication of Society in View by 1981.

The article by Whitehead traced developments in thinking about social studies in the period from 1900 to 1970. He suggested that while many of the ideas had been advanced in the previous 70 years there were several new developments which were formative influences on thinking about social studies by the 1970s.

One important influence was the conclusions reached in research projects conducted in Victoria. This research revealed that most primary school children had limited understandings of many social studies concepts, that they did not have the intellectual skills necessary to collect and analyse data, and that they had difficulty in handling verbal and vicarious material.

Another important influence was the results of overseas research and development activities. A report published by the California State Department of Education in 1961, for instance, stimulated thinking about the organisation of content in a social studies program. This work examined a number of social science disciplines identifying key generalisations, which summarised man's relationships with the physical and
social world, and which provided a framework around which content could be organised. These ideas were later incorporated, in modified form, in *Society in View*, as discussed in Chapter 4.

In addition, the work of Dr. Hilda Taba and the Taba Curriculum Project in California influenced thinking in relation to teaching strategies. The research by Taba in identifying cognitive tasks (such as "concept formation", "inferring and generalizing" and "application of principles"), and in outlining how these intellectual skills might be successfully incorporated in teaching strategies, also found expression, again in modified form, in *Society in View*.

In an article written in 1971, Kydd outlined "some of the changes and the developments in thinking about social studies" in primary schools between the "fifties" and the "seventies". A comparison in thinking about social studies in these two periods was made in relation to four aspects - what social studies is, scope and content, aims and purposes, and method. This article, which emphasised the significant changes which had taken place in thinking about social studies, is drawn on at several points throughout this thesis to clarify issues and to support conclusions reached.

(5) Ibid., p. 60.
A more detailed description and analysis of primary school social studies curriculum statements is provided by Reed in a review of Victorian, New South Wales and Western Australian documents in the period from 1952 to 1975. This review utilised the Curriculum Materials Analysis System (C.M.A.S.) developed by Morrissett and Stevens. The C.M.A.S. provided Reed with a standard set of questions, asked of all curriculum documents, organised under the following headings - Descriptive Characteristics, Rationale and Objectives, Antecedent Conditions, Content, Instructional Theory and Teaching Strategies, and Overall Judgement. Detailed comments on each of the curriculum documents reviewed were made under each of these headings.

In the final chapter Reed identified a number of changes which he thought had occurred in social studies curricula in the period under review. Firstly, in relation to the role of the learner, he considered that the programs of the 1950s, in which children tended to passively receive information, had been replaced by programs in the 1970s which emphasised the importance of processes which developed thinking


skills and which involved children in active organisation of material. Secondly, this had lead to a re-definition of the role of the teacher. Instead of being the major source of information, teachers were encouraged to see their role more as a facilitator of learning, as someone who structured the experiences for children to enable them to collect and consider data and to interact with other children in the process. Thirdly, this re-definition in the role of the teacher had lead to greater attention being given to teaching strategies in the more recent curriculum documents. To achieve objectives related to cognitive processes (the acquisition, organisation and application of information), for instance, teachers were provided with strategies which related to the development of understandings such as listing, classifying and generalising. Fourthly, in relation to values, Reed detected a shift in emphasis from the inculcation of "substantive values" to the valuing process in which the learner was given the opportunity to recognise and clarify his own, and others', values. Finally, greater attention was given in the more recent programs to evaluation. This was more closely directed towards the development of specific behaviours and skills, and a wider range of techniques were suggested to assist teachers to evaluate activities, teaching procedures, and individual pupil progress.

One aspect of particular interest from this study was the way in which the curriculum documents were classified for
the purposes of description and analysis using the C.M.A.S.. Reed identified four possibilities.

Firstly, a single aspect (for example, the "aims" of programs) could be analysed for different States within a given period. For example, "aims" could be examined for all States for programs in the 1950s.

Secondly, a single aspect could be analysed by examining different programs, from different time periods, within the same State. For example, "aims" of courses of study from the 1950s, 1960s and 1970s in New South Wales could be examined.

Thirdly, all aspects identified in the C.M.A.S. could be examined for the courses of study from the different States in a given period; that is, all aspects of the C.M.A.S. could be applied to the Victorian, New South Wales and Western Australian courses of study in the 1950s, and the procedure repeated for courses in the 1960s and 1970s.

Fourthly, all aspects of the C.M.A.S. could be examined for all the courses of study from one State, then another State, and so on.

Reed concluded that the first method outlined provided the best way to maintain the continuity amongst programs of
the same period, while at the same time allowing contrasts both within and between States to be made. The same conclusion was reached in the grouping of curriculum documents for the purposes of description and analysis in this study as outlined later in this chapter.

FACTORS CONSIDERED IN PLANNING THIS THESIS

In planning this thesis attention was given to three aspects in particular. These were the approach which would be followed, the questions which would be investigated, and the grouping of documents which would be used, in the analysis of the curriculum publications. A discussion of each of these aspects is included in the remainder of this chapter.

Alternative Approaches to the Analysis of Curriculum Materials

In relation to the approach which would be followed in analysing the materials, several alternatives were considered.

In one sense, the evaluation of curriculum materials is a familiar activity for school principals and teachers.

(8) Reed, op. cit., p. v.
(9) See pages 26-27.
The decision to adopt a new set of social studies materials, for instance, involves principals and teachers in decisions about the suitability of materials for children in the school. The readability level and interest level of the materials, the cost, the ease of organising materials for classroom use, the ways in which the materials complement existing resources, and the usefulness of the information provided for teachers, could be some of the factors which might be considered before a decision is made to purchase the new materials.

If teachers need assistance with this task they can often refer to published descriptions of curriculum materials.10 Often these published descriptions follow a standardised format and provide the basis for comparison between different sets of materials on common criteria. In social studies, for instance, the journal Social Education11 publishes assessments of curriculum programs following a standardised scheme for the analysis of curriculum materials. The works by Thomas and Brubaker,12 and by Reed,13 are other examples of this approach.

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(10) Education Department of Victoria, Review of Kits and Programs for Primary Social Studies, Melbourne, 1975.


(13) Reed, op. cit.
Teachers may also complete their own systematic analysis of a particular curriculum using one of the numerous published schemes for reviewing curriculum materials which are available.\textsuperscript{14}

While approaches based on standardised formats are often useful, they do have limitations, as Westbury notes:\textsuperscript{15}

... the more specific and more curricular-relevant orderings of questions about curriculum guides ... do little more than point out the most obvious questions that could be asked of a curriculum document. They do not lead a critic into the structure of a program as such structure bears on more complex questions of evaluation. As devices to assist hard-nosed evaluation these suggestions are too atheoretical and say too little to be helpful; at the same time they presume far too much from those who would need such truncated and obvious schemes. Mnemonic sequences of questions of the kind these schemes represent must be embedded in a more sophisticated evaluative and descriptive language than that available to the typical users of these schemes.

Another approach to the appraisal of curriculum materials is to review the literature on curriculum evaluation and, in particular, those research studies which follow the general paradigm of educational research. As Vallance notes:\textsuperscript{16}

\begin{itemize}
\end{itemize}
Evaluations of curricula or programs can tell us how those curricula 'worked', as measured against some predetermined criteria. Formative and summative evaluations provide us with our most systematic and most carefully controlled information about the effectiveness of curricula ... If we bear in mind all the variables and qualifiers, we can attempt to generalise and incorporate these generalisations into our judgements about particular materials ... our judgements about the probable effects of the materials can be extremely well informed.

Although not common in the field of primary social studies, this general research paradigm is followed in the work of Whitehead. Whitehead investigated the following general questions: "Can students be trained to apply the enquiry process? Will the training transfer to Social Studies-type tasks which differ from those experienced in class? Should improvement be noted, how durable will be the success?". To investigate these questions "two training programs were developed and implemented with 216 grade six children, drawn from six primary schools located in middle-class areas of Melbourne." The performance of children following each of these training programs was measured, and a number of significant differences in performances reported. Features of the study which limit the generalisation of the results were also reported.


(18) Ibid., p. 2.

(19) Ibid., Chapter 9.
There is a problem, however, with these forms of educational inquiry based either on standardised formats to evaluate materials, or on findings reported as student outcomes. As Vallance comments:

They deal either with surface features of the materials themselves (as when they are examined for reading level, number of pages, topics covered) or with the after effects of their use as when their effectiveness is assessed. But neither descriptions of the materials nor measures of their effectiveness really get to the heart of the matter. For neither addresses the question of what experience the curriculum materials make available to a student. The question is not a trivial one. It is significant in schooling simply because curricula not only produce effects (measureable or otherwise) but also provide immediate experiences - they structure and affect the flavor of a hefty hunk of the child’s daily life for a number of years. Thus, while curriculum materials (and the interactions woven around them) promote outcomes, meet objectives, and so on, they do so by structuring the child’s environment. They create a unique experience for each child encountering them, much as a painting on a gallery wall provides a constant structure that affects each viewer differently, depending on what the viewer brings to the setting.

Another approach to the analysis of curriculum materials which was considered in relation to this study has

(20) Vallance, op. cit., p. 88.
been termed "educational criticism"\textsuperscript{21} or "curriculum criticism".\textsuperscript{22} In reaching a decision about the approach which would be followed in this thesis several ideas presented by writers in this field were influential.

While comparable with other forms of criticism such as literary criticism,\textsuperscript{23} editorial criticism,\textsuperscript{24} and with areas of cultural expression such as visual arts,\textsuperscript{25} the application of the techniques of criticism to educational research has been most extensively investigated by Eisner,\textsuperscript{26} and by various authors in the journal \textit{Curriculum Inquiry}.\textsuperscript{27}

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{(23)} Mann, \textit{op. cit.}
\item \textsuperscript{(25)} Vallance, \textit{op. cit.}
\item \textsuperscript{(26)} Eisner, \textit{op. cit.}
\end{itemize}

This approach sees educational events or curriculum materials not in terms of a standardised schedule of questions which must be completed, and not in terms of curriculum outcomes or pupil achievement. Instead, the objective of educational or curriculum criticism is to reveal the qualities of classroom events or curriculum materials so that some appraisal of their value can be made.

While "educational criticism" can be applied to any set of objects and events that one considers relevant to the aims of educational practice,28 most published accounts of educational criticism focus on either the activities of teachers and/or students in the classroom, or on curriculum materials. Like other forms of educational research, educational or curriculum criticism is an empirical undertaking. "The word empirical comes from the Latin empiricus meaning 'open to experience'. Criticism is empirical in the significant sense that the qualities the critic describes or renders must be capable of being located in the subject matter of the criticism."29 Criticism, in this sense does not mean "the negative appraisal of something but rather the illumination of something's qualities so that an appraisal of its value can be made."30 The function of the curricula

(28) Eisner, op. cit., p. 222.
(29) Ibid., p. 191.
(30) Ibid.
critique, says Mann, "is to disclose its meanings, to illuminate its answers."\(^{31}\) Criticism, according to Vallance, "is the perception, analysis, interpretation, and portrayal of a work of art— an examination, a discussion, a coming-to-understand."\(^{32}\)

Eisner notes that the ability to develop effective criticism depends, firstly, on the ability to perceive what is significant in an object or situation, and an ability to reveal these perceptions in a way which discloses the essential and important qualities of an object or event:\(^{33}\)

Effective criticism, within the arts or in education, is not an act independent of the powers of perception. The ability to see, to perceive what is subtle, complex, and important, is its first necessary condition. The act of knowledgeable perception is, in the arts, referred to as connoisseurship. To be a connoisseur is to know how to look, to see, and to appreciate. Connoisseurship, generally defined, is the art of appreciation. It is essential to criticism because without the ability to perceive what is subtle and important, criticism is likely to be superficial or even empty.

To be an effective connoisseur, "to know how to look, to see and to appreciate" obviously requires certain qualities which may take considerable time to refine and develop. And what counts as experience requires more than the simple recognition

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(31) Mann, op. cit., p. 4.
(32) Vallance, op. cit., p. 90.
of aspects of the situation or materials. To distinguish what is significant involves more complex skills than recognising events to classify them, say, into a particular category on a classroom observational schedule, or to answer a standardised set of questions about a set of curriculum materials.\(^\text{34}\)

Perception based on recognition alone stops with assigning the particular to the class which it belongs; it does not proceed to the sensory exploration of the ways in which this particular oak tree differs from other oaks, it does not locate the specific characteristics of this elm, that halfgainer, this full twist with a somersault. Recognition is not exploratory, it is focussed on classification.

Perception of significant classroom events, or aspects about materials, involves seeing more than that required to classify. But what we see as the significant aspects of classroom events or materials is a selection from the many events which occur in classrooms, or of the many aspects which might be revealed about materials. And what we select as significant is shaped not only by our experience of particular classrooms or sets of materials but also by what we believe is relevant and important. We hold values, theories and concepts which influence our perception. Different critics observing the same series of classroom events or sets of curricula materials will attend to different

\(^{34}\) Ibid., p. 194.
aspects and interpret their significance differently.\(^3\)

To talk about ... educational events requires ... not only a sensitivity to the emerging qualities of classroom life, but also a set of ideas, theories, or models that enable one to distinguish the significant from the trivial and to place what one sees in an intelligible context. This process is not serial: we do not see and then assess significance; the very ideas that define educational virtue for us operate within the perceptual processes to locate among thousands of possibilities what we choose to see. The essence of perception is that it is selective; there is no value-free mode of seeing.

If connoisseurship involves perceiving what is significant in educational events or materials, effective criticism also requires a way to reveal those qualities. "Connoisseurship is the art of appreciation, criticism is the art of disclosure."\(^4\) Put another way, "criticism is the art of disclosing the qualities of events or objects that connoisseurship perceives."\(^5\) We can never reveal these qualities directly. Classroom events observed in a visual mode cannot be translated, in the literal sense at least, into the discursive mode. What the critic does is build a "disclosure model" as a "new mode of representation" in an effort to "generate new propositions that reveal the

\(^{35}\) Ibid., p. 195.

\(^{36}\) Ibid., p. 193.

\(^{37}\) Ibid., p. 197.
phenomena.\(^{38}\) To put the same idea another way, the critic attempts to "create a rendering of a situation, event, or object that will provide pointers to those aspects of the situation, event or object that are in some way significant."\(^{39}\) What is selected as significant will depend on the values, theories and models which the researcher holds and also on the purposes which the critic has in mind.

Eisner identifies three major dimensions of educational criticism - description, interpretation, and evaluation.\(^{40}\) The descriptive aspect, which is probably the most demanding, is "an attempt to identify and characterize, portray, or render in language the relevant qualities of educational life."\(^{41}\) In the interpretative aspect, theories, models or concepts are used to account for classroom events and predict their likely consequences. "The interpretative aspect of criticism asks: What does the situation mean to those involved?"

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(38) Mann, op. cit., p. 11.

(39) Eisner, op. cit., p. 197.

(40) Similarly, Willis uses the term "description", "disclosure of meaning" and "judgement" to describe the process of criticism. See: G. Willis, "Qualitative Evaluation as the Aesthetic, Personal, and Political Dimensions of Curriculum Criticism", in G. Willis (ed.), Qualitative Evaluation, Berkeley, 1978, pp. 11-13.


(41) Eisner, op. cit., p. 203.
How does this classroom operate? What ideas, concepts, or theories can be used to explain its major features? The evaluative aspect of criticism involves judgements about the value of the processes and outcomes of schooling. Our description is to some degree evaluative because of the selective perception with which we observe events or situations, and also because "the point of educational criticism is to improve educational processes." We apply educational criteria in making judgements, and while these criteria may differ between critics, the grounds on which value choices are made can be elaborated:

Although there is no sharp line between these aspects of educational criticism, there is a difference in focus and emphasis. The descriptive aspect aims at the vivid rendering of the qualities perceived in the situation. The interpretative attempts to provide an understanding of what has been rendered by using, among other things, ideas, concepts, models, and theories from the social sciences and from history. The evaluative aspect of educational criticism attempts to assess the educational import or significance of the events or objects described or interpreted. The major function of the critic here is to apply educational criteria so that judgements about such events are grounded in some view of what counts within an educational perspective.

(42) Ibid., p. 207.
(43) Ibid., p. 209.
(44) Ibid., p. 211.
Qualitative forms of inquiry, such as educational criticism, do not make use of the conceptual tools, statistical procedures and research designs of traditional research in the social sciences and education but Eisner argues that it may still be considered as "objective" research. While traditional researchers may argue that scientifically derived beliefs are testable, this is not the only way in which ideas can be held to be true. Many fundamental theoretical structures rely as much on the agreements among believers - for example, a cognitivist view by Piagetians or a behaviourist view amongst Skinnereans - as they do on scientific methods and research. What objectivity means is that "we believe in what we believe and that others share our beliefs as well", a process called "consensual validation". If "objectivity" rests on agreements of this kind, "what we can productively ask of a set of ideas is not whether it is really true but whether it is useful, whether it allows one to do one's work more effectively, whether it enables one to perceive the phenomenon in more complex and subtle ways, whether it expands one's intelligence in dealing with important problems."\(^46\)

Given this view, educational criticism receives consensual validation through two important processes -

(45) Ibid., p. 214.

(46) Ibid.
structural corroboration and referential adequacy. This study has been guided by both of these processes.

Structural corroboration is "a process of gathering data or information and using it to establish links that eventually create a whole that is supported by the bits of evidence that constitute it. Evidence is structurally corroborative when pieces of evidence validate each other, the story holds up, the pieces fit, it makes sense, the facts are consistent." 47 The process is similar to that used by prosecution and defense lawyers in legal cases where a structurally corroborated set of facts is presented to persuade a jury to convict or acquit the accused. What we are concerned about is the extent to which the facts presented, and the interpretation of those facts, are corroborated or support one another.

Structurally corroborated cases, however, may be false. As Eisner comments "nothing is so persuasive as the swindler's story." 48 Referential adequacy must be determined "by checking the relationship between what the critic has to say and the subject matter of his or her criticism." 49 In this way educational criticism is an empirical undertaking.

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(47) Ibid., p. 215.
(48) Ibid., p. 216.
(49) Ibid.
We check the referential adequacy of educational criticism by testing criticism against the object or event which it seeks to describe, interpret and evaluate.

In relation to structural corroboration in this thesis, data has been gathered from the various curriculum documents which corroborates or supports the interpretation which is presented about each of the significant questions which have been asked about the curriculum materials. An attempt has been made to ensure that the data which is presented, and the interpretation of this data, corroborate and support one another. An attempt has also been made to ensure that the interpretation of the data is related to the curriculum materials to ensure the referential adequacy of the interpretation which is presented. This analysis can be tested against the curriculum materials which it seeks to describe, interpret and evaluate.

Other major dimensions of the process of educational criticism - that is, description, interpretation and evaluation - have been built into the framework of this study. The descriptive component of this study endeavours to render the important qualities perceived in each set of curriculum materials. This component has been heavily based on the materials presented in the curriculum publications. The interpretative component attempts to provide an understanding
of what has been selected as significant. This has been done by a restatement, or reformulation (sometimes in diagramatic form) of ideas or procedures outlined in the curriculum statements. In places, other material has been drawn on, where necessary, to clarify issues and to support conclusions reached. The evaluative component attempts to assess the educational importance of the materials which have been described and interpreted. This has been done by outlining what are perceived to be strengths and weaknesses of current programs.

As a guide in the reading of the curriculum publications, and in the writing of the analysis, specific areas were selected for investigation.

Areas Investigated in the Curriculum Publications

A reading of the curriculum publications lead to the selection of the following areas for investigation.50

(a) What is Social Studies? - that is, the ways in which social studies is defined. Here, an attempt was made to identify the attributes by which social studies was recognised.

(50) The article by D.M. Bennett, "The Study of Society in Australian Secondary Schools", Quarterly Review of Australian Education, Vol. 2, No. 1 (September, 1968), pp. 1-2, was helpful in deciding what would be considered in areas (b), (c), (d) and (e).
as part of the primary school curriculum.

(b) Aims and Rationale. The particular focus in this area was on the purposes of the curriculum statements. This involved the extent to which purposes were seen to be social or intellectual - that is, whether the aim was to teach children how to behave in society, or to provide knowledge and intellectual training. If the aim was to "fit the individual to society" was the concern to help the child to adjust to society, or to develop a capacity for independent judgement and action? Furthermore, if the aim was to provide intellectual education, the extent to which this involved both the teaching of particular content, and the development of intellectual abilities, was examined. Finally, whether or not conflicts exist between attempts to provide social and intellectual education was also considered.

(c) Content. In this area, the ways in which knowledge is selected from the mass of information available, and how this is structured in the curriculum, were examined.

(d) Learning Experiences and Teaching Strategies. In this area, the focus was on identifying the teaching strategies which were suggested to achieve stated aims, and the extent to which teaching strategies related to the aims of the curriculum. The practicality of implementing these teaching strategies given the physical conditions which exist in
schools, and the range of abilities which exist amongst children, were also considered.

(e) Evaluation. Here, an attempt was made to identify what children learn from the curriculum and how pupil outcomes are evaluated. The extent to which the subject matter was appropriate for children, within their abilities to handle, and related to their background and interests, was also examined.

In Chapters 2, 3 and 4 curriculum publications from different States within given periods are analysed in relation to each of these areas.

Grouping of Curriculum Documents for Analysis

Another consideration in planning this thesis was the way in which the large number of curriculum publications would be grouped for the purposes of analysis. A review of the curriculum publications on a State-by-State basis was rejected because this would have lead to a large amount of unnecessary duplication. In relation to the programs of the 1950s and early 1960s for instance, virtually the same comments would have been repeated for each of the courses of study from each State.
In considering alternative ways in which the curriculum materials could be classified three broad periods in the development of social studies curricula tended to emerge. The programs of the 1950s and early 1960s appeared to form a distinct grouping. These programs possessed many features in common. Moreover, the features which they did share were significantly different from many of the features found in later curriculum statements.

Curriculum materials published after this period, however, could not be so easily classified. While "current approaches" appeared to be an obvious grouping, difficulties were experienced in attempting to place the current Queensland program, published in 1970, in this category. While this program introduced new ideas based on important overseas developments, it now appears to be incomplete in several aspects when compared with other current programs which have resulted from much longer periods of research and development. This judgement is, I believe, supported by recent developments in Queensland which recognise the need for "curriculum improvement". 52

For the purposes of analysis the curriculum publications were classified into three groups.

(51) See pages 58-59.
(52) See Appendix A.
The first group contained curriculum publications from the 1950s and early 1960s and these have been reviewed in Chapter 2.

The second group was formed from the curriculum publications from the late 1960s and throughout the 1970s. These publications contained features which were not present in the courses of study from the 1950s and early 1960s reviewed in Chapter 2. Many of these features were developed more fully in current programs. Therefore, curriculum materials published in the late 1960s and throughout the 1970s have been categorised as attempts to explore new approaches and have been reviewed separately in Chapter 3.

The third group was made up of current curriculum publications, published in the 1980s, and these have been examined in Chapter 4.

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(53) Although the unit booklets for the current Victorian program Society in View were published in 1978 the program was not complete until the Handbook was published in 1981 (see page 84).
CHAPTER 2

SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAMS OF THE 1950s AND EARLY 1960s

1. MATERIALS

In this chapter several documents from the 1950s have been reviewed. These include courses of study in social studies from Victoria (1954),\(^1\) New South Wales (1952 and 1959),\(^2\) Queensland (1952),\(^3\) and Western Australia (1955)\(^4\).

Several programs from the early 1960s have also been reviewed. These include courses of study from New South Wales (1963)\(^5\) and Queensland (1964)\(^6\) which were only minor "revisions" of earlier programs, as well as the earliest

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(1) Education Department of Victoria, Courses of Study for Primary Schools: Social Studies, 1954. Melbourne, 1954.

(2) Education Department of New South Wales, Curriculum for Primary Schools: Social Studies. Sydney, 1952; Curriculum for Primary Schools: The Social Studies (1959 Revision), Sydney, 1959.


(4) Education Department of Western Australia, Curriculum for Primary Schools: Social and Moral Education. Perth, 1955.

(5) Education Department of New South Wales, Curriculum for Primary Schools: The Social Studies (1963 Revision), Sydney, 1963.

program which could be obtained from South Australia.\footnote{7}

While these documents vary considerably in length they are basically similar in that they outline the courses of study for the various grade levels in the primary school. The content to be covered at each grade level is outlined in detail and only brief comments are made on defining social studies, the aims which should be pursued, the rationale for these aims, and the teaching strategies which should be followed.

The 1955 Western Australian curriculum for primary schools, however, was different in format. Unlike other courses of study which consisted almost entirely of an outline of the content to be covered this document outlined content in only seven pages. Additional sections were included comprising a General Introduction to Social Education (five pages), Comments on Courses (six pages), and Notes and Suggestions (twenty pages). As a result this document provides insights into the aims and purposes of social studies which are not available from a review of the other curriculum publications from the same period.

The following interpretation of the courses from the 1950s and early 1960s draws on all of these documents. The

\footnote{7} Education Department of South Australia, \textit{Course of Instruction for Primary Schools: Social Studies}. Adelaide, 1961.
intention is to disclose qualities of selected aspects of social studies rather than to make a complete review of each of these curriculum statements. Attention is focussed on how social studies was defined, what aims were seen to be important, what rationale was provided for these aims, what methods were to be used, what content was to be followed, and how the outcomes of the programs were to be evaluated. General conclusions about these courses of study are made in a final appraisal.

2. WHAT IS SOCIAL STUDIES?

To ask what social studies is involves defining the essential characteristics of this subject area; that is, outlining what the important concepts are which this area of the curriculum attempts to develop understanding about, and what procedures can be used to examine aspects of the social world. According to Dufty we can say that a discipline consists of "a body of thinking, speaking, and, above all, writing by ... scholars which consists of facts, concepts, generalisations, and theories" as well as "a method of approach to knowledge, i.e., a process whereby these scholars acquire, organise, and use their knowledge."8 These criteria define the important characteristics by which we recognise a subject area or discipline and influence the aims which are

set, the content which is examined, and the methods by which it is investigated.

There is little in the programs of the 1950s and early 1960s, however, to indicate that this question was examined in any detail. The definitions which are given for social studies are vague statements which fail to identify the important characteristics of this area of the curriculum. In the 1954 Victorian course of study, for instance, social studies was described as being a "composite" of history, geography and civics. The notes accompanying the syllabus stated that these subjects should "become fused in social studies" along with material from "such school subjects as health, science, nature-study, art and literature." Similarly, the 1952 New South Wales course of study considered that History and Geography, and Ethics, Anthropology, Social Psychology and Political Science to a lesser extent, should be "interwoven" by teachers "carrying out the principle of judicious correlation." Social studies was viewed, rather vaguely, as having something of a "composite character" as a result of this merger of several disciplines.  

An attempt to define social studies was made for the first time in the 1959 New South Wales course of study. The

(9) Education Department of Victoria (1954), op. cit., p. 3.
(10) Education Department of New South Wales (1952), op. cit., p. 151.
writers of this statement considered that social studies "of their very nature ... deal with man, with man's world and man's development". They went on to add that "a rich and wide diversity of material, chosen from a variety of related subject fields, cannot of itself make an adequate syllabus in the Social Studies." Significantly the question of what methods should be pursued was also raised when the document noted that "from an equally important point of view the Social Studies may be regarded as a spirit or method of approach."\(^\text{11}\) In place of vague statements on the "composite character" of social studies, there is a suggestion that some attempt was made to identify the area of the primary school curriculum which had been labelled social studies. But while the question of definition was raised it was neither sharply focussed nor closely examined, and much of the 1959 course of study consisted of an uncritical repetition of large sections of the 1952 course.

The notes accompanying the 1961 South Australian course of study did provide a clearer statement on social studies. Social studies focussed on a particular area - "the life of man in society" - and involved a particular process as children attempted to explore and understand their social world. According to the notes, social studies:\(^\text{12}\)

\(^{11}\) Education Department of New South Wales (1959), \textit{op. cit.}, p. 1.

\(^{12}\) Education Department of South Australia (1961), \textit{op. cit.}, p. 91.
... seeks to foster in children the ability to think clearly about social problems, to lead them to understand the functioning of the community in which they live, and to appreciate that there are communities similar to or different from their own. It recognizes that Social Studies is a study of the people - what they are like, where they live, the work they do, the problems they have to face, and the way in which they organize their lives. It recognizes the importance of establishing links with the past, yet places particular emphasis upon the contemporary scene.

This was a definition of social studies which was characteristic of programs by the 1970s. But the expansion of this definition in the notes accompanying the course of study revealed that the framers of this course drew heavily on previous thinking in relation to social studies rather than on clarifying their own ideas in terms of what was implied in the definition they had provided. A traditional approach to both content and methods was evident in this course of study.

3. AIMS AND RATIONALE

The aim of all the social studies curricula reviewed was the education of children as "good citizens". According to the Queensland syllabus:


(14) Education Department of Queensland (1952), op. cit., p. 1.
The major objective of Social Studies is preparation of the child for life as an effective citizen of the community. The aim implies that teaching will not only be directed towards producing individuals sufficiently informed but will also be directed to the building of desirable social habits and attitudes.

To develop "sufficiently informed" individuals the course provided a survey of the geography of Australia, and the history of its exploration. In addition, aspects of the history and geography of other parts of the world were included. In Grade 5, for instance, children dealt with a diverse range of physical features and climatic regions, and with a daunting list of the major explorers of each of these geographical regions. In addition, children were also required to deal with a concurrent study of Africa and Asia during the same year. Civics features prominently at each grade level. Stress was placed on the interdependence of people in a modern community, and on the goods and services provided to the community by various individuals and organisations.

Effective citizenship depended not only on the imparting of information but also on the "building of desirable social habits and attitudes." The framers of this Queensland syllabus considered that "habits are built by practice" and that "children should be given opportunities to participate regularly in school ceremonies and to perform regular services to the community." Stress was placed on "corporate activities" which involved participation in group activities such as "Morning Assembly", "House System", and so on. "Character-
forming stories" designed to give "indirect moral training" and to inculcate values were also included to develop the "desirable habits and attitudes". 15

It was noted earlier that most curriculum statements from the 1950s and early 1960s included only brief explanatory statements about social studies and that they consisted almost entirely of an outline of the content to be covered. The 1955 Western Australian course of study, however, contained a "General Introduction to Social Education" which provided considerable information, and important insights, into why "good citizenship" was selected as a goal of social studies programs. The case presented, which draws on some of the early work in the field of sociology before 1930, is obscure but nevertheless important in reaching a greater understanding of courses of study from this period.

The "General Introduction to Social Education" in the 1955 Western Australian courses of study commenced with a lengthy quotation from Hobhouse 16 which was said to portray "the stuff whereof society is made": 17

(15) Ibid.

(16) L.T. Hobhouse (1864-1929) was the first professor of sociology (1907) at the London School of Economics. His important published works included Mind in Evolution (1901), The Material Culture and Social Institutions of the Simpler Societies (1915), with co-authors Wheeler and Ginsberg, and Social Development (1924).

(17) Education Department of Western Australia (1955), op. cit., p. 1.
Essentially the subject matter of sociology is the interaction of individual minds, each in a manner cased in its own shell, for ever divided from its nearest, yet reaching out to one another, responding and craving response, co-operating willingly and unwillingly, consciously and unconsciously, yet at the same time jostling, thrusting one another aside, trampling down the weaker, with partial aims vividly realized and deeper common needs imperfectly understood, moving in the mass on lines which no foresight of theirs has traced, yet not without eventual power of self-guidance and the emergent vision of the true goal.

This view of society, as Ginsberg\(^\text{18}\) commented, saw societies or communities as "systems of interdependent parts, maintaining themselves as wholes, by the mutual adaptation of the parts to the requirements of the whole. In so far as there is genuine organic harmony, in so far as communities rest upon free co-operation, their parts have both interdependence and self-determination." In society "individuals are mutually interdependent, yet each individual and ... each group of individuals, is in varying degrees self-centered and even hostile to others."\(^\text{19}\)

The notes went on to discuss how individuality and sociality could be reconciled in the interests of social

\(^{18}\) One of the writers, with Wheeler and Hobhouse, of The Material Culture and Social Institutions of the Simpler Societies (1915).

development. Mention was made of Hobhouse's work *Social Development* (1924) which was seen as tracing "the growth of society from the undifferentiated and unenterprising primitive to the modern highly complex, highly differentiated society." It was noted, also, that the first requirement of social progress was "efficient organization" which meant "the specialization of functions, and the division of labour, which in turn means that large numbers of people will inevitably occupy subordinate positions in the economic hierarchy."20

The argument put forward was that individual self-determinism had to be reconciled with those features of society which facilitated social progress. Individual demands of "democracy for 'Liberty and Equality'"*, for instance, had to be consistent with "social efficiency and the subordination and passive obedience to constituted authority - the lot in life of the vast majority of social units" if a high degree of social development was to be achieved. The problem was to identify those conditions under which each individual member of society could be allowed to realise his own self-centered ends without jeopardising the social progress of society.21

As Ginsberg noted, the problem was "how to reconcile individuality and sociality, how to secure those conditions in which each individual in realizing his own powers served the social

(20) Education Department of Western Australia (1955), *op. cit.*, p. 1.

whole, and in which at the same time that social whole helped him and sustained him in the realization of his faculties."^22

The solution to the problem depended on identifying what it was that constituted social development. Three possibilities were identified. Firstly, "growth of power and magnitude"; secondly, "a further differentiation of function"; and thirdly, "the more complete fulfilment of common purposes". The notes stated that "perhaps the truth is that development consists of all three" but the third alternative was consistent with the argument which had been presented. Again, this drew heavily on Hobhouse:^23

Social development, Hobhouse argues, depends upon or expresses the growth of social mentality, that is the progressive recognition by individuals of their mutual relations in the common good. By social mentality is not meant a unitary common self or mind, nor even an articulate system of ideas and purposes, but rather a mental condition widely dominating thought and action, a sum of habits, dispositions, ideas effective in a group of interacting minds ... The growth of the common mind and will in range, in impartiality and generality, is reflected in the advancing movement of civilization ... the underlying force of historical evolution, Hobhouse claims, is to be found in the growing power of mind and the essence of his thesis would seem to be ... that it is fundamentally an effort towards unity and integration.

Social development depended on the co-operation of members of the society working to achieve common purposes. At the same

(22) Ginsberg, op. cit., p. 53.
(23) Ibid.
time the harmony which existed in society provided opport-
unities for the expression of individual needs and interests. 
Co-operation was a key concept and, as a result, the social-
isation of children was an important objective of education:24

Social education emphasises the importance of active and willing co-operation on the part of the individual in effectively meeting the great human needs. On the ability and desire of members of the community to co-operate with one another for the common good rests the very foundations of our social structure. Furthermore, without the general spirit of co-operation, the individual cannot fully realise his possibilities; in other words, he can find the opportunity for the full development of his powers only by co-operating with others: apart from society the individual is an abstraction. The importance of socialization in any scheme of education is therefore obvious.

The notes accompanying the course of study also identified the mechanisms by which this process of socialisation might be achieved. Firstly, children needed to be provided with opportunities for social interaction and experience, so that "a group consciousness, that is, a realization of the inter-dependence of the members of the group to which he belongs - the family group, the school group, the neighbourhood group, the district group, the state group, the nation group, the British Commonwealth group, and the world group" could be developed. According to the notes:25

(24) Education Department of Western Australia (1955), op. cit., p. 3.
(25) Ibid., pp. 3-4.
As soon as the child is old enough to do so in even the smallest degree, he must be helped to see that the group can attain its highest efficiency only as each individual does his share. That is true in every group, whether it be small or great, a family or a nation. The group's ability to help its individual members is impaired when even one member does his share badly; hence each must shoulder his own responsibilities.

Secondly, children were to be provided with the social knowledge necessary for effective co-operation. The content of the syllabus drew heavily on "history, geography, civics, scripture, safety first and current news" which "considered together ... form social studies" and which "bear more directly than others on the socialization of the individual." Civics, for instance, was thought to indicate "how the behaviour of the members of a civilized community is directed by custom and government; and how one should direct one's personal conduct in conformity with social demands."26

And thirdly, appropriate attitudes related to cooperation were to be developed. Children were to be encouraged, for instance, to "look with pride upon the worthy achievements of our forebears" and through the study of "heroic characters" come to understand that "the true hero is one who serves unselfishly and devotedly for the good of his fellow men". Similarly, studies of "peace-seeking individuals and nations"

(26) Ibid., p. 4.
and the work of the United Nations in developing international understanding and co-operation were to be stressed. Studies in which this key concept was not readily apparent - for example, conflicts such as wars - were to be handled with caution.  

The notes accompanying the 1955 Western Australian syllabus, therefore, provided an elaborate and carefully argued rationale for the inclusion of "good citizenship" as the aim of social studies. Given that this aim, and the content covered, in the Western Australian syllabus were similar to other courses of study, it is likely that a similar position to that expressed in the Western Australian syllabus was influential in the formulation of courses of study in other Australian states during the 1950s and early 1960s.

4. LEARNING EXPERIENCES AND TEACHING STRATEGIES

Most of the curriculum documents from this period stated that the courses in social studies required a "new approach" to the teaching of content compared with the earlier courses in civics, geography and history. The 1952 Queensland courses, for instance, stated that social studies presented "a challenge to the teacher upon whom devolves the real responsibility of making ... the syllabus 'new'. The teacher

(27) Ibid.
must devise methods of instruction, decide upon the depth of treatment of matter, and arrange experiences."²⁸ Further explanation of this new approach was not included, apart from a strong recommendation for "the encouragement of self-activity and the more frequent employment of the project or activity method."

However, the mass of geographical and historical information to be covered, as well as the various notes in the syllabus, would seem to suggest that "teacher-telling" was likely to have featured prominently in most classrooms. "Begin by telling of the voyages of Captain Cook and Matthew Flinders ..."; "Relate the stories of Oxley and the Brisbane River ..."; "Point out how the mountains noted acted as a barrier to expansion westward from Sydney ..." were some of the instructions which appeared for teachers of Grade 5.²⁹ Story-telling by the teacher was encouraged to vary the approach. It was recommended that the teacher take the children on "imaginary journeys by air to note giant hardwoods and wheatfields of Swanland", and to relate "stories from history" involving famous men and women such as William Tell, Joan of Arc and Florence Nightingale. The notes suggested that:³⁰

(28) Education Department of Queensland (1952), op. cit., p. 1.
(30) Ibid., p. 6.
The stories should be told, not read: this will necessitate wide reading and accurate knowledge on the part of the teacher. He should possess a vivid and fertile imagination, and the power to make scenes and conditions of life in other lands appear real in the minds of his pupils.

In the Western Australian course the suggestions on how the content might be taught took the form of "teaching tips" which teachers might use to "fix the minimum facts". The general format for classroom teaching appeared to be a period of "teaching-telling" followed by "drilling" exercises in map work, "fill-the-gap" exercises in which certain words were omitted from passages which children transcribed from the chalkboard, and the answering of comprehension questions based on text books. The "journey or adventure method" for teaching geography was suggested as a variation on the "teacher-telling" approach.

However, there does appear to have been an attempt to suggest alternative methods, although these are never clearly defined. The Victorian course, for instance, stated that "there will always be a definite place for the stimulating class lesson" but it was considered that "less reliance than formally will be placed on mass instruction, and more on the encouragement of individual and group work." It was also noted that "activity and experience are of great importance" and that "the basis of method in the teaching of social studies is pupil activity." What was meant by "pupil activity" was not clearly outlined, but it related, in part, to the
importance placed on "social living". The preface to the Grade 5 section of the course, for instance, stated that "group work by the pupils and sharing of knowledge gained will help to build up the attitude of team work so necessary in a democracy." Other sections of the notes seemed to place little importance on the methods to be followed. Teachers were advised that "methods of approach and lines of development outlined ... are suggestive only; teachers are encouraged to use their own initiative freely ..." But what seemed to be implied was that "activity" (discussions, excursions, constructive and creative activities, and so on) would not only provide experiences in "social living" but also make the acquisition of factual material more palliatible for children. For example, the comment was made that:

Though knowledge must be acquired and facts stored, activity and experience are of great importance; indeed they help in the acquisition of knowledge, by making it both more meaningful and more memorable to the pupils.

It was then left to the teacher to "fill gaps left by the investigations of the pupils, deal with difficulties not capable of solution by children working unaided, and, in particular, give much direction in the final summing up of the topic."31

Similarly, the 1952 New South Wales course of study cautioned against the use of teacher dominated methods, and

suggested the use of a wide range of "educative experiences":

Educative experiences may include such purposeful tasks as story-telling with effects, play reading or play writing, dramatization, lecture-ttes, discussions, reports, broadcasts, verse speaking, miming and radio broadcasts. In the manipulative field ... models ... sketches, plans and murals.

Whatever form these learning activities took, the syllabus suggested that the child should be provided with "some urge to think, create, clarify and interpret, so that facts assume colour and reality, while right attitudes are being developed, skills extended, horizons broadened, and general background enriched." In addition, the syllabus mentioned the need to provide "a dynamic experience for the child" and "a problem situation that will be a challenge to the pupil". While the syllabus did not abandon the "formal lesson" (made up of narratives, oral discussions, and study lessons") it did caution that "methods involving too many teacher-dominated situations are undesirable" and suggested the use of the "project method" as one effective means of handling the content of the program.

The basis for Project Teaching was an emphasis on "child-centered" rather than "subject-centered" approaches. The aim of primary education was seen as being directed towards promoting "each child's fullest personal development and his most effective participation in society." The whole child was to be educated, "not merely his intellect." Many advantages were claimed for Project Teaching. It was said to
be based on "the needs and interests of the children", problems could be "defined and solved by pupils and the teacher", and opportunities could be provided for children to "organize, evaluate, build, experiment, interview, read, share, dramatize, and express his own ideas in a variety of media". Moreover, it was thought that "individual differences are provided for because each child contributes to the work according to his capacity and potentiality", "opportunities are provided for developing skills in meaningful situations", and "desirable social habits" could be developed in group work activities.

The need for planning by the teacher was stressed, and several possible ways in which a Project might be developed were outlined. Significantly, for this was to be a criticism of Project Teaching in a later course of study, the explanation ended with the comment that "mere copying from encyclopaedias, reference books, guide books, pamphlets, achieves little." 32

In the 1959 New South Wales course of study "formal and informal lessons" were still considered to be appropriate methods. Formal lessons comprised "drill and practice lessons, testing, diagnosis of error and remedial treatment" and were considered necessary to "fix knowledge" and "develop skills."

(32) Education Department of New South Wales (1952), op. cit., p. 181.
On the other hand, informal lessons, while still "demanding preparation, direction and supervision by the teacher" were considered to provide the opportunity for children for "doing things by themselves, sometimes as individuals and sometimes as members of a group". Dramatisation, lecturelettes, and "study lessons" ("activities where children learn by discovery") were provided as examples of informal lessons.

Again, however, efforts were made to move away from the class lesson format and to suggest approaches which allowed children greater "participation" and "activity" in the learning process. The Unit of Work, which was considered to be "teaching at the highest level", was suggested as one means by which this could be done: 33

A Unit of Work is a method of approach in which children enjoy freedom to pursue chosen lines of inquiry towards a goal decided after class discussion and within limits determined by the teacher. Throughout the progress of the unit the teacher acts in a supervisory capacity, controlling and advising where he finds this is necessary. This control by the teacher constitutes the important difference between a Unit of Work and a Project.

This emphasis on planning, supervision and control was understandable given that the transcription of long passages from textbooks had often constituted "pupil activity" under the Project Method.

33 Education Department of New South Wales (1959), op. cit., p. 64.
In summary, the courses of study from this period were vague about the methods to be followed. While some of the courses of study suggested alternative approaches which allowed children greater "participation" in the learning process the purpose of these was not clearly outlined. However, children appeared to be involved in "discovering", "finding out" or "practising" the specific skills, facts or attitudes which had been determined by the teacher rather than in investigating topics of interest. Where mention was made of alternative approaches such as "activity and group-participation methods" these were seen to be more related to providing "training in social living" or to gaining "the enthusiastic co-operation of the class" rather than as being central to the task of investigating and explaining the social world.

5. CONTENT

The content of all the programs reviewed was similar. Since the major role of social studies was the preparation of children for citizenship of Australia and the British Commonwealth, attention was given to the history and geography of Australia, the United Kingdom, and some of the nations of the British Commonwealth. In addition, "loyalty to the throne and to the King" lead to importance being placed on "the celebration of special days, the various acts of commemoration and dedication, and the fulfilment of the goals of personal
and social conduct". Courses of study also recognised the need to prepare children for "world citizenship" by a selection of historical and geographical topics for study, as well as "an introduction to the worthy men and women of all times and all climes".34

In the Victorian course the content was arranged to "provide for the progressive widening of the children's experiences and interests, with resulting extension of knowledge".35 The scope of the course extended from the Home (Beginners), Family (Grade 1), and Community (Grade 2), in the infant grades, to Neighbourhood (Grade 4), Australia (Grade 5) and Lands of Our Fathers (Grade 6) in the upper primary grades. The reasons for this approach were not stated but the implication seemed to be that "the program parallels the child's ability to perceive more and more as he grows and develops."36

In the 1959 New South Wales course some concern was expressed about the amount of factual material which had to be covered. The syllabus was considered to be "a basic course" with "elective topics" from which the teacher could

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(34) Education Department of New South Wales (1952), op. cit., pp. 152-3.

(35) Education Department of Victoria (1954), op. cit., p. 4.

select "a unified, progressive course that expresses a due balance of the principles of Here and Now and of Heritage and Change in social education." The teacher was expected to decide "what he considers are the most important facts connected with each topic that he proposes to cover" and to see that "the children understand and know these facts and are able to relate them to one another."\(^{37}\)

What was meant by "relating facts", was not clear from the notes accompanying the syllabus. These notes mentioned that "there are many facts to be taught in the Social Studies, and the danger is that these may remain disassociated". It was suggested that "a clear relationship should exist between topics ... so that they are co-ordinated in a progressive and continuous programme or work". This would assist children to realise that "knowledge is capable of organization". Notions of the structure of a discipline were a later consideration in curriculum design in social studies, but some concern about the amount of factual material children had to grapple with, and with the organization of those facts, can be detected in the notes of this syllabus.

6. EVALUATION

None of the courses of study reviewed included discussion on how the outcomes of the course could be evaluated.

\(^{37}\) Education Department of New South Wales (1959), \textit{op. cit.}, p. 5.
However, since it was expected that "knowledge must be acquired and facts stored.\textsuperscript{38} tests were presumably held to see if children had retained an adequate amount of factual knowledge.

Only the 1964 Queensland course cautioned teachers about the use of procedures which "emphasize unduly the memorization of factual material." According to the notes accompanying this course "those responsible for setting tests and examinations" should also attempt "to ascertain whether the pupil is developing an ability to discuss life in other countries, whether he is beginning to appreciate issues involved in current international problems, and whether he is acquiring adequate study skills."\textsuperscript{39} However, specific suggestions on how this might be done were not included.

7. CONCLUSION

The programs of the 50s and early 60s were basically statements of the content to be covered at each grade level and only brief notes were included in these courses in relation to such things as aims, rationale and teaching strategies.

\textsuperscript{38} Education Department of Victoria (1954), \textit{op. cit.}, p. 3.

\textsuperscript{39} Education Department of Queensland (1964), \textit{op. cit.}, p. 2.
In retrospect, several shortcomings are evident in these programs. Firstly, the basic intention of social studies teaching was the development of "good citizens" who would take their place in a static social world. As discussed earlier, this was to be achieved by giving children sufficient information, and by encouraging desirable social habits and attitudes, which would enable them to "fit into" society rather than equip them with the skills to adapt to a changing social world. Secondly, there was no real attempt to define social studies - that is, to clearly identify the knowledge and methods of inquiry which distinguished social studies from other areas of inquiry. Thirdly, while most programs suggested a move away from teacher directed methods, alternative approaches to structuring learning activities were not outlined in detail. And finally, there appeared to be little concern about the vast amount of factual knowledge which children were expected to learn and few attempts to design experiences which would give children a broad understanding of the social world.

By the late 1960s the need for curriculum revision in social studies was widely recognised, and several "new" curriculum statements appeared in the late 1960s and early 1970s. These developments are reviewed in Chapter 3.

CHAPTER 3

THE 60s and 70s - EXPLORING NEW APPROACHES

1. MATERIALS

In this chapter a number of curriculum documents from various states have been examined. These include courses of study from New South Wales (1975), Queensland (1970), South Australia (1967), and Western Australia (1968).

In the case of Victoria no social studies materials were published in this period. In 1966, twelve years after the publication of the 1954 course, a survey of teachers was made "to ascertain to what extent teachers now considered the course unsatisfactory." The survey indicated that:

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(1) The documents produced by New South Wales in 1963, and by Queensland in 1964, have been discussed in the previous chapter. In the case of New South Wales the 1963 "revision" was almost identical with the 1959 course, while in Queensland the 1964 course only introduced minor changes to the 1952 course. To examine these further would be to repeat similar comments to those made in the previous chapter. Similarly, the 1961 South Australian course belongs with the documents of the 1950s and aspects of this course of study have also been discussed in the previous chapter.

(2) See footnote 23.

(3) See footnotes 18-22.

(4) See footnotes 9-11.

(5) See footnotes 12 & 13.

The dissatisfaction with so much of the existing course indicates that any revision will need to consider the writing of a completely new course round a new structure. A revision of content within the existing structure does not appear to be practicable.

As a result the 1954 course remained in use (unrevised, until it was finally withdrawn from sale in 1981) until the major curriculum revision was complete with the publication of the new social studies program entitled *Society in View* in 1980-1981.

Curriculum documents which attempted to present new approaches to social studies started to appear in the late 1960s.

In South Australia, new materials were published in 1967. These consisted of three books entitled *Social Studies: Years 1-3* (sixty-three pages), *Social Studies: Years 4-5* (forty-seven pages), and *Social Studies: Years 6-7* (sixty-

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(7) This course of study is still listed as source material for the development of social studies programs in schools in Education Department publications. See: C-Scope (Education Department of Victoria), No. 9 (August 1984), p. 5.

(8) This program is discussed in Chapter 4.

(9) Education Department of South Australia, *Social Studies: Years 1-3*. Adelaide, 1967.

(10) Education Department of South Australia, *Social Studies: Years 4-5*. Adelaide, 1967.
eight pages). Each book included a teachers' guide of ten pages containing additional information.

In Western Australia, a considerable amount of information was published. Revised curriculum publications appeared in 1968. These consisted of a syllabus outline, a five page document which listed the general objectives, and suggested content, of social studies, and a set of Teachers' Notes, an eighty-eight page booklet providing additional information. A statement entitled Rationale for Social Studies in the Primary School, which appeared in 1972, provided additional notes in relation to social studies teaching, and appendices on learning objectives, the use of library resources and note-taking skills. A "discussion document" called Social Studies: Years 1-10 appeared in 1977.

To assist teachers preparing social studies programs twenty-six "topic books" (actually two separate publications


(13) Education Department of Western Australia, Primary Social Studies Syllabus: Teachers' Notes: 1968. Perth, 1968.

(14) Education Department of Western Australia, Rationale for Social Studies in the Primary School. Perth, n.d.

(15) Education Department of Western Australia, Social Studies Years 1-10. Perth, n.d.
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- a *Teachers' Source Book* and a pupil activity book) were produced by 1977.\(^{16}\) At least one additional topic book was produced after 1977.\(^{17}\) Several of these topic books have been reviewed in this study - *People at Work* (Year 3), *The Olden Days* and *Treasure* (Year 4), *Buildings* (Year 5), *Cooking, Explorers - Across the Blue Mountains* and *Explorers - Beyond the Blue Mountains* (Year 6), and *The Rhine River* and *Western Australia* (Year 7). While these publications have changed slightly in the period from 1972 to 1979, and vary according to the year level for which they have been designed, the basic format of each booklet is similar. The student activity booklets contain illustrations, maps, extracts, photographs and other source materials for children to examine. The *Teachers' Source Books* list the main ideas to be examined, the skills to be developed in relation to obtaining and using information, and suggestions for the teacher for helping children understand the problems, ideas, and concepts introduced in the student activity booklets. Lists of other source materials are also provided. These materials seem to provide interesting activities for children, practical assistance for teachers in planning learning activities, and relevant suggestions on how learning activities might be evaluated.

This syllabus is the only Australian program to have provided

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\(^{16}\) A summary of each topic book was provided in: *Education Department of Western Australia, Overviews*. Perth, 1977.

\(^{17}\) *Education Department of Western Australia, Western Australia*. Perth, 1979. This was prepared for Western Australia's 150th year celebrations.
these forms of resource materials.

The Queensland Syllabus in Social Studies for Primary Schools was published as Book 1 (Grades 1 and 2), Book 2 (Grades 3, 4 and 5), and Book 3 (Grades 6 and 7). Two additional books called A Guide for the Social Studies Teacher were also published: Book 1 for Grades 1 and 2, and Book 2 for Grades 3 to 7.

Each of the Syllabus booklets contained brief (three page) introductory statements concerning the objectives and organisation of the syllabus, followed by an outline of the content of the program. A Guide for the Social Studies Teacher (Books 1 and 2) provided teachers with additional information on the assumptions underlying the Syllabus, the selection and organisation of content, the structuring and sequencing of learning experiences, the evaluation of outcomes, and suggestions for developing units of work in the classroom.

(18) Education Department of Queensland, Syllabus in Social Studies for Primary Schools, Book 1, Grades 1 & 2. Brisbane, 1970.


In New South Wales the 1963 course was replaced by the 1975 Curriculum for Primary Schools - Social Studies Guidelines. This document was designed as "a broad framework" for teachers in relation to social studies teaching rather than as "a set syllabus of compulsory topics to cover". This forty-five page booklet presented the rationale and objectives for social studies, psychological background on the primary school child, and a framework for the organisation of content. Other sections of the booklet provided information on the structuring of teaching-learning activities, evaluation, and unit writing. Information was listed in summary point form following a decimal classification.

Amongst the documents reviewed, only the Queensland program outlined the reasons for the revision of the curriculum. The major factors identified as influencing the 1970 revision were "modern educational practices and theories, the 'knowledge explosion', the contribution made to social studies by separate social science disciplines and contemporary studies in curriculum". In addition, the 1970 revision purported to draw on the curriculum research and development projects initiated by Dr. Hilda Taba and developed by members of the Taba Curriculum Development Project in California. This project, devised over a ten year period of trial and development between 1959 and

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1969, provided the Queensland program "with a useful theoretical framework" and the 1970 revision was seen as one of "translating Taba's scheme into terms more directly applicable to Queensland".24

These curriculum materials were published at a time when there was a considerable amount of research and development in relation to social studies teaching both overseas and in Australia. A number of significant social studies programs were published in the United States of America,25 of which the Taba Social Studies Curriculum and Man: A Course of Study presented innovatory approaches.26 A considerable number of books and journal articles were published of which the works by Fenton,27 Jarolimek,28 and Taba, Durkin, Fraenkel and McNaughton,29 and the Yearbooks prepared for the National

(24) Education Department of Queensland, Guide (Book 1), op. cit., p. 5.


(26) These curriculum projects are reviewed in: Education Department of Victoria (Curriculum & Research Branch), Reviews of Kits and Programs for Primary Social Studies (C 75/320). Melbourne, 1975.


Council for the Social Studies by Berg,\textsuperscript{30} Carpenter,\textsuperscript{31} Fair and Shaftel,\textsuperscript{32} and Fraser\textsuperscript{33} were of particular significance.

In Australia, numerous articles and reports were published,\textsuperscript{34} as well as major research studies by Piper\textsuperscript{35} and Whitehead.\textsuperscript{36}

2. WHAT IS SOCIAL STUDIES?

In the courses reviewed, the characteristics, attributes or qualities by which we might recognise this subject

\begin{itemize}
\item (34) For example, see the listing of the research completed by members of the Victorian Curriculum and Research Branch in "The Primary School Social Studies Program. Progress Report, August, 1972" in \textit{Curriculum and Research Bulletin} (Education Department of Victoria), Vol. VII, No. 4 (October, 1972).
\end{itemize}
area were not clearly defined. Instead most curriculum documents included definitions of what the subject area was thought to involve, and this was often done by describing social studies as having both a "field" and a "process".\(^{37}\) The field concerned the content of the program which was usually described in terms of the way man lived and operated in society. The Queensland Guide, for instance, quoted a passage which referred to the field of study being "everything about man and his relationships with other men and with his physical and social environments".\(^{38}\) The New South Wales Guidelines stated that the syllabus was concerned "with persons, their relationships with others and with their environment."\(^{39}\)

The process referred to the activities children engaged in. According to one writer, this involved children "actually viewing society at first hand, realistically and objectively, and seeing what sense and order they can make out of it."\(^{40}\) The Guidelines, for instance, stated that social studies involved children in "a process of inquiry into personal development, social relationships and environ-


\(^{38}\) Education Department of Queensland, Guide (Book 1), op. cit., p. 1.

\(^{39}\) Education Department of New South Wales, Guidelines, op. cit., p. 3.

\(^{40}\) Kydd, op. cit., p. 3.
mental issues". In some curriculum statements there was also a recognition of the need to prepare children for this task. The Queensland Guide noted that various "academic" or "thinking processes" (such as developing concepts, inferring and generalising, and applying generalisations) needed to be developed if primary school children were to gain the maximum benefit from a social enquiry. This was to become an important factor influencing some of the social studies programs in the 1980s.

Therefore, in contrast to the programs of the 1950s and early 1960s, some attempts were made to clarify the question of "What is social studies?". Although the response to this question took the form of outlining what social studies consisted of, rather than outlining the attributes by which we might recognise social studies as a distinct area of the curriculum, the definitions provided were much clearer than those in earlier courses of study. Social studies was not defined as being a composite of other subjects such as history, geography and civics but in terms of focusing on a particular area involving the way man lives and operates in society. And in place of vague notions of "activity methods" in earlier courses the programs of the 70s attempted to define

(41) Education Department of New South Wales, Guidelines, op. cit., p. 3.

(42) Education Department of Queensland, Guide (Book 1), op. cit., p. 6.
the "methods" or "processes" by which children's understandings of the social world might be developed. Further discussion of these "methods" is included in a later section of this chapter.

3. AIMS AND RATIONALE

The aims of social studies which were stated in the programs prepared early in the period under review appeared to differ little from those in the programs in the 1950s and early 1960s. Primary school social studies continued to be concerned with the development of children as "effective citizens". The South Australian course, for instance, was designed "to lay the foundations upon which children will become effective members of society". The Queensland syllabus saw a need to "enable the individual ... to accept the responsibility of active participation in the life of the community."

What was meant by "effective citizenship" was not clearly outlined but most curriculum documents reviewed provided additional information in relation to aims. The Western Australian program, for instance, discussed aims

(43) Education Department of South Australia, Social Studies: Years 4-5, op. cit., p. 3.

(44) Education Department of Queensland, Guide (Book 2), op. cit., p. 7.
under the headings of "Attitudes and Interests", "Knowledge and Understandings", and "Skills and Habits", an approach which was typical of other programs.

The first group of aims related to Attitudes and Interests. Attitudes were defined as representing "one's feelings as expressed in the tendency to react - to see, to hear, to think and to act - in a certain way to people, ideas and things". Interests were described as "tendencies to act when there is freedom to choose". It was suggested that attitudes were more likely to be acquired by "the child's interaction with his social environment" and teachers were encouraged to plan learning situations "which promote social interaction and foster desirable behaviour". Several specific attitudes and interests were listed for development. An "attitude of inquiry", for instance, could be developed by fostering "the child's natural curiosity and interests", by encouraging the child to ask questions and seek answers to stimulus situations arranged by the teacher (films, excursions, visiting speakers), and by giving the child the opportunity to choose their own topics for study.45

Other aims were grouped under the heading Knowledge and Understandings. The introduction to this group of aims in the Teachers' Notes stated that the intention was not to

(45) Education Department of Western Australia, Teachers' Notes (1968), op. cit., pp. 16-20.
teach factual information as "an end in itself". Instead, the function of facts was to "introduce, develop and refine social studies concepts and generalizations". As understanding of concepts and generalisations developed, "essential factual information" would be acquired in a "more meaningful context". Schools were encouraged to select the content to develop concepts and generalisations and this content would provide "the basic facts to be known". The aims in this section were expressed in terms of developing an understanding of concepts such as interdependence, physical environment, other peoples and cultures, social organisation (rules, laws, government), continuity and change, human needs (food, clothing, shelter), time and space (area, distance) and service (that is, "a study of eminent people whose lives illustrate qualities worthy of children's imitation").

A third group of aims concerned the development of Skills and Habits which were necessary for social studies learning. Teachers were encouraged to provide experiences which ensured "a systematic and sequential development of skills" when the observation of children's work revealed a need for a specific skill to be taught. The general model to be followed in teaching skills was outlined as "a careful explanation of what it does and how it is used, a good model showing how it works, a simple application under the teacher's

(46) Ibid., p. 22.
supervision, and ample practice in functional settings with gradual increases in complexity appropriate to the children's level of achievement."\(^{47}\)

The New South Wales Guidelines expressed aims differently. Four "objectives" in the Guidelines were seen to assist in the development of "effective citizens". These involved the development of "processes of thinking by which children can acquire, transform and apply concepts and generalisations", "an awareness of values, and an ability to make value judgements based on both evidence and belief", "positive feelings towards oneself and other people, and towards man's environment", and "responsible action based on the values people hold and the decisions they make."\(^{48}\)

The development of patterns of thinking, valuing, feeling and acting were to be achieved through inquiry in three interrelated areas: the personal area, where learning experiences were to be directed towards "developing an understanding of the nature of the individual"; the social area, where understandings related to the organisation and interaction of society were to be developed; and the environmental area, where concepts and generalisations formed concerned the

\(^{47}\) Ibid., p. 63.

\(^{48}\) Education Department of New South Wales, Guidelines, op. cit., p. 7.
relationship between man and his natural and cultural environment.

Very little information was provided in relation to the aims outlined in the curriculum documents. In the cases of South Australia and Western Australia no rationale was provided. In the Queensland syllabus, where the objectives were identical with the major categories of objectives identified by Taba, no rationale was provided; being told that these were "universally accepted objectives" was evidently considered sufficient to support their adoption in this program.

In the case of New South Wales the "rationale" was presented as a number of "assumptions" about social studies, children's learning, and the organisation of content. Some of these assumptions referred to why social studies should be taught, although the case for social studies was stated (in brief summary form) rather than argued. Social studies was said to contribute "to the development of individuals who can operate flexibly, autonomously and responsibility in their changing environment"; it was seen to be relevant to "the child's immediate and long-term needs by providing experiences to help him participate effectively in his daily living and

(49) Taba et al, op. cit., pp. 10-14.

(50) Education Department of Queensland, Guide (Book1), op. cit., p. 6.
assist his development as a mature person"; and it was aimed at "stimulating the child to develop concepts, processes, values, feelings and action patterns that underlie effective citizenship in a pluralist society." 51

The aims of social studies in the 1960s and early 1970s did not differ a great deal from the programs of the 1950s. "Effective citizenship" remained the intention of these programs. However, by the 1970s what was meant by the term had begun to change. Unlike earlier programs which attempted to socialise children to "fit into" a static social world, programs in the 1970s saw the need to attempt to equip children with the knowledge, skills and attitudes to cope with a changing social world. In the words of the New South Wales Guidelines the intention was to develop effective citizens who could operate "flexibly, autonomously and responsibly in a changing social and natural environment". This change in intentions was to be outlined in greater detail in programs in the 1980s which are reviewed in Chapter 4.

4. LEARNING EXPERIENCES AND TEACHING STRATEGIES

The programs reviewed professed to give less emphasis to content and greater importance to the methods or processes by which concepts and generalisations, and skills and attit-

(51) Education Department of New South Wales, Guidelines, op. cit., pp. 3-4.
udes were to be developed. But despite the stated intentions
detailed outlines of teaching strategies were not provided
and the comments which were made often provided little real
assistance in relation to developing new approaches to
teaching this subject area.

However, many of the curriculum statements did
provide suggestions which could be used. In the Western
Australian Teachers' Notes it was suggested that concepts
could be developed more effectively "when the meanings are
related to children's first hand experiences and clarified
further through a variety of examples using verbal devices
and other material." Each topic studied would include a
large number of concepts, and teachers were advised to select
"a few of the most important ones at a level which meets
children's needs and purposes." In relation to generalisations, it was noted that these were "best formed inductively":52

To enable children to do this, teachers
should pre-select those they consider
important and guide children to them
through rich and varied learning
experiences. Children should know
that a single observation or experience
may not provide sufficient evidence for
a sound generalization. They should
also know that a perfectly sound gener-
alization may need to be reviewed in
the light of subsequent development and
further information. Children should
be encouraged to form generalizations
in their own words. This will show
teachers to what extent children under-

(52) Education Department of Western Australia, Teachers'
Notes (1968), op. cit., p. 82.
stand the relationship between the concepts concerned.

In contrast to the detailed attention given to teaching strategies in the Taba Curriculum Project, on which the Queensland program was purported to be based, the Guide provided a simple model, where learning experiences were categorised as "introductory", "developmental" and "culminating".

"Introductory experiences" were designed to assist teachers and children to orient their thinking towards the unit themes and main ideas and were made up of two parts - "focussing experiences" which assisted children "to make connexions between their background experiences and the knowledge and attitudes to be explored" and, secondly, "co-operative planning experiences" which were designed to "assist children identify the nature of the learning tasks and the methods to be used for evaluating effective learning."

"Developmental experiences" were designed to provide opportunities for children "to acquire basic knowledge and to form attitudes, feelings and sensitivities." Finally, "culminating experiences" assisted children "to draw together

(53) Taba et al, op. cit., pp. 64-103.
(54) Education Department of Queensland, Guide (Book 2), op. cit., p. 15.
the concepts and ideas developed through previous experiences, and to make generalizations related to the unit and grade themes."

Sample unit outlines were included in the Guides. However, the "strategies" which were outlined consisted of suggestions as to the ways in which the content of each unit could be transmitted, rather than how processes could be developed, and it is not possible to identify a generalised format which would be applicable to all units.

In the New South Wales case, while it was noted that children undertaking social studies would be developing concepts and generalisations in relation to the social world, the emphasis in the Guidelines was placed on the processes by which these might be investigated. Therefore, teaching was involved with developing those processes which might enable children to think, value, feel and act more effectively. Additional information was provided for teachers on the strategies which might be used to develop these processes.

Thinking, involving processes by which children "acquire, transform and apply concepts and generalizations" was said to be developed by a variety of teaching and learning strategies ranging from "inquiry to exposition". "Inquiry" and "discovery" strategies, however, were favoured because these enabled the child "to develop flexible and useful
concepts and generalizations and to apply these in a variety of conditions to solve problems." Common features of these strategies were identified. The first feature was the acquisition of information through experience. Here the child either observed or asked questions about social phenomena to acquire information. Secondly, the child transformed and organised this information into concepts and generalisations to reveal relationships in the data. This process of transformation and organisation required the child to recognise and define a problem, group this data into various categories (classification), and then to form generalisations which related a number of concepts together in some meaningful way. Thirdly, the child extended or refined his concepts and generalisations by communicating these to others or by testing these in new situations. This process enabled the child to test generalisations which had been formed and, if necessary, to modify them.55

In relation to valuing, emphasis was also placed on the processes involved in developing value awareness (identifying and clarifying values), and the ability to make value judgements (that is, expressions of value placed on various aspects of experience such as objects, events or behaviour). Unlike earlier programs, the concern was not to inculcate a particular set of values but rather to enable children to

experience the processes by which they might examine their own values in relation to the personal area, the social area, and the environmental area. Moreover, the concern was not to expose children to a particular set of values, or a particular set of situations in which value judgements might be expressed, but rather the process of value awareness and value judgements. Many teaching-learning activities were suggested to provide experiences which would focus on the processes of value awareness and the ability to make value judgements. Teachers were advised to use observing, role-playing, illustrating, writing, simulating, interviewing, surveying, and value clarification exercises. The role of the teacher was considered to be that of the neutral facilitator, and teachers were advised that:

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... early disclosure of the teacher's value position in a dilemma or conflict situation may close discussion prematurely and forstall that open expression of ideas which is vital to the achievement of valuing and the ability to make value judgements based on evidence and belief.

Compared with earlier courses of study the curriculum documents reviewed in this chapter placed greater importance on teaching strategies. Unlike earlier courses of study where "methods" were vaguely described in terms of providing "activity" or "experience" for children, and were often "suggestive only", the courses reviewed here placed particular

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(56) Ibid., p. 19.
emphasis on the ways in which children investigated the social world. The New South Wales Guidelines in particular placed emphasis on the processes by which children acquired knowledge of the social world, and developed awareness of values and the ability to make value judgements. These suggestions which were made in relation to teaching strategies anticipated developments in the social studies curriculum documents of the 1980s. The development of these suggestions in the programs of the 1980s is discussed in much greater detail in Chapter 4.

5. CONTENT

Two major differences exist between the programs of the 1950s and early 1960s, and the programs of the late 1960s and early 1970s, in relation to the content of programs.

Firstly, less emphasis was placed on content and this is reflected in various courses in different ways. In some cases the content outlined was not compulsory. In the South Australian program, for instance, the course was presented as a series of topics which were "neither exclusive nor compulsory" and which were seen as "a guide to studies thought suitable for primary school students."57 In other courses the content to be covered was not specified. The New South

57 (57) Education Department of South Australia, Social Studies: Years 4-5, op. cit., p. 5.
Wales Guidelines advised that "teachers have freedom to select content samples". Advice was provided, however, on how these content samples might be selected.\textsuperscript{58}

A second major difference in relation to content was the way in which content was described. In the earlier courses of study content was considered to be the facts or information which children were expected to know. The intention of programs reviewed in this period, however, was not to teach factual information as an end in itself but rather to use factual information to investigate social studies concepts and generalisations. In the words of the Western Australian course, content was to be used to "introduce, develop and refine social studies concepts and generalisations". According to the Teacher's Notes:\textsuperscript{59}

Children's studies should be directed towards the development of important concepts and generalizations since these convey more lasting understandings about the social and physical world than isolated facts and snippets of information. Concepts are abstractions of classes of objects, institutions or experiences having certain properties in common, for example, State, famine, desert ... Generalizations are statements of laws, principles and conclusions of wide application expressing relationships between important concepts; for example: Man's way of life is influenced by

\textsuperscript{58} Education Department of New South Wales, Guidelines, \textit{Op. cit.}, pp. 8-12.

\textsuperscript{59} Education Department of Western Australia, Teachers' Notes (1968), \textit{Op. cit.}, p. 82.
his environment. Both emphasize meaning which should be kept within his range of ability. Teachers should note that no concept or generalization can be fully treated at any one level. Generally their development is a gradual process with new studies and greater maturity extending and enriching their initial understandings.

However, despite these changes in the ways in which content was described it is difficult to see any noticeable changes in the ways in which the content of these programs was organised. The South Australian and Western Australian programs were essentially an outline of the content to be covered. In the Queensland case the influence of this structuring of knowledge on the organisation of the syllabus itself is not clearly outlined. According to the Guide, "six key concepts have been selected for their potential value in integrating subject matter from several Social Sciences. They are GROUPS, NEEDS, RESOURCES, CHANGE, RULES, and CULTURE."60 These concepts (and related concepts which form a "concept cluster") "occur and re-occur in the Syllabus", and are "introduced in progressively greater depth and breadth from Grade 1 to 7."61 Elsewhere we are told that the syllabus is "spirally organized."62

(60) Education Department of Queensland, Guide (Book 2), op. cit., p. 9.
(61) Ibid., p. 8.
(62) Education Department of Queensland, Syllabus (Book 2), op. cit., p. iii.
Themes for each grade are selected for each year's work, and these "attempt to cater for the increasing breadth and depth of children's needs, interests and development as they progress through the Syllabus."\(^{63}\) The syllabus for each grade was presented in a number of units which related to the selected grade theme. "Main ideas" were stated for each of these units, and these were defined as:\(^{64}\)

... important ideas that children should gain and remember from their study of the Social Studies. Main ideas are more durable than specific facts. They provide centres for organizing content related to the development of the unit theme.

In developing this syllabus it would appear that some key features of the Taba program were considerably changed. Whereas the Taba curriculum centered "each year's work ... on several main ideas" and then arranged "individual units within a year's sequence ... around these main ideas",\(^{65}\) the Queensland syllabus outlined the content to be covered (organised in units) and generalisations (called "main ideas") which children might be expected to develop as a result of a study of the content of a particular unit. Whereas in the Taba program the main ideas acted as criteria for selecting or deleting specific content, the "main ideas" in the Queensland

\(^{63}\) Education Department of Queensland, Guide (Book 2), op. cit., p. 10.

\(^{64}\) Ibid., p. 11.

\(^{65}\) Taba et al, op. cit., p. 27.
syllabus often related directly to the specific unit content being studied. In effect, therefore, the syllabus was an outline of content to be covered at each grade level.

In the programs of the 1980s the use of generalisations as a guide to the selection of topics for study is clearly outlined. The ways in which generalisations about society are used to provide the structure for social studies in these programs is outlined in Chapter 4.

6. EVALUATION

Unlike earlier programs the curriculum documents reviewed from the 60s and 70s gave attention to evaluation. However, while the importance of evaluation was recognised, the notes accompanying the curriculum documents provided general advice only.

The quality of the advice varied greatly. In the South Australian case the advice was vague and simplistic. In fact, there was something alarming(?) about the simplicity of statements like the following:

It should be understood that assessment of a student's progress in this subject will be a complex task. There will be sections of the social studies course which cannot be tested individually,

(66) Education Department of South Australia, Social Studies: Years 4-5, op. cit., p. 12.
while other parts might be quite easily evaluated by the types of tests in use over the years. If these statements are accepted, most of the worry about assessment of social studies will disappear.

Four aspects which might be evaluated were noted. Firstly, "gathering a collection of facts" was seen to be readily tested using multiple choice, fill-the-gap, true and false questions, and essay questions. Secondly, to assess "developing sensory and physical skills in research, recording and reporting" it was considered that "five letter (or other) grades would suffice". Thirdly, the area of "social skills and attitudes", which was given prominence in the course, was considered to be too difficult to deal with, and the advice was given that "almost all that can be envisaged by way of assessment here is that the teacher believes the child's progress to be static, improved or depressed." Finally, problem-solving abilities could be assessed by "observations of changes in a child's confidence or method of attack". These simplistic comments provided little practical information and assistance for teachers.

The Queensland notes stated that "evaluation is the process of determining the extent to which the stated objectives of the curriculum are being achieved." 57

57 Education Department of Queensland, Guide (Book 1), op. cit., p. 11.
However, information was not provided on how the teacher might evaluate each of the major categories of objectives which were identified in the program. Instead, the advice was offered that "usually the outcomes to be evaluated will be those of the unit, but the overall aims of the whole course and the objectives for the specific year should not be neglected."\(^{68}\) The suggestion was made that the objectives of each unit "should be translated by the teacher into terms of desired pupil behaviours", presumably to identify specific behaviours which the teacher might test or observe. In addition the "summary of outcomes" at the end of each unit included general statements - for example, "Children should have improved in ability to see relationships and to apply knowledge gained from previous experiences to new situations"\(^{69}\) - and the approach seems to have been that these statements should be kept in mind when evaluating children's progress, as well as the specific "pupil behaviours" identified for each unit of work.

A separate section in the New South Wales Guidelines provided background for teachers in relation to evaluation. It was stated that the general purpose of evaluation was with "how well objectives are being achieved in the context of a

\(^{68}\) Ibid., p. 12.

\(^{69}\) Education Department of Queensland, Syllabus (Book 2), op. cit., p. 57.
particular teaching/learning environment." The concern was with the processes of thinking, valuing, feeling and acting which might be developed as a result of children investigating some focus question and dealing with some particular content sample. Evaluation was seen as a continuing process throughout a social enquiry or unit of work, but the purpose of evaluation at the end of a unit was "to assess the child's current level of development" in relation to processes of thinking, valuing, feeling and acting. It was suggested that "a wide variety of evaluation techniques should be used to assess the total development of the child" but what it was that teachers were looking for as an indication of development was not mentioned. While the concern was with the general development of processes which enabled children to think, value, feel and act, specific guidelines were not provided. In relation to thinking processes, for instance, more detailed information in relation to child development would have enabled teachers to establish "the child's current level of development".

The Western Australian program, however, did explore some alternative approaches to evaluation. There was a move away from structured techniques such as objective and essay tests to observation, questionnaires, role-play and discussion.

(70) Education Department of New South Wales, Guidelines, op. cit., p. 36.

(71) Ibid., p. 37.
which could be used, for instance, to evaluate aims in relation to attitudes and interests. Moreover, what was evaluated appeared to match more closely the intentions of the program. The aims related to knowledge and understanding, which had stressed the development of children's understanding of concepts and generalisations, were to be evaluated by techniques other than tests of factual recall. The following suggestions were provided for teachers in relation to evaluating the child's understanding of concepts and generalisations:

Select from a list relevant facts supporting a generalization.
Match generalizations with their supporting facts.
Match social institutions with their functions.
Support the choice of a true/false item with relevant detail.
Select the conclusion from charts, graphs, diagrams or sets of pictures.
Match statements of cause and effect.
In a given list of statements distinguish between fact and generalizations.
Select the generalization to explain why a situation exists.
State most important ideas learnt from a study or a visit.
Match a vocabulary or concepts with definitions or explanations.
Match pictures with their generalisations.
Select the possible result of a change.

The use of unstructured techniques, and the development of evaluation procedures which reflected the intentions of the

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(72) Education Department of Western Australia, Teachers' Notes (1968), op. cit., p. 62.
program, were characteristic of programs prepared in the 1980s. These developments are reviewed in the next chapter.

7. CONCLUSION

In this chapter various curriculum documents from the late 1960s and early 1970s have been reviewed. Each of these programs pointed to various developments which were to take place in the programs published in the early 1980s. In the courses from the 1960s and early 1970s aims were clearly expressed, suggestions were made on how content could be dealt with, and the importance of evaluation was recognised. By encouraging teachers to select the content which was most appropriate to particular groups of children, and by placing emphasis on the development of the child's understanding of concepts and generalisations, these programs marked a significant departure from earlier courses of study based on content. The methods by which primary school children could investigate the social world had started to receive attention, and in the programs of the 1980s these were to receive considerable emphasis.
CHAPTER 4

NEW SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAMS

1. MATERIALS

Curriculum documents from Victoria, New South Wales, South Australia and Western Australia have been reviewed in this chapter. ¹

In Victoria, the publication of materials resulting from the research and development commenced in 1966 was complete by 1981. ² This was titled Society in View and was presented in five books: the Society in View Handbook, ³ and four unit booklets called Social Organisation, ⁴ Culture, ⁵ Change, ⁶ and Natural Environment. ⁷ Initially these materials were only available after

(1) Information on current developments in Queensland and Tasmania is provided in Appendix A and Appendix B respectively.

(2) Drafts of these materials appeared earlier. Drafts of the units, and the Handbook, were distributed to colleges involved in initial teacher education in July 1977. Revised drafts of the Handbook appeared in 1979 and 1980. See also note 8 following.

(3) Education Department of Victoria, Society in View Handbook, Melbourne, 1981.

(4) Education Department of Victoria, Social Organisation, Melbourne, 1978.

(5) Education Department of Victoria, Culture, Melbourne, 1978.

(6) Education Department of Victoria, Change, Melbourne, 1978.

(7) Education Department of Victoria, Natural Environment, Melbourne, 1978.
the completion of a one week in-service program designed to familiarise teachers with the approach followed in *Society in View*, but by 1982 reductions in the amount of in-service funding available had made it difficult to maintain this requirement. 

In New South Wales the 1975 *Guidelines* statement on social studies was replaced with a *Curriculum Policy Statement 1982*, and six support documents titled *Planning Your Social Studies*, *Teaching and Learning Activities*, *Resources for Social Studies*, Social Studies - Total Curriculum: the

(8) Initially, attendance at an in-service program, which commenced in eight Melbourne metropolitan inspectorates in 1977 (see C-Scope (Education Department of Victoria), No. 3, May 1978, p. 7), was compulsory before teachers could receive materials. By 1982 however, the costs of running the in-service programs, and policy in relation to the time release of teachers, had severely restricted the number of programs being held and, hence, the distribution of materials. In 1982 copies of the Handbook were distributed to schools, and copies of the Handbook and the unit booklets became available for teachers wishing to purchase these (Education Gazette and Teachers' Aid, 28 January and 8 July, 1982).


In South Australia the new social studies curriculum was called Learning and Living and was presented in a number of publications.

A teacher's handbook titled Learning and Living: Years R-7. Social Studies: Curriculum Guidelines Part 1 presented the rationale, aims and structure of the curriculum and offered practical ideas concerning the planning and teaching of social studies.

A second handbook called Learning and Living: Years R-7. Social Studies Curriculum Guidelines Part II: Unit Outlines and Resources contained an outline of seven units.


(17) Education Department of South Australia, Learning and Living: Years R-7. Social Studies Curriculum Guidelines Part II: Unit Outlines and Resources. Adelaide, 1981.
of work at each year level as well as additional information on resources for each of these units.

Finally, additional books containing detailed units of enquiry for each year level in the primary school were also published. 18

The Western Australian curriculum documents resulted from a developmental process which commenced in 1975. Concurrently with the publications reviewed in the previous chapter 19 the K-10 Social Studies Syllabus Committee (K-10 S.S.S.C.) was examining a proposal to prepare a continuous social studies course for Years 1 to 10 (the years of compulsory schooling) in place of the separate courses of study for primary and secondary schools.

The impetus for a K-10 program appeared to be the problems associated with both the administrative separation of primary and secondary schools and the topic centered approach which has been advocated for primary schools since 1972. 20

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(18) The following publications all prepared by the Education Department of South Australia, have been reviewed:
Learning and Living: Years R-7. Social Studies: Curriculum Guidelines Part 3. Year R-1 Units, Year 2 Units, Year 3 Units, Year 4 Units, Year 5 Units, Year 6 Units, Year 7 Units. Adelaide, 1982.


(20) Education Department of Western Australia, Social Studies Years 1 to 10. Perth, n.d., p. 3.
The administrative separation of education into organizational units... without sufficient effective dialogue between these units has led to divisional development of subject philosophies and structures which in some cases are divergent and create difficulties for students moving from one type of school to another... there is growing awareness among teachers of such problems as the lack of overarching goals for the subject; the poor articulation of courses especially through Years 7 and 8; the irritating repetition of content; and the inadequate identification and development of important skills and understandings. Recognition of these problems has led to the present concern that there should be a concerted attempt to obtain coherent syllabus development in Social Studies at all levels.

From 1975 until the publication of the K-10 Syllabus in 1981 the K-10 S.S.S.C. was engaged in an intensive program of preparation and trialling of draft documents in schools. Materials published during this period included Social Studies Years 1 to 10 which was distributed to schools in 1977, Social Studies K-10 Draft Syllabus, Social Studies K-10: Background for Parents and the Community, and a wallchart titled Social Studies K-10 summarising the major features of the draft syllabus, all of which appeared in 1979.

(21) Education Department of Western Australia, Social Studies Years 1 to 10. Perth, n.d.

(22) Education Department of Western Australia, Social Studies K-10 Draft Syllabus; Social Studies K-10: Background for Parents and the Community; Social Studies K-10 (wallchart). Perth, n.d.
The work of the K-10 S.S.S.C. culminated in the publication of the Social Studies K-10 Syllabus in late 1981. This was supported by Teachers' Guides for each year level of the course.

2. WHAT IS SOCIAL STUDIES?

In previous chapters a number of the earlier curriculum documents have been reviewed. In relation to the question "What is Social Studies?" it has been suggested that the subject area called social studies had been narrowly conceived as a syllabus which consisted of a set of topics (content) which teachers were expected to "get across" (methods) to children. These curriculum documents were revised periodically but the view which was held of the curriculum remained unchanged. While the content of the programs was "up-dated" periodically, and while "new" methods were suggested in an attempt to make the transmission of information from the teacher to the child more effective, the structure around which the curriculum was viewed remained unchanged. Questions which related to the nature of the subject area, the "content" and "methods" involved, and the relationships which existed between the

(23) Education Department of Western Australia, Social Studies K-10 Syllabus. Perth, 1981.

various subjects (or disciplines) which made up the primary school curriculum, did not receive attention. Only in the case of Victoria was it felt that "any revision will need to consider the writing of a completely new course round a new structure". ²⁵

Later courses of study, such as those reviewed in Chapter 3, attempted to respond to the question "What is Social Studies?" by outlining what it consisted of. The statement that this subject involved "everything about man and his relationships with other men and with his physical and social environments" ²⁶ was typical of statements in many of the curriculum documents of this period.

None of the earlier documents attempted to clarify the nature of the subject area called social studies by disclosing the characteristics, or attributes, or qualities, by which we might recognise it. No attempts were made, for instance, to examine the difference between this area of the curriculum and others, such as science or mathematics.

Recently published curriculum documents, however, indicate that this question has been given a considerable amount of attention. Three areas of new social studies

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(25) See Chapter 3, pp. 53-54.
(26) See Chapter 3, pp. 60-61.
curricula - knowledge, processes and skills, and values - have been identified, and an examination of these discloses the criteria by which we can define this subject area.

Statements which relate to each of these areas can be found in many of the curriculum documents. Society in View, for instance, presents the belief that "social studies has a special responsibility in the total school curriculum to develop the child's understandings of society"\(^{27}\) - that is, the development of knowledge, in the form of concepts and generalisations, which relate to the social world. This sets social studies apart from other areas of the curriculum which develop other concepts. Whereas social studies develops understandings related to "family", "culture" or "needs", science, for instance, develops understanding of "electricity", "living/non-living" and "habitat". Mathematics has its own set of concepts related to "measurement", "fraction" and "place value" which are also distinct from those dealt with in social studies.

A second aspect which also distinguishes social studies from other curriculum areas concerns the processes and skills which are developed as part of this subject area. According to Society in View social studies is concerned with developing "the processes and skills of inquiry to give the child a method

\(^{27}\) Education Department of Victoria, Society in View Handbook, op. cit., p. 1.
which allows the formation of reasoned decisions."\(^{28}\) What is involved in inquiry strategies is discussed in greater detail later in this chapter but at this point it can be claimed that the ways in which we might go about investigating the social world differ substantially from the ways in which we might go about investigating, say, the physical world. The way in which knowledge is created in social studies differs from the experimental methods used in science, and from the use made of fundamental axioms in mathematics.

A third area concerns the "clarification" and "development" of values. The *Society in View* program, for instance, is concerned, along with other things, "with offering opportunities for the child, through units of social study, to investigate the values aspect; as well as other aspects of particular social situations, and also to clarify and develop his own values related to these situations."\(^{29}\) In this regard social studies probably does not differ greatly from other subject areas. Children investigating pollution as part of a science program may well examine their own values in relation to this problem, and many aspects of physical education may examine values associated with a "healthy lifestyle". However, new social studies programs go further than this. *Society in View* considers that "besides facilitating

\(^{28}\) Ibid.

\(^{29}\) Ibid., p. 51.
the child's study of social values, it is also important to facilitate the development of the child's own value judgement."30

The program suggests that children could be introduced to a number of different situations:31

The teacher may make the decision to present a situation to the child on the basis of particular attitudes or behaviours he has observed or knows to be related to children with whom he works. These attitudes or behaviours may reflect problems of personal or interpersonal conduct within the school or community, or they may simply reflect an egocentric view (rather than actually being a problem). Alternatively, a planned program of social situations may be prepared, based on situations which are believed to be ones with which children will be able to identify.

Similar areas are identified in the Western Australian Social Studies K-10 Syllabus. Three areas in which social studies makes "a unique and significant contribution" to the total school curriculum are mentioned. Firstly, a major emphasis of social studies is seen to be:32

the development of an understanding of contemporary society, the study of significant social issues and an awareness of the forces that have shaped and are shaping the lives of people.

Secondly, social studies was seen to have an important role in developing skills. "Social skills" (for example, working

(30) Ibid., p. 52.

(31) Ibid.

(32) Education Department of Western Australia, Social Studies K-10 Syllabus, op. cit., p. 1.
in a co-operative learning situation) and "intellectual skills" (such as inquiry skills) when developed "in the social context, ultimately enables students to become independent learners who are willing to participate in and contribute to their society." \(^{33}\) And, thirdly, the "major contribution" of social studies was with "values development": \(^{34}\)

Social studies provides students with the opportunity to engage in activities that will help them clarify their personal value stances and develop a positive self-concept. It also creates the setting within which attitudes of sensitivity, tolerance, respect for the truth, respect for the rights of individuals and the desire to participate in the social process in a responsive and responsible way may develop.

Similar areas are identified in the New South Wales Curriculum Policy Statement. In a brief introduction from the Minister of Education, social studies is defined as: \(^{35}\)

\[\ldots\text{ a process of inquiry and discovery leading to an understanding of ourselves as persons and the society in which we live. It is a vital component in the educational experience of every primary child.}\]

Social studies, therefore, is defined on the basis of two major criteria - namely, concepts and processes. The

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\(^{33}\) Ibid.

\(^{34}\) Ibid.

concepts relate to aspects of society ("culture", "needs", "location") or to values held by groups (such as an environmental group seeking to preserve a wilderness area) or by individuals ("prejudice", "honesty", "sexism"). The processes ("methods") concern the ways in which these concepts about society or the individual are developed. The "inquiry" strategies used in a social study differ from the methods of investigation used in other subject areas such as science and mathematics. Furthermore, specific strategies are used to enable children to investigate their own values. What this subject area attempts to develop knowledge about, and how investigations are conducted, distinguish social studies from other areas of the curriculum.

3. AIMS AND RATIONALE

Whereas earlier programs considered the preparation of "good citizens" to be the aim of the primary school social studies course, new social studies curriculum statements express a concern with the development of "social competence". The meaning of the term appears to vary in different contexts but the following two quotations are illustrative of its use in the curriculum documents:36

Underlying ... SOCIETY IN VIEW ...

is the belief that a major goal of

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(36) Education Department of Western Australia, Social Studies K-10 Syllabus, op. cit., p. 1; Education Department of Victoria, Society in View Handbook, op. cit., p. 3.
education is to aid the individual in his growth as an active, thinking participant of society. For this goal of social competence to be achieved, it is important for the individual to develop a framework of understanding of the social world and his place within it, and also to acquire the skills (physical, social, and intellectual) required of him if he is to cope adequately with the demands of social living.

As students gain understandings of contemporary society, attain mastery of skills integral to Social Studies and clarify personal value stances they are growing in social competence. Understanding of themselves, both as individuals and as participating members in Australia’s changing and multicultural society, will promote informed and responsible participation in the social process - the ultimate aim of teaching Social Studies.

Two factors appear to be involved in the development of "social competence". The first of these concerns the ability of the individual to acquire personal understandings (knowledge) of the social world, and of the processes and skills necessary to acquire these understandings. Knowledge about society, and of the processes and skills necessary to increase this knowledge, develop the basis for the individual to become socially competent.

The second factor concerns the involvement of the individual in society. While knowledge provides the basis, social competence also involves an understanding by the

individual of themselves as participating members of society. This involves the individual in "coping" with the complexities of society and "adapting" to the changes which are occurring. According to Society in View: 38

To attain social competence an individual needs to be able to cope independently within a society which is changing and becoming increasingly more complex at an increasingly rapid pace.

Other passages note the "autonomy" of the individual and of the need to be "flexible". The New South Wales policy statement on social studies, for instance, states that "the aim of social studies is to contribute to the development of individuals who can operate flexibly, autonomously and responsibly in their changing environment." 39 Similarly, the general aim of social studies in the South Australian curriculum is: 40

... the development of knowledge, values, skills and processes which enable children to acquire an increasing understanding of their society and the world in which they live and to act in an autonomous and responsible manner.

What is involved in this aspect of social competence is discussed in some detail in Society in View. According to this program, increasingly rapid and more complex changes in society such as the "knowledge explosion", technological development and social changes have created a number of

(38) Ibid., p. 4.

(39) Education Department of New South Wales, Curriculum Policy Statement, op. cit., p. 8.

(40) Education Department of South Australia, Learning and Living. Curriculum Guidelines Part 1, op. cit., p. 8.
"stresses" for the individual. These changes may have two effects. Firstly, "a possible increase in isolation" due to increased specialisation in employment and "a lessening of commonality of interests and knowledge" and a breakdown in relationships within social institutions such as the family. Secondly, changes "increase the number and kinds of decisions to be made" because of factors such as the lessening of the influence of authority figures and organisations, and the increased amount of information which has to be considered and acted upon. Three responses to these changes are possible. The individual can deal with these stressors by "developing patterns of non-adaptive behaviour (such as withdrawal from society), opting to live in an alternative community (such as a commune) or learning strategies to adapt to the complex changes occurring in society. According to Society in View the individual:

... may adapt to the changing world, thinking through his problems independently, critically evaluating the information he receives, sifting through it in order to decide what is relevant for him, and anticipating a change and planning action which will enable him to cope with that particular change. He may act to prevent or divert the change, to lessen the effect of the change, or to maximise any gain which might result from the change.

This third approach, of coping with the changes and the complexities in society, is seen by Society in View to be

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(41) Education Department of Victoria, Society in View Handbook, op. cit., p. 5.
"a goal of fundamental importance in the design of the school curricula" and the basis for the aims and objectives which are developed in relation to social studies.

This, of course, represents a marked change from earlier programs. Whereas programs reviewed in the previous chapter noted, often in vague terms, the need to equip the individual to become effective members of society, new social studies programs emphasise the importance of developing individual abilities to cope with the complexities in society and the changes which are occurring. The aim is not, to "fit" the individual to society by providing, for instance, a standard amount of knowledge and prescribed values to guide behaviour. New social studies programs are concerned with helping the child to adjust to society by assisting him to develop the capacity for independent research, decision-making and action. The aim is not to tell the individual how to behave in society, how to be an "effective" or "good" citizen, but rather to provide the knowledge and intellectual training to enable the individual to deal with the complexities and the changes. Individuals need to be assisted to adopt a rational approach to examining social situations based on understanding about society (knowledge) and the skills and attitudes required to investigate the social world. This is reflected in the statements of aims in the curriculum documents which outline the knowledge, skills and attitudes which are considered to be necessary to operate rationally in the social world.
4. LEARNING EXPERIENCES AND TEACHING STRATEGIES

One of the significant developments in relation to new social studies programs has been the attention which has been given to "methods" - that is, the specific teaching strategies which facilitate the development of the child's ability to investigate and explain his social world. Unlike earlier courses of study in which notes on methods consisted of "teaching tips" on how best to transmit content, new social studies curriculum statements provide detailed outlines of teaching strategies. Moreover, whereas notes on methods in earlier courses were usually "suggested only", and left to individual teachers to follow or not, new programs emphasise the importance of designing activities for children which follow the recommended teaching strategies. As the South Australian curriculum states "the suggested approaches are based on the belief that the nature of the learning process is as important as the subject matter studied." 42

_Society in View_, the Victorian Education Department program, also places importance on following appropriate teaching strategies. While various units of work are included as part of the program, the _Handbook_ states: 43

The units do not themselves constitute a course. They are not prescriptive.

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(42) Education Department of South Australia, _Learning and Living. Curriculum Guidelines Part I_, op. cit., p. 5.

(43) Education Department of Victoria, _Society in View Handbook_, op. cit., p. 181.
It need not matter if none of these units were taken as there are infinite possibilities for topics and aspects of topics to provide a suitable focus for units. As long as teachers keep in mind the objectives of SOCIETY IN VIEW and plan the learning experiences accordingly, they may be said to be carrying out the program irrespective of which topics or units they use.

The concern, therefore, in new social studies programs is not only with what children are to learn but also with how they are expected to learn it.

All of the programs reviewed recognise that the successful implementation of the curriculum requires an emphasis on "inquiry" by children into aspects of their social world. Although the South Australian program recognises a place for "teaching by exposition" to assist children to develop understandings and to "appreciate the necessity of using transmitted knowledge tentatively and critically" 44 all programs consider "inquiry" to be consistent with rational thought processes which enable the individual to develop the skills and attitudes necessary to investigate, and to cope with, aspects of the social world.

According to Society in View the inquiry process has four main stages: 45

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44 Education Department of South Australia, Learning and Living. Curriculum Guidelines Part I, op. cit., p. 7.

45 Education Department of Victoria, Society in View Handbook, op. cit., p. 9.
1. Acquaintance
The individual is involved in, or observes, some social situation. His curiosity is aroused and so he explores or examines the situation carefully in order to identify its component elements and to study the relationships among these.

2. Statement of Tentative Understandings
Drawing upon his observations and experiences within the particular social situation being studied, and within other related situations, the individual forms a synthesis of the elements and relationships discovered. He states his understandings only tentatively (perhaps in the form of predictions). He recognises that these initial ideas may not represent the whole "truth" or "picture" of the situation and that he needs to test them against additional relevant information in order to check their validity and the extent of their applicability in other settings.

3. Testing Understandings
The individual collects, analyses, and interprets further data in order to test the depth and validity of his stated understandings and their applicability within this or a related situation, while attempting to control against any factors which might bias his findings.

4. Restatement of Understanding
As a consequence of this testing procedure the individual confirms, revises, extends, or refines his earlier statement of tentative understandings.

This is a process which requires an understanding of specialised skills associated with collecting information, and organising and presenting data. Skills needed to collect information include, amongst other things, observing, interviewing and recording. The skills needed to organise and
present data include making charts and graphs and written and oral reporting.

How the process of inquiry, and the development of these specialised research skills, might be effectively developed differs in the curriculum documents reviewed, and for this reason each of these is outlined separately. In general terms, however, the strategies outlined in the Victorian and New South Wales programs might be termed developmental, while the South Australian and Western Australian curriculum documents appear to recommend a functional approach. What is meant by these terms is discussed in greater detail after each of the curriculum documents has been reviewed.

While acknowledging the importance of the inquiry process in investigating the social world Society in View considers that this process is beyond the capacity of most primary school children to handle. Drawing on some research by one of the members of the Project Team which developed the materials for this curriculum project, Society in View considers that the complete inquiry sequence cannot always be adhered to. The Handbook states that:


(47) Education Department of Victoria, Society in View Handbook, p. 9.
In general, the younger child does not have the capacity to extend his study beyond the early stages of the inquiry process.

According to the *Handbook* the child has not yet reached a sufficient level of development in relation to the specialised skills associated with the collection of information and the organisation and presentation of data. The problem is that the development of these inquiry, or research, skills is in turn dependent on the development of certain "cognitive skills".

The development of these research or inquiry skills allows a clearer observation of society and improves the quality of the individual's concepts and generalisations about the social world. However, the development of these research skills depends in turn upon the underlying development of the child's cognitive skills or thinking abilities.

Cognitive skills or thinking abilities are described as "intellectual skills involved in processing information and interpreting data or experience in order to extend and refine knowledge or understanding." Specifically, these include:

(a) the identification of the specific elements or facts within, or related to, the situation being investigated - which involves the ability to discriminate between the elements and thus the relevant pieces of information;

(b) the recognition of similarities between the elements and the consequent

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discovery of classes and relations among these - essential to the analysis and interpretation of the data and to the formation of concepts about the situation; and

(c) the perception of relationships among the concepts or classes of items discovered in order to form a synthesis of understanding which can be expressed in the form of statements or generalisations about the situation as a whole.

This description of the cognitive processes involved is represented diagrammatically in FIGURE 1. In this diagram the intellectual skills involved in processing information or interpreting data or experience are put in the order in which these skills are performed. The Handbook states that it is "the development of these underlying cognitive skills that has guided the design of the learning experiences and teaching strategies which the SOCIETY IN VIEW program suggests for inclusion in social studies." 51

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FIGURE 1: INTELLECTUAL SKILLS INVOLVED IN PROCESSING INFORMATION OR INTERPRETING DATA OR EXPERIENCE

SYNTHESIS

CLASSIFICATION

IDENTIFICATION OF ELEMENTS

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(51) Ibid.
However, the *Handbook* also states,\(^\text{52}\) that the ways in which knowledge is viewed has also influenced the design of teaching strategies. As we have seen in the previous chapter emphasis has been placed in social studies programs on children developing significant concepts and generalisations about the social world rather than on having children acquire vast amounts of factual information. The emphasis has been on children developing concepts and generalisations which develop general understandings of broad applicability in relation to the social world. The various "levels" of understanding are represented diagrammatically in FIGURE 2.

![Diagram of Types of Knowledge]

Information about both the cognitive processes involved in processing information, and about the different types of knowledge, have been brought together in determining the teaching strategies suggested in *Society in View*. This is shown diagrammatically in FIGURE 3.

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The teaching strategies outlined in FIGURE 3 constitute the first component of a social study. This first component is called "Looking At A Social Situation" and detailed information is provided in the Handbook on the activities which constitute the first component.

The first stage of this first component is called "confrontation". Confrontation activities which are considered to be "the most important part of a unit of social study" are designed to provide the child with information and/or experiences about the social situation which has been chosen for study. The specific purposes of confrontation activities are listed
to arouse interest;
to produce cognitive conflict;
to encourage active involvement;
to encourage expression of original ideas and understandings;
to promote discussion of ideas and experiences;
to focus on particular aspects of a situation;
to prepare for the discovery of relationships;
to aid in the recall of previous experiences.

Confrontation activities can be of different types and may include direct or vicarious experiences. The Handbook states, however, that direct experiences should be, as far as possible, the basis of a social study. Direct experiences include:

(a) manipulating and experimenting with actual objects - feeling, smelling, tasting, seeing, hearing - either within or removed from their social context;
(b) observing and participating within social situations that can be experienced directly by the child - situations within the school may be explored, or excursions may be undertaken around the area close to the school, within the general locality, or to some distant place.

Vicarious experiences (that is, substitutes for direct experience) include:

(53) Ibid., p. 45.
(54) Ibid., p. 46.
(55) Ibid.
(a) viewing movie-films, telecasts, still photographs, filmstrips, slides, illustrations, models, maps, overhead transparencies, graphs, diagrams, charts, tables;
(b) listening to interviews, recordings, radio broadcasts, ideas presented by others in group or class discussions;
(c) reading books, pamphlets;
(d) scripted dramatisations.

After the confrontation activities have been completed the teacher may decide, depending on the child's interest and ability to handle the topic, to proceed to Stage 2 which comprises concept development activities. Two sub-stages are identified - listing (Stage 2A) and classification (Stage 2B).

Listing activities relate to the identification of elements in the situation. These include compiling a list, discussing the attributes of the items listed, and the sharing and challenging of ideas amongst the children about the items appearing on the list. Classification activities involve discovering classes and relations amongst the items listed. Essentially this is a process of grouping and labelling of items (as necessary) until the classification has been completed. Sharing and challenging activities take place after the classification process has been completed to clarify the groupings made.

In Stage 3 generalisation development activities are planned to help the child to reach a synthesis about the ideas
contained in the topic being investigated. These activities include:

(i) the statement of general understandings;
(ii) the justification and clarification of generalisations;
(iii) sharing and challenging of ideas;
(iv) presentation and resolution of a conflict situation.

Again, the sharing and challenging of ideas is an important aspect of the process.

The challenges provided in asking the child to justify and clarify his statements not only help him to communicate his ideas more adequately with others, but also facilitates the further organisation of his own ideas and thus a refinement of his understandings. Further development of understanding may result also from the challenge which might come through the child's interaction with others and through the resolution of a conflict situation presented to him in order to highlight or challenge possible inadequacies, discrepancies, and inconsistencies in his earlier responses.

The Stages which constitute the first component of a social study are summarised in FIGURE 4.

(56) Ibid., p. 69.
(57) Ibid.
The second component of a social study is called "Looking At A Related Social Situation". The Handbook suggests that this component may, or may not, be completed depending on the interest of the children. The activities in component two are often vicarious experiences in contrast to the direct experiences planned for component one. Component two is designed to provide activities which compare with those in component one. According to the Handbook:

Such comparison (recognition of relationships) is important to the development of knowledge. It allows for a greater differentiation between situations and a refinement of understandings about them, as well as the development of broader or more general understandings of the related situations or the whole topic area. The child's 'new' understandings about the topic area are built upon the 'old', which are gradually extended and refined with each new related experience or study.

(58) Ibid., p. 73.
Essentially the activities involved in component two "Looking At A Related Social Situation" are the same as those in component one "Looking At A Social Situation" - that is, confrontation, concept development and generalisation development (see FIGURE 4). However, at the conclusion of the study of the related situation the child is asked to compare his findings with those in component one. He is then asked to attempt to form generalisations which appear to apply to both situations.

The activities which comprise the second component, and the relationships between components one and two, are shown in FIGURE 5.\(^{59}\)

The final component of a social study is component three called "Applying Ideas to Another Social Situation". In this component the child must use data collection and data presentation skills in ways which are appropriate to the social study being completed. As the Handbook notes this is a complex task requiring the child "to project his ideas beyond his own experiences into the realm of abstract thought through which he can consider other possible combinations of elements".\(^{60}\) It is stressed that not all children will be able to complete a totally systematic approach to investigating social situations and that only in the later years of the

\(^{59}\) Ibid.

\(^{60}\) Ibid., p. 81.
FIGURE 5: ACTIVITIES INVOLVED IN COMPONENT 2 AND THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN COMPONENT 1 ("LOOKING AT A SOCIAL SITUATION") AND COMPONENT 2 ("LOOKING AT A RELATED SOCIAL SITUATION")

**LOOKING AT A SOCIAL SITUATION**

1. CONFRONTATION

2. CONCEPT DEVELOPMENT
   2A. Listing
   2B. Classification

3. GENERALISATION DEVELOPMENT
   3A. Synthesis and Comparison of Generalisations within a Situation

**LOOKING AT A RELATED SOCIAL SITUATION**

1. CONFRONTATION (Including informal comparison during confrontation activities)

2. CONCEPT DEVELOPMENT
   2A. Listing
   2B. Classification

3. GENERALISATION DEVELOPMENT
   3A. Synthesis and Comparison within a Situation

4. SYNTHESIS
   (i) Comparison of Generalisations between Situations
   (ii) Justification and Clarification
   (iii) Attainment of Superordinate Concepts
primary school will some children be able to proceed through the whole inquiry process.

According to the Handbook the activities which form part of this third component can be designed for either the Application of Generalisations or for the Development of An Understanding of the Inquiry Process. The difference between these two approaches is described in the following passage:  

The Application of Generalisations strategy introduces the child to systematic testing procedures by asking the child to look for specific items in a new but related situation to determine whether these 'fit' his expectations. In contrast, a Development of an Understanding of the Inquiry Process requires the child to look for a wider range of specific pieces of information and to use these to describe the situation more fully and to make inferences about or explanations of the situation under examination.

In terms of teaching procedures, however, the differences are minor and virtually the same set of activities are suggested for both strategies. The relationship between the Application of Generalisations strategy and the steps in the inquiry process is shown in FIGURE 6.  

Detailed notes are provided in the Handbook on the activities involved in the Application of Generalisations strategy. Acquaintance to the topic area may have been

(61) Ibid., p. 80.
(62) Ibid., p. 84.
Figure 6: Activities for the Application of Generalisations and the Relationship to the Inquiry Process

1. Acquaintance
   From previous experiences; for example in the first and second components.

2. Statement of Tentative Understandings
   2A. (i) Formulation of Generalisations
       (ii) Justification and Clarification of Generalisations
       OR
   2B. (i) Predictions about Another Situation
       (ii) Justification and Clarification of Predictions

3. Testing Understandings
   (i) Assessment of Testability
   (ii) Suggestion of Data Form and Data Collection Strategy
   (iii) Data Collection
   (iv) Organisation and Presentation of Data
   (v) Analysis of Data

4. Restatement of Understandings
   Understandings, explanations, or predictions are restated and justified in light of evidence collected.

Achieved through the completion of activities in components one and/or two, or on the basis of the child's own experiences. Then the child is asked to state, or recall, his tentative understandings or explanations about a particular social situation (Stage 2A (i)) and to justify his generalisation on the basis of past experience or evidence and to clarify their meanings (Stage 2A (ii)). Alternatively, the child can be asked to predict - that is, "describe a new situation or set of circumstances" or "suggest particular consequences from
certain known conditions"\textsuperscript{63} - and to justify and clarify these predictions (Stage 2B (i) & (ii)).

In Stage 3 the child tests his understandings by following a particular set of activities. Firstly, it is necessary to consider which statements are capable of testing, and which are not, to ensure that purposeful data collection activities are completed. Secondly, the child is assisted to consider the facts involved in data collection such as the sources to be used, or the way data can be collected. Thirdly, the child gathers data on the topic being investigated. Fourthly, the collected information is ordered (grouped and classified) so that it can be analysed. Fifthly, the child is asked to analyse the data and state any generalisations which can be made.

In Stage 4 the child is required to consider earlier generalisations or predictions in the light of the new evidence collected and to maintain, revise or reject earlier understandings. Emphasis is placed on justifying understandings through the use of evidence which has been collected.

\textit{Society in View} provides a detailed explanation of the teaching strategies which should be followed in a social study and attention is drawn to the following aspects.

\footnote{\textit{Ibid.}, p. 86.}
Firstly, whereas in earlier programs the content of the syllabus was specified and "methods" were "suggested only", the reverse is the case with this program. Teachers are considered to be following the program as long as they plan the learning experiences according to the objectives of the curriculum. If it is obligatory that teachers follow specified teaching strategies rather than deal with a particular body of content then what children should "know" as a result of experiencing this curriculum will also change. This question of evaluating pupil outcomes is examined further in the next section of this chapter.

Secondly, the program is developmental in nature proposing activities which develop the necessary cognitive abilities (components one and two) as pre-requisites to having children engage in the inquiry process (component three). This reflects the considerable impact of the work of Piaget, relating to the intellectual development of children, on this curriculum document. Piaget's notions of various "stages" in intellectual development, his explanations of characteristics of children's thinking such as "self-centredness", "ego-centrism" and "centration", and his explanations of the mechanisms of transition from one stage to the next, have influenced the design of this curriculum. The way in which teaching strategies are structured reflects important considerations relating to the readiness of the child to handle the inquiry process. This differs from other curriculum statements,
such as the South Australian program (examined later in this section) where children from an early age are introduced to the inquiry process.

Thirdly, Society in View advocates an inductive approach to the development of concepts. This approach was based on the work of Hilda Taba and the Taba Curriculum Project in California. The justification for this approach in the Handbook is that, because the primary school child is generally in what Piaget described as the concrete operational stage of intellectual development, it is appropriate to use a strategy which relies on the child acquiring information through first-hand experiences with social situations or events. However, other ways of developing concepts are possible, notably deductive strategies (as noted later in relation to the South Australian curriculum), but these are not discussed and the reasons why these are rejected are not outlined.

Fourthly, the important notion of contrast between different situations, which has been shown to be a powerful factor in developing concepts, has been effectively incorporated into the recommended teaching strategies. While the young child may not be able to go beyond the activities involved in component one ("Looking At A Social Situation")

he is able to compare related social situations (component two) and, later, to test new situations (component three) as his cognitive abilities develop.

Finally, this curriculum document, more than any of the others, analyses social studies in terms of the intellectual tasks involved and with the capacity of the primary school child to deal with these tasks. This program relates the developing abilities of the child to various levels of intellectual development in planning the three components which make up a social study. However, while the aims of the program are directed to the general intellectual development of the child, the program successfully reconciles these aims with the particular body of content (in this case, social studies) with which the child is expected to deal.

The teaching strategies outlined in such detail in Society in View are similar to one of the suggested strategies presented in the New South Wales curriculum documents. 65 These documents (briefly, in the space of a few pages) present a model made up of three stages. In Stage A children acquire information by observing phenomena directly or vicariously, or by asking questions. In Stage B children "recognise and define a problem", "organise data by establishing categories...

of related items", "look for wider relationships by going beyond the data" and then "form generalisations which serve to link in a meaningful way a number of related concepts". In Stage C, children "test their generalisations and, if necessary, modify them by applying them in new or hypothetical situations".

The following diagram illustrates this process presented in the New South Wales curriculum, including the influence of prior learning and experience on each of these stages.

Additional information about the origins of this model, or the ways in which teachers might successfully implement it with children, for instance, are not given, but it does appear to be an inductive approach to the development of concepts and generalisations similar to that followed in considerably more detail in Society in View.

(66) Ibid., p. 18.
The South Australian and Western Australian social studies programs outline alternative strategies and these are examined, in turn, in the following pages.

The South Australian curriculum, entitled Learning and Living, proposes a teaching procedure made up of six stages. It is described as "a method of guided and systematic enquiry".\(^{67}\) Stage 1 consists of motivating activities which develop interest and curiosity about the unit of study and identify possible areas of inquiry. During this time children are expected to recall their understandings of concepts and generalisations, express their feelings and opinions, and define the area of inquiry. When this has been done, Stage 2 activities involve children in hypothesising about the particular area selected for inquiry. This may involve the children in posing solutions to problems, predicting outcomes, offering possible explanations or formulating working propositions. Then, in Stage 3, children are assisted to state the questions which need to be researched to investigate the hypothesis which was stated in Stage 2.

The first three stages involve activities which are concerned with initiating the inquiry. Stages 4, 5 and 6, however, are concerned with developing the inquiry. The purpose of these last three stages is to assist children to

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\(^{67}\) Education Department of South Australia, Learning and Living. Curriculum Guidelines Part 1, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 17.
gather data on the questions they have posed, to evaluate their hypotheses, and to reach some general understandings about the topic under investigation.

In Stage 4 the teacher organises activities which help children to gather data. The curriculum identifies four types of learning activities which are considered to be associated with the inquiry process. The first of these involves locating, selecting and organising relevant data. The notes state that children should be introduced "to all the common forms of collecting data" to help them become "independent researchers". A second type of learning activity involves the development and modification of concepts based on the information collected previously. Two distinct strategies are identified. The first is similar to recommendations made in *Society in View*. While this strategy is only briefly described its essential features are identified. Children are encouraged to sort information into groups or categories based on common characteristics, to identify the attributes on which various groupings, and re-groupings, have been made, and to label these groups. A second strategy for developing concepts is also briefly described:

Children may be helped to form a concept by being given a concept label to verbalise and recognise in its printed form, e.g. *explorers*. They are then

(68) Ibid., p. 21.
(69) Ibid., p. 22.
presented with examples and non-examples of the concept explorers in order to consolidate its meaning. In following activities, children should be given constant practice in recognising examples and non-examples of the concept explorers. In this process they, not the teacher, should explain why a particular person is or is not an explorer. In this way they should continually clarify the relationships among the members of their concept set called explorers.

Although suggested in other sources, this is the only set of curriculum materials reviewed which propose this type of deductive approach to developing concepts. Unfortunately, the reasons for including this approach are not included.

Stage 5 involves the development and modification of generalisations:

Children generalise when they infer the similarities in a number of situations or events and attempt to explain those similarities. They are involved in a process of putting things together and establishing connections between two or more concepts.

Teachers are expected to help children make generalisations by asking them to infer relationships, or make comparisons, between situations or events. Finally, children are encouraged to reflect on the earlier hypotheses they made about the


(71) Education Department of South Australia, Learning and Living, Curriculum Guidelines Part 1, op. cit., p. 22.
topic being investigated and to revise these hypotheses, if necessary, in the light of the generalisations they have reached.

In Stage 6 the teacher assists children to focus on ways to apply knowledge and values by asking children to "apply their generalisations to specific contexts" or "to act on their knowledge in a variety of situations." Examples of situations to which children might apply their previous learnings involve dealing with personal and inter-personal problems (for example, dealing with bullying, or contributing to a group activity), social issues (such as being involved with a community group), or environmental issues (such as conservation and pollution).

The South Australian curriculum gives children the opportunity to engage directly in the inquiry process. Children are introduced to the process of defining an area of inquiry, forming a hypothesis, posing questions for research, completing investigations and, finally, drawing conclusions. The assumption is that exercises of this type in structuring investigations will result in the children becoming better at doing it. The curriculum guide states that "these inquiry processes can be demonstrated in some form by children of all ages. They can be introduced at the beginning of the child-

(72) Ibid., p. 23.
ren's schooling and developed through successive years."73 This is a view which would appear to be consistent with the position put forward by Bruner that "there is an appropriate version of any skill or knowledge that may be imparted at whatever age one wishes to begin teaching - however preparatory the version may be."74 Unlike Society in View, which delays introducing children to the total inquiry process until they are ready to handle it, the South Australian program can be seen to be a functional one emphasising the importance of children being involved in the inquiry process at an early age in the primary school.

A third alternative to the question of how social studies should be taught is presented in the Western Australian Syllabus.75 The strategy presented is based closely on that presented by Fraenkel76 although this is not acknowledged. Presumably this strategy was selected because it was consistent with the need for "methodology" to "promote the active involvement of students in the learning process" and to teach students

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(73) Ibid., p. 15.
(75) This is also presented as an alternative strategy in the support document accompanying the New South Wales curriculum. See: Education Department of New South Wales, Investigating: Social Studies K-6. Support Document No. 2. op. cit., pp. 19-20.
"to become actively and responsibly involved in the immediate social context of the learning process." 77

The teaching strategy presented involves an INTAKE phase, where students locate and gather relevant information, an ORGANISATIONAL phase, where students organise information to develop understandings, and a DEMONSTRATION phase, where students demonstrate understandings or apply these to related situations. The Intake - Organisation - Demonstration sequence is presented in broad terms only. No information is given, for instance, on specific strategies which might be used to develop concepts or generalisations in the Organisation phase. Moreover, no indication is given of a developmental sequence - presumably children of any age can apply the sequence. However, the Syllabus does indicate that this strategy may need to be related to the abilities of children at various ages. For instance the Syllabus does advise that the application of this sequence "at a particular year level will depend on teachers' judgement." 78

Moreover, to assist teachers in recognising the typical responses of students at various stages of development a brief outline is given of the SOLO Taxonomy, a classification of the

(77) Education Department of Western Australia, Social Studies K-10 Syllabus, op. cit., p. 4.
(78) Ibid., p. 62.
structure of learning outcomes developed by Biggs and Collis. Adapted from Piaget's descriptions of various stages of intellectual development, the taxonomy of learning outcomes "describes typical responses of students who are asked to demonstrate their understanding of a finite set of information or data such as a concept or principle." Typical responses of students at the organisational or understanding level of learning at various ages are outlined in the Syllabus. The notes suggest that this classification of responses may assist teachers with a quick identification of "the cognitive levels at which students are currently performing" and with "the next level of performance at which teaching should be directed." It can also "provide a basis for applying a learning objective at the level most appropriate to the abilities of a particular group of children".

In the preceding pages a detailed outline has been given of the recommendations in the curriculum guides relating to the development of concepts and generalisations. Another aspect receiving considerable attention in these guides concerns the ways in which the values aspect of a social study should be handled in the classroom. While some attention had been directed to values in earlier curriculum statements,


(80) Education Department of Western Australia, Social Studies K-10 Syllabus, op. cit., p. 66.

(81) Ibid., p. 67.
new social studies curriculum guides outline activities and techniques for handling values in considerable detail.

Social studies programs in the 1950s and 1960s sought to develop particular values. In these programs it was considered that effective citizenship required the development of "desirable social habits and attitudes" and there is little doubt that participation in school ceremonies and the reading of character-forming stories were designed to inculcate those values which were seen to be "desirable".

In new social studies curriculum documents emphasis has been placed on the processes by which children might investigate values. The teaching strategies related to values in the Society in View program, for instance, aim to: 82

(a) facilitate the child's study of social values by assisting him to understand that all people have values, that different people have different values and that values affect people's actions; and

(b) facilitate the development of the child's value judgement.

In the New South Wales curriculum it is recommended that "values awareness and the ability to make value judgements" should be developed in relation to three areas of inquiry. In the Personal Area "children become aware of,----------------------------------------

(82) Education Department of Victoria, Society in View Handbook, op. cit., p. 51.
and clarify their own values"; in the Social Area they "inquire into the values of groups, organisations and societies"; and in the Environmental Area they inquire into values related to "the management of resources". In this way children develop an understanding of the values of different groups in society, and develop an awareness of, and clarify, their own values. Similar statements in relation to values appear in other curriculum documents.

Various approaches to handling values in the classroom are outlined in the curriculum documents. The Western Australian Syllabus suggests that teachers can "introduce processes which will help students to become more aware of their own feelings; to clarify their own values and to analyse the values of others; and, where appropriate, to make justifiable decisions." Three basic approaches are suggested. One approach is to help students become aware of their own values and those of others: In an open and non-threatening way, students are encouraged to share their reactions to some incident


(84) Education Department of Western Australia, Social Studies K-10 Syllabus, op. cit., p. 1. Education Department of South Australia, Learning and Living. Curriculum Guidelines Part 1, op. cit., p. 35.

(85) Education Department of Western Australia, Social Studies K-10 Syllabus, op. cit., p. 51.

(86) Ibid., p. 53.
or issue. There is no need to probe deeply, challenge or defend any particular stance or reaction.

A second approach involves the clarification of values and the analysis of the personal and social consequences which may result from holding different value positions. Students are assisted to make choices after considering the likely consequences of various alternatives. The third suggested approach involves the other two approaches and "asks students to make decisions which they consider to be justified by reference to personal feelings and/or social consequences."87 Students are made aware that "strongly held values usually lead to consistent and committed action."88

These three approaches are seen to form a developmental sequence. It is envisaged that teachers at Levels K - 3 would use the first strategy, at Levels 4 - 6 the first two strategies, and at Levels 7 - 10 all three approaches. This developmental sequence is presented in FIGURE 8. Several learning activities for each of these approaches are outlined in detail in the Syllabus, and these are also listed in FIGURE 8.

In the Society in View program two strategies for handling values are outlined. The first is designed to

(87) Ibid., p. 52.
(88) Ibid., p. 59.
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facilitate the child's study of social values and involves focussing the child's attention on the values aspect of the social situation being studied. Through questioning the child is encouraged to "describe the situation as he sees it", "to interpret the actions or words of the persons in the situation", and "to consider other possibilities of action for the persons in the situation." Simulation techniques, such as role-play and puppetry, are suggested as alternative activities to verbal responses when considering other possible courses of action. Further discussion is then proposed to enable the child to analyse the values inherent in the alternative courses of action which have been suggested. As a further activity the child might be asked to state how, why, and what the consequences might be, of acting in a particular way. This type of activity is considered to assist with the development of the child's value judgement - a second concern of values education in this program.

A second strategy is suggested, however, to handle this aspect. Here the child is involved in observing, reading about, or listening to a description of, a situation in which person(s) are faced with a problem to be solved. The child is asked to "describe the situation as he saw it", "consider the course of action the person(s) in the situation should

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take", to discuss his ideas with others to "consider view-
points other than his own ... to see ... other courses of
action and the reasons underlying them" and, finally, to
"state a course of action he considers the best one to
follow" and the reasons for deciding on this course of action.90

The teaching strategies outlined in the curriculum
documents place emphasis on the processes of valuing either
in terms of analysing the values inherent in a social situation
or in terms of the children clarifying for themselves what it
is they value. The concern is to assist children to find
reasons why they hold, or might adopt, particular values, and
why various individuals or groups in the community hold the
values they do. According to the South Australian curriculum
guidelines:91

... values ... are more likely to become
enduring parts of children's value
systems if they are seen to be useful
and enriching in their daily lives. It
is most unlikely that values will be
internalised if they are simply
presented to children as desirable
rules.

A problem concerning values is the question of whether
or not some particular values should be promoted. The South
Australian curriculum, under the heading of "inculcation",

(90) Ibid., pp. 56-7.

(91) Education Department of South Australia, Learning and
poses this problem in the following passage: 92

An approach seemingly opposite to the general aim of helping children to develop and internalise a personal set of values would be for a school to support a set of values and attitudes for children and to have an expectation of certain behaviour in accordance with them. Yet, the two approaches can and should co-exist. Values education can only be conducted on the basis of a general acceptance of and support for such values as the following.

- Freedom of speech
- Choice
- Justice
- Self-respect
- Responsible action
- Individuality
- Group identity
- The right to free inquiry

In using the curriculum, schools and teachers should uphold these values in order that the broad processes of learning, including the development of values, might occur with the highest possible degree of freedom and order.

In the Western Australian Syllabus the position taken on this question is not entirely clear. While recognising that different groups in society affirm different values, the statement is made that "it is usually accepted that there are also values which are widely held in Australian society" and that these include "respect for life, excellence, integrity, honesty, tolerance, justice, social responsibility, compassion,

(92) Ibid., p. 56.
adaptability, rationality and sensitivity. Whether the list is produced to indicate the values which should be promoted, or whether the intention is to identify important values which influence behaviour (and, therefore, might be considered by students) is not clear from the Syllabus.

On the other hand, Society in View states that it rejects the promotion of any particular "substantive" values: SOCIETY IN VIEW believes that social studies provides the opportunity for the child, over time, to develop his own understandings and his own values. It does not support the development of particular understandings, nor the promotion of a particular set of substantive values and attitudes about society. Because our society is pluralistic, it is becoming increasingly difficult to identify any one particular set of values and to label them as 'society's values'. The individual is thus faced with many and varied beliefs, attitudes, and values from which to select his own.

In this curriculum project "substantive" values are defined as "those beliefs, attitudes or principles which characterise an individual's or group's life-style and which govern their actions." The position is not clear from a review of the curriculum guides. While it is acknowledged that children

(93) Education Department of Western Australia, Social Studies K-10 Syllabus, op. cit., p. 51.
(95) Ibid., p. 207.
should be assisted to develop an awareness of social values and an ability to make value judgements, the question of whether or not particular values should be promoted is not adequately clarified from a reading of the curriculum guides.

One approach to clarifying this question, however, is to recognise that values can be of different types and that the school in general, and the social studies program in particular, may have a role in promoting some values but not others.

Here, three types of values are identified - behavioural values, procedural values and substantive values. Behavioural values refer to "the mode of conduct operating within a particular situation. The reason for their imposition is to be found in the need for efficient social organisation." In the classroom, for instance, behavioural values such as "listening to others" or "not throwing objects" promote learning and are therefore encouraged. "There are reasons for their imposition (and) these deserve our consideration." These values are common to the total school curriculum and are not peculiar to a particular subject area such as social studies.


(97) Ibid.
The term procedural values refers to the ways of thinking which are used in various disciplines; that is, the methods which are used to create knowledge. It is argued that it is necessary for teachers to develop these values because:

... unless teachers have the right to inculcate procedural values, they cannot teach any disciplines so that students understand. Most disciplines value independent, rational thought based on facts and logic rather than judgements based on prejudices, emotion, appeal to authority, or wishful thinking. Indeed, a student cannot be said to know anything unless he has evidence for his beliefs and can show by logical argument how the evidence justifies his claim to know something.

We have seen, earlier in this chapter, that new approaches to social studies do set out to develop particular procedural values based on assumptions concerning the value of the processes of inquiry.

In the case of substantive values the position is somewhat different. Substantive values are referred to as those "which are intimately held and which can help to reveal the individuality of human beings as they operate within and upon society." These include political, religious, and moral beliefs, for instance, but also matters of personal

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(99) Kimber, op. cit., p. 28.
preference and taste such as dress, behaviour and life-style. In these matters, it is argued, it is impossible to identify a set of acceptable societal values which can be promoted. 100

We cannot give the teachers the right to feed children ... one set of values (such as one particular set of religious beliefs, a political creed, or a mode of dress). Instead of striving for unanimous agreement, the teacher invites each student to think about his position, either to change it if he finds it distaste-ful or to hold it at the end of the exercise with its implications clear and with new evidence marshalled in support.

Therefore, emphasis is placed on children being made aware of the differing values held by individuals and groups, and on the need to assist children to develop their own values.

This is a view which has its critics, particularly in relation to moral development. According to one writer, there are limits to the area in which values can be taken as a matter of opinion: 1

A willingness to accept some values as simply matters of taste and personal preference ought not to be extended automatically or as a matter of course to the whole of moral life.

The argument is put that simply because a life-style exists


it does not necessarily have a right to equal expression in
the classroom. Approaches which seek to clarify values
present the view that "all opinions, values and behaviour
are of equal worth" and that, in principle, "there are no
right answers to questions about what we ought to do."
Concern is also expressed that "parents ... have little or
no control over the flow of information elicited by the
exploratory teacher" and that, without parental consent,
"such a pedagogy, _prima facie_, violates the parent's privacy."
Moreover, the disclosure of personal thoughts and experiences
may "open children to a radical reorientation in their values
and loyalties." It leaves children open to the influence of
a "debased moral order" rather than the "wholesome ethos" of
an agreed set of moral principles.²

It is not the intention to debate these issues here.³
However, it must be recognised that this is potentially a
contentious area in new social studies programs and one which
should, perhaps, receive greater attention in the curriculum
documents. The _Report of the Select Committee on Education
in Queensland_ (1980) whilst acknowledging that "true morality
involves the exercise of personal choice and that children
need to learn to accept responsibility for the effects of the

² Ibid. Reservations about values education are also
reported in _Report of the Select Committee on Education

³ A defence of the new approach to values education is
presented in Kimber, _op. cit._, and Blachford, _op. cit._
choices they make" nevertheless considered that "parents ... are entitled to serious guarantees that the role of the school will be supportive of their own approach to values education and that appropriate methods will be used to handle sensitive social issues in the classroom." Additional information about the ways in which teachers and parents may achieve a greater degree of understanding about this area of social studies curriculum may well be helpful.

In the preceding pages attention has been given to the teaching strategies which are suggested to assist the child to investigate and explain his social world, including strategies for handling values. The attention which is given to teaching strategies emphasises that the question of how children learn is considered to be just as important as the question of what children learn if they are to attain social competence. It follows that what is evaluated in terms of the outcomes of the social studies program is likely to differ from earlier programs concerned with the retention of factual information, and this is examined in a later section of this chapter.

5. CONTENT

A basically similar approach to questions concerning

content is evident in all new social studies curriculum statements. Unlike earlier courses of study which specified the content which teachers were expected to cover at the various grade levels, new social studies programs provide teachers with a framework about society either in the form of a set of generalisations, or a number of "key" concepts, about the way in which society operates which are designed to assist teachers with the development of topics for social studies.

These generalisations or key concepts are derived from the social science disciplines (sociology, economics, politics, anthropology, history, geography, psychology) and attempt to "describe in general terms man's relationships within the social world and his interaction with his physical environment." In the Western Australian Syllabus sixteen generalisations, which provide the structure for this program, are outlined. In the South Australian program twelve key concepts which "provide a framework for making sense of experience" are defined. In Society in View a collection of statements entitled "One View of the Social World" is presented in four sections under the headings "Natural Envir-

(5) Education Department of Victoria, Society in View Handbook, op. cit., p. 15.

(6) Education Department of South Australia, Learning and Living. Curriculum Guidelines Part 1, op. cit., p. 11.
onment", "Culture", "Social Organisation" and "Change". These generalisations serve a two-fold purpose. While acknowledging that these comprise a selection of the many statements which might be made, the function of these statements is "to make the teacher more fully aware of the operations of society and of the many different aspects which might be studied." In addition, they provide the structure for the particular curriculum statements and "describe aspects of society for the generation of program studies and associated topics for units of social studies." 

The collections of statements are used slightly differently in each curriculum statement. In the Western Australian case they are used to develop a large number of "understandings" which are defined as "key ideas, derived from generalisations, which are less abstract and can be understood in some form by students at a particular year level." These understandings are organised into five major themes (Environment, Resources, Society and Culture, Change, and Decision-making) and provide the basis for the selection of content from Years 1 to 10. This is presented in a K - 10 scope and sequence matrix.


(8) Ibid., p. 15.

(9) Ibid.

(10) Education Department of Western Australia, Social Studies K-10 Syllabus, op. cit., p. 14.
Similarly, the key concepts identified in the South Australian curriculum are incorporated into four themes (Satisfying our Needs and Wants, Our Ways of Life, Our Natural Environment, Organising Ourselves). The understandings to be developed by children, and the content which might be covered in relation to each of these themes, are presented in a scope and sequence matrix for Years 1 to 7.

Society in View suggests a number of ways in which a collection of understandings, such as "One View of the Social World", can be used. These are summarised as:

A. Take one abstract statement (or a collection of statements) and relate concrete situations to it (or them)
B. Generate related or sub-ideas from the statements and then find concrete situations that relate to one of these
C. Use concepts contained in the statements as organising ideas for a social study
D. Take the child's social world and relate abstract statements or concepts to it
E. Use a synthesis of some or all of the above four methods.

Examples of units of social study, which appear to have been developed following Method A, are presented in the unit booklets. Scope and sequence charts for Prep to Year 6, which

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relate the generalisations and units to the various grade levels, are presented in the Handbook. 13

The statements of understandings (generalisations) therefore serve as a guide for the selection of topics for study. It is anticipated that teachers will select from the published units, or develop their own units of work, content which will further the child's understanding of some aspect concerned with the functioning of society, and which is reflected in one or more of the generalisations. Throughout the primary school the child will therefore be involved in numerous social studies and will have developed a greater understanding of aspects of the functioning of society by examining these in different contexts.

6. EVALUATION

The term "evaluation" refers to an important feature of any curriculum statement. It can be broadly defined as "the process by which schools and teachers make judgements to guide planning and decision-making about the objectives and behaviours within their schools." 14 It needs to be distinguished from "measurement", which is the obtaining of

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(14) Ibid., p. 105.
data on which judgements or decisions are made, and "assessment", which concerns the measurement of student performance, although both measurement and assessment are part of the evaluation process. The purpose of evaluation is to improve the quality of the curriculum, and the learning environment, to maximise the opportunities for those involved to reach the objectives of the program. The process of evaluation is described in the following passage: 15

The focus of evaluation is the performance or response of the children in relation to the activities undertaken. This performance is analysed and appraised in relation to the expected behaviour expressed in the stated objectives. Thus the objectives provide the direction for the activities as well as the criteria for later evaluation of the results of those activities. Evaluation involves the identification and collection of relevant information, and the organisation, analysis, and presentation of the information in such a way that some judgement of the situation can be made. The resultant judgement that is made forms the basis for planning further action toward achieving the objectives.

Much of the information in relation to evaluation in the curriculum documents is of a general nature although Society in View and Living and Learning do examine some of the issues involved in evaluation in some detail. The general information which is provided may be due, in part, to the problems which surround the process of evaluation in social studies. Society in View suggests, for instance, that there

(15) Ibid.
are problems in the objective measurement of outcomes, "due largely to the difficulty in identifying and describing, in specific terms, an ordered set of expected responses from among the complex variety of behaviours which might relate to the broad objectives stated for social studies programs."\textsuperscript{16} Moreover, unless the program is concerned only with teaching facts, it is difficult to score responses as "right" or "wrong". According to the Handbook "to a large extent, interpretations of the social world are personal and reflect the individual's underlying values, attitudes, and experiences."\textsuperscript{17}

The approach followed by \textit{Society in View} in attempting to resolve some of the problems associated with evaluation is outlined here in some detail. Given the difficulties associated with the broad statements of objectives, and with the objective measurement of children's responses, \textit{Society in View} identifies a number of aspects which might be evaluated, specifies criteria on which evaluation might be based, and outlines the dimensions of children's responses in relation to each of these criteria.

The aspects of the curriculum which are identified are the development of understandings about the social world, social interaction and discussion, and research skills involving data collection and data presentation. The criteria, 

\textsuperscript{(16) Ibid.}

\textsuperscript{(17) Ibid.}
and the dimensions of children's responses in relation to these criteria, are briefly described here.

The evaluation of children's responses which relate to the development of understandings about the social world are based on the recommended teaching strategies which, as outlined earlier in this chapter,\textsuperscript{18} have been designed for specific purposes. Therefore, a number of criteria which relate to listing, classification and synthesis are identified, and the dimensions of each of these criteria are described. These are outlined in FIGURE 9. For example, the compilation of a list of items (criteria) would be evaluated according to the degree of "inclusiveness" (dimension) - that is, the number, range, relevancy and accuracy of the items listed. It is not the intention here to discuss each of these criteria and the dimensions since these are outlined in considerable detail in the \textit{Society in View Handbook}.

Apart from evaluation directed towards the development of understandings about the social world two other aspects, which are also considered to be important to the achievement of the objectives of the program, are also described. The first of these concerns social interaction and discussion and involves the ability of the child to act independently in solving problems and to interact with other children in

\begin{footnote}
\textsuperscript{(18)} See pages 100-140.
\end{footnote}
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CRITERIA</th>
<th>DIMENSIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>LISTING</strong> (Identification of Elements)</td>
<td>inclusiveness:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. to compile a list of items;</td>
<td>- number of items listed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. to recognise the attributes of each item;</td>
<td>- range of items listed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. to use appropriate word labels.</td>
<td>- relevance and accuracy of items listed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- understanding of the attributes of items listed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- precision and clarity of language expression.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- abstractness of language used.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CLASSIFICATION</strong> (Discovery of Classes and Relationships)</td>
<td>criteria upon which items are grouped.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. to form groupings of items which are related or have common attributes;</td>
<td>- number of items grouped.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. to use appropriate category labels in order to explain the criteria used for grouping.</td>
<td>- size of groupings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- consistency of criteria within and between groups.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- understanding of class inclusion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- appropriateness and sophistication of concept labels.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SYNTHESIS</strong> (Synthesis of Understanding)</td>
<td>inclusiveness:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. to make statements of general understanding.</td>
<td>- number of sub-ideas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. to recognise the basic evidence and experiences upon which the generalisations have been formed and so be able to justify these statements.</td>
<td>- range of aspects covered.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. to clarify the expression of the statements in order to communicate the underlying understandings to others.</td>
<td>- relevance and accuracy of ideas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- extent of egocentrism and ethnocentrism.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- extent of comparison.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- tentativeness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- abstractness of language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- justification of statements.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- precision and clarity of language.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

group activities. Social interaction is seen to play an important role in intellectual development:

As the child is confronted with the different and/or contradictory perceptions, ideas, beliefs, and understandings of others, he develops intellectually. He begins to accept other viewpoints besides his own, to see other possibilities besides those known from his own experiences, and therefore to modify his previous ideas and beliefs. Thus the child's understandings are extended and refined. Therefore, as well as the active manipulation of physical elements in the environment, the processes involved in social interaction also creates stress that induces cognitive growth.

Social interaction also plays an important role in the development of language providing opportunities for children to gain greater understanding of the meaning of words and concepts:

The sharing and challenging of ideas enable further definition and explanation of the meanings attached to various words or concept labels. Discussion is not merely an exchange of words: it is an exchange of meanings.

A similar approach to that followed in relation to evaluation of the child's understandings about the social world is followed here. In relation to "independent study

(20) Ibid., pp. 40, 119, 128.
(21) Ibid., p. 40.
(22) Ibid.
and inquiry" four criteria are identified (initiative, perseverance, organisational ability, and awareness) and the dimensions of each criteria are noted. This is summarised in FIGURE 10. Similarly, for "small group activity" the criteria specified (oral communication, participation, cooperation, and responsibility) and the dimensions of each of these criteria are summarised in FIGURE 11.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FIGURE 10:</th>
<th>EVALUATION CRITERIA FOR &quot;INDEPENDENT STUDY AND INQUIRY&quot; IN SOCIETY IN VIEW</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| INITIATIVE | - is a self-starter  
               - needs some direction  
               - needs prodding  
               - shows curiosity  
               - is inventive  
               - shows some originality |
| PERSEVERANCE | - finishes the task  
                   - discourages easily  
                   - projects often are not completed |
| ORGANISATIONAL ABILITY | - uses time efficiently  
                               - plans well with help  
                               - wastes time |
| AWARENESS | - shows concern for others  
                   - is safety conscious  
                   - uses equipment properly  
                   - is careless  
                   - accepts suggestions critically |

### FIGURE 11: \(^{24}\) EVALUATION CRITERIA FOR "SMALL GROUP ACTIVITY" IN SOCIETY IN VIEW

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ORAL COMMUNICATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- is articulate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- understands and is understood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- is often misunderstood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PARTICIPATION</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- takes part eagerly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- contributes to the group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- is rather quiet but alert</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- listens to the views of others as well as expressing own</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- builds on ideas presented by classmates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- is passive spectator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CO-OPERATION</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- tends to be overbearing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- shares leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- resists group pressures when ideas are challenged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- will alter opinion when data is shown not to support own ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- has difficulty working with others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RESPONSIBILITY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- is well prepared</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- is usually dependable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- is reliable</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The final aspect identified for evaluation includes the research skills involved in data collection and data presentation. Here evaluation is based on the teaching strategies related to the Application of Generalisations and the Development of an Understanding of the Inquiry Process

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\(^{24}\) Ibid.
outlined earlier in this chapter. Again, criteria are identified against which the child's ability to handle the various stages of the inquiry process can be assessed and these are outlined in FIGURE 12. Detailed information is provided in the Handbook in relation to the evaluation of this aspect.

In addition to identifying the aspects to be evaluated, the criteria on which evaluation might be based, and the dimensions of the children's responses in relation to the specified criteria, Society in View also reviews a number of techniques by which data on children's responses can be gathered. While structured techniques such as objective tests, checklists and rating scales could be used - for example, in relation to the measurement of the child's development of data collection and data presentation skills - these are considered to be of limited relevance.

The structured techniques ... are designed to test the extent of the child's acquisition of particular knowledge, predetermined attitudes, or skills in relation to specific topics or social situations. Since the SOCIETY IN VIEW program does not set particular knowledge or value outcomes to be attained by the child, these structured techniques have limited relevance.


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACTIVITY</th>
<th>EVALUATION CRITERIA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Acquaintance</td>
<td>Refer to evaluation of activities for Components One and Two</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Statement of Tentative</td>
<td>(a) inclusiveness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding</td>
<td>(b) extent of ethno/egocentrism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2A. Formulation of Generalisations</td>
<td>(c) extent of comparison</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2B. Formulation of Predictions</td>
<td>(d) tentativeness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(e) justified by evidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(f) precise and clear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(a) related to understandings already expressed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(b) relevant to new situation as description/as consequence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(c) precise and clear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Testing Understandings</td>
<td>(a) recognises that evidence is required to test statements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(i) Assessment of Testability</td>
<td>(b) recognises value judgements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ii) Suggestion of Data Form</td>
<td>(c) suggests difficulties likely to interfere with testing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and Data Collection Strategy</td>
<td>(a) can identify the range of information required to -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>check or validate the statement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>extend understandings -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- identifies major concepts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- lists related sub-concepts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- lists attributes of appropriate items</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iii) Data Collection</td>
<td>(b) suggests alternative data forms (i.e., sources)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iv) Organisation and Data</td>
<td>(c) selects most appropriate form</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presentation of Data</td>
<td>(d) suggests alternative collection methods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(v) Analysis of Data</td>
<td>(e) selects most appropriate method</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(f) understands sampling procedures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(g) can plan a sequence of activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(h) suggests difficulties likely to be encountered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(a) recognises named items</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(b) records data systematically</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(c) follows the planned sequence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(d) is resourceful if unplanned difficulties arise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(a) suggests alternative methods of data presentation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(b) selects most appropriate methods of data presentation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>states what the data shows -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- with reference to the range of data collected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- without the presence of personal beliefs, values, suppositions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- clearly and concisely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(a) detects relationships in the data -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- chronological</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- concurrent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- causal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(b) offers explanations for the findings -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- based on evidence collected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- based on previous experiences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(c) offers alternative explanations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(d) shows awareness of possible limitations in understandings now formed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(e) suggests ways for decreasing limitations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(f) suggests further related areas for investigation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Restatement (Compares</td>
<td>makes restatement -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>understandings of new situation</td>
<td>- spontaneously</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with those stated earlier.)</td>
<td>- in light of new evidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- without prejudice</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(27) Ibid., pp. 133–4.
Unstructured techniques, such as interviews and questionnaires using open-ended questions and question-response interaction between the teacher and the child, are seen to have greater relevance.\(^{28}\)

Unstructured techniques ... are useful, as they provide opportunity for the child to respond freely, in his own way, and at his own level, which may or may not be consistent with the teacher's previous expectations. The value of these techniques is that they allow the diagnosis of levels of understanding and the recognition of inconsistencies or inadequacies in the child's responses without the necessity of the imposition of any judgement of rightness or wrongness, goodness or badness.

Detailed guidelines on teacher questioning techniques, described as "the most important tool of evaluation", are provided in various places in the *Handbook*.\(^{29}\) However, given that these unstructured techniques are dependent on the judgement of the teacher in interpreting the responses of the child, *Society in View* also suggests that examples of the child's work are collected over a period of time. This provides the opportunity for "the consistent application of the same evaluation criteria in relation to a number of sets of responses collected over time rather than relying on interpretations."\(^{30}\)

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\(^{29}\) *Ibid.*, pp. 41, 109-110, for example.

The information on evaluation provided in Society in View has been considered in some detail here since this curriculum project gives the problems associated with evaluation in social studies considerably more attention than other curriculum projects. In the South Australian program entitled Learning and Living for instance, a number of aspects to be evaluated are identified but little additional information is provided on the criteria, or the dimensions of children's responses, on which evaluation might be based. However, whereas Society in View relies heavily on teacher questioning to gather data on children's performance Learning and Living provides an alternative approach involving "informal tests" by which information might be gathered on the aspects which are identified for evaluation. For example, in relation to "understanding concepts" it is suggested that children could group pictures, drawings or objects (such as grouping pictures of items into "living" and "non-living"), select examples of a particular concept from a list of items, or colour items which illustrate a particular concept from amongst a set of pictures of various objects. Similarly, in relation to evaluating the aspect "understanding generalisations" children could be asked to select from a list of statements those which support a particular generalisation, or to match statements involving cause and effect relationships. Numerous suggestions of informal techniques of this type are provided.
7. CONCLUSION

In this chapter the current curriculum documents from Victoria, New South Wales, South Australia and Western Australia have been reviewed. Compared with earlier programs reviewed in previous chapters the current programs in social studies from these States present substantial changes in relation to social studies teaching. The handbooks or syllabus outlines which have been published provided detailed information in relation to defining social studies, clarifying aims and the rationale for these aims, elaborating the teaching strategies and learning activities which are considered to be appropriate, outlining the ways in which content might be selected, and suggesting ways in which children's progress might be evaluated. General conclusions about each of these aspects from this review of curriculum documents are presented in the next chapter.
CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

In the past 32 years there have been substantial developments in thinking about social studies curricula for primary schools. This chapter attempts to outline the developments during this period under the major headings by which these curriculum documents were reviewed in previous chapters—that is, in terms of the criteria by which social studies is defined, the aims and rationale of these programs, the teaching strategies and learning activities which are outlined, the content which is suggested, and the ways in which outcomes in terms of pupil progress might be evaluated.

In addition, an attempt is made to comment critically on the developments during this period. Whereas the focus in previous chapters was on the description and interpretation of the various curriculum documents, this chapter is concerned with the assessment of the educational significance of the materials which have been reviewed. That is, an attempt is made to identify the perceived strengths of the curriculum documents and to suggest areas in which further development might be helpful.
WHAT IS SOCIAL STUDIES?

An important development during this period has been a clearer definition of social studies as a separate area of the school curriculum. This is significant because the way in which areas of the curriculum are recognised influences the aims, content, and methods which are followed.

It was suggested in Chapter 2 that there was little evidence in the programs of the 1950s and early 1960s to suggest that the definition of what social studies is had been examined in detail. Most documents of this period referred to social studies as being a "composite" of history, geography and civics, and of the need for these subjects to be "interwoven" by teachers.

Documents of the 1960s and early 1970s, reviewed in Chapter 3, dealt with the question of defining social studies by describing what it consisted of in terms of what one writer has referred to as a "field" and a "process". The "field" referred to the content of the program, the "process" involved the activities which children would engage in. The content included "everything about man and his relationships with other men and with his physical and social environments". The "process" referred to inquiry strategies which children could follow in investigating aspects of the social world.

(1) See pages 32-3.
In current curriculum documents the question of "What is social studies?" - that is, what are the characteristics, or attributes, or qualities by which this area of the curriculum might be recognised - have been given considerable attention. There are two basic criteria by which this subject area is defined - knowledge and processes. In relation to knowledge social studies is considered to have a particular role to play in the development of the child's knowledge of society - that is, the development of concepts and generalisations which relate to the social world. The concepts dealt with in social studies such as "social organisation" and "culture" are different from those dealt with in science (such as "energy" and "matter") or mathematics ("time" or "numeration") and these distinguish social studies from other areas of the curriculum.

In relation to processes, the emphasis on inquiry strategies, and the preparation of children to handle these, indicates that the ways in which children investigate the social world differ substantially from the ways they might go about investigating, say, the physical world. Social studies introduces children to techniques which create knowledge using, amongst other things, surveys, interviews and questionnaires whereas science, for instance, familiarises children with experimental techniques by which they might investigate the physical world. Therefore, in terms of processes and skills, social studies has a unique contribution to make to the curriculum offered to children.
The emphasis on both knowledge and processes is clearly reflected in the objectives of programs. However, since concepts can relate to the values held by groups or individuals some curriculum documents consider that a third distinguishing feature of social studies involves assisting children in the "clarification" and "development" of values. But whether or not this emphasis distinguishes social studies from other areas of the curriculum would appear to be debatable. Other areas of the school curriculum provide the opportunity for children to develop an understanding of themselves as persons and to clarify and develop their own values. However, the emphasis on helping children develop their own values, understand the values of others, and recognise the importance of values in influencing behaviour highlights a neglected area of the curriculum and, in this way, identifies an important feature of all areas of the primary school curriculum in general, and the social studies program in particular.

New social studies curriculum documents present clear statements on what this subject area attempts to develop knowledge about, and how investigations are conducted, through attempts to clearly identify the criteria by which this area of the curriculum can be recognised. In various curriculum statements social studies is identified as an area

(2) See pages 90-95.
of the curriculum which makes "unique", "significant" and "vital" contributions to the educational experiences provided for children. The attention which has been given to outlining the qualities by which social studies can be recognised has enabled the various curriculum documents to clearly establish the place of social studies in the primary school curriculum.

AIMS AND RATIONALE

The aims of social studies, and the rationale for these aims, have also received considerable attention.

In early courses of study the aim of social studies was the development of "good citizens" which was seen to involve providing children with "sufficient information" and "desirable habits and attitudes" to enable them to fit into society.

The aims of programs in the 1960s and early 1970s, reviewed in Chapter 3, appeared to be similar to those in earlier programs. However, while "effective citizenship" remained the aim of these programs the meaning of the term had started to change. Unlike earlier programs which attempted to provide the information and attitudes which would enable children to fit into a static social world, programs by the 1970s had recognised the need to assist
children to adjust to a changing social world. "Effective citizenship" seemed to involve equipping children for "active participation" in the community and attention was directed towards providing the knowledge, skills, and approaches to investigating values which would assist children to do this.

A considerable shift in emphasis is evident in some of the current programs. Notions of "effective citizenship" and "active participation" have been replaced in some programs although, perhaps, not in all programs, by the idea that the intention of social studies programs is to assist the individual to become "socially competent". Two factors are considered to be involved in the development of social competence. The first of these concerns the development of an individual's personal understandings of the social world (knowledge) and of the processes and skills necessary to acquire and develop these understandings. The second factor concerns the individual's personal understanding of himself or herself as a participating member of society. The aim is to assist the individual to "operate flexibly, autonomously and responsibly", to "cope" and "adapt" in a complex and rapidly changing society. According to Society in View the individual:³

... may adapt to the changing world, thinking through his problems independently, critically evaluating the information he receives, sifting

(3) See pages 97-99.
through it in order to decide what is relevant for him, and anticipating a change and planning action which will enable him to cope with that particular change. He may act to prevent or divert the change, to lessen the effect of the change, or to maximise any gain which might result from the change.

Unlike earlier programs in which the needs of the individual were considered to be subservient to the needs of society the intention here is clearly directed towards assisting the individual to deal with a complex and changing world. It is individual needs, rather than the requirements of society, which provide the focus for new curriculum statements. The intention of new programs is to assist the individual to adapt or cope or, more accurately, to act intelligently in response to changes in society. On the other hand it could be argued that this indicates not so much a change in intentions but rather a re-appraisal of what "good citizenship" or "active participation" in society involves. According to such an argument the long term "needs of society" may be better served if members are equipped with the knowledge and skills to take independent action to maintain and contribute to their own welfare. But whatever the reasons it is individual needs, and the ways in which these might best be served, which provide a clear direction to the new programs in social studies.

(4) See pages 35-41.
LEARNING EXPERIENCES AND TEACHING STRATEGIES

Another factor examined in the previous chapters concerned the teaching strategies and learning activities which were specified to facilitate the child's ability to investigate, and to deal with, his social world. The attention which has been given to this aspect is another significant development in new social studies curricula. Despite the many suggestions which have been made about alternative teaching strategies during the period reviewed specific attention has only really been given to this aspect in current programs.

In the earlier programs "teacher-telling", in which children absorbed ideas and information presented by the teacher, appeared to be the predominant form of instruction. While "activity work", "group work" and "project methods" were suggested, these activities seemed to be directed to making the acquisition of information more enjoyable rather than being seen as central to the task of investigating and explaining the social world. There was little development in relation to teaching strategies, apart from the brief information presented in the 1975 New South Wales Guidelines, in the programs of the 1960s and 1970s reviewed in Chapter 3.

(5) See pages 71-72.
Considerable attention has been given to teaching strategies in current programs. All of the programs reviewed recommend teaching strategies based on inquiry by children into aspects of their social world. The inquiry process is seen to require the development of specialised skills associated with collecting information, and organising and presenting data. The skills needed to collect data include, amongst other things, observing, interviewing and recording. The skills needed to organise and present data include making charts and graphs and written and oral reporting.

How the process of inquiry, and the development of these specialised research skills might be facilitated, differs in the various curriculum documents. Society in View considers that the primary school child does not always have the ability to proceed beyond the early stages of the inquiry process and, as a result, outlines teaching strategies which develop the prerequisite skills necessary for the collection of information and the organisation and presentation of data. These prerequisite intellectual or cognitive skills involving listing, classification and generalising are incorporated into teaching strategies which prepare children to handle the total inquiry process in the later years of the primary school.

The South Australian curriculum guides propose "a method of guided and systematic enquiry" which gives children the opportunity, from an early age, to engage directly in the
inquiry process. Children are introduced to the process of defining an area of inquiry, forming an hypothesis, posing questions for research, completing investigations and, finally, drawing conclusions. The assumption is that repeated experiences with this procedure will enable children to become better at handling it. Unlike Society in View which delays introducing children to the total inquiry process until they are considered to be ready to handle it, the South Australian program states that the inquiry process "can be introduced at the beginning of the children's schooling and developed through successive years".

The teaching strategy presented in the Western Australian Syllabus involves (a) an Intake phase, where students locate and gather relevant information, (b) an Organisational phase, where students organise information and develop understandings, and (c) a Demonstration phase, where students demonstrate understandings or apply these to related situations. It was pointed out in the previous chapter that this Intake-Organisation-Demonstration sequence was presented in general terms only. 6

From a reading of the curriculum documents it is impossible to tell which of these approaches would be the more effective in developing children's abilities to handle

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(6) See pages 125-6.
the inquiry process. However, it can be stated that these approaches appear to have the potential to achieve the objective of assisting children to handle the inquiry process, and that they are presented in a sufficiently practical format to be of guidance to teachers in the classroom. Only the case of *Society in View* demonstrates, however, a clear connection between the strategies proposed and relevant research studies, and this would appear to be a factor which deserves attention in future revisions of other programs.

However, a review of the more specific teaching strategies designed to develop concepts and generalisations reveals a number of shortcomings. Only *Society in View* can be considered to have presented detailed information in relation to one procedure by which concepts and generalisations can be developed. In this program for instance, a clear procedure involving listing, grouping and labelling, and stating understandings, is outlined, and detailed examples of questions which might be asked by teachers are presented. 7

In other programs only brief details are included of strategies which can be used to develop concepts and generalisations. This is the case in the South Australian 8

(7) See pages 107-111.

(8) See pages 122-123.
and New South Wales programs. In the Western Australian program no information is provided for the guidance of teachers. Despite the emphasis in the aims in all of these programs on the development of concepts and generalisations about the social world the lack of guidance for teachers on how this might be done is perceived to be a major omission in these programs.

However, while *Society in View* provides a detailed outline of one approach to developing concepts and generalisations, attention is not directed to an alternative strategy (briefly noted in the South Australian program). The reasons why this alternative approach was not considered are not outlined but given the influence of the work of the Taba Curriculum Development Project on developments in Victoria this is a surprising omission.

Taba, and others, identified two major strategies for developing concepts and generalisations. The first strategy, called "concept development", is similar to that outlined in considerable detail in *Society in View*. However, a second strategy called "concept attainment" was also outlined. According to Taba, and others:

(9) See pages 119-120.
(10) See page 126.
(11) See pages 122-123.
The principal difference between this strategy and the preceding one lies in the degree of control exercised over the outcome. The concept labels which students give the groups in a concept development exercise are their own. They label a group of items in the most appropriate way they can devise, given their experience with those particular items, their cognitive style, and the pool of words on which they can draw. In the case of concept attainment, they are first given a concept word to say and to recognize in its printed form and are then presented with a wide range of examples of it, followed in due course, by some non-examples. They are then tested by being asked to identify an example of the concept among a mixed group of examples and non-examples. In both of these strategies involving concepts, students are expected to discover relationships among a group of items but in one (concept formation) [sic] the selection is student controlled, in the sense that students group according to their own judgement about what goes together and how the groups they thus form should be labelled, whereas in the other (concept attainment) the teacher provides the label and the students' task is to discover what common element (or elements) links (or link) together the various objects that are called by the same name.

The comment is also made that "these strategies on concept development and concept attainment should provide students with opportunities to ponder each experience and systematically to establish a firm basis for deepening their understanding of the concepts they form and acquire". 13

Clearly, both approaches to the formation of concepts receive support in the Taba curriculum development project.

(13) Ibid., p. 72.
Given this support for both strategies, the reasons why only one strategy was presented for the guidance of teachers in Victoria is puzzling. The South Australian program, while noting this approach, fails to develop it in any detail. There would appear to be a need for additional research and it is considered that the advantages, limitations and practicality of other strategies need to be explored with a view to being incorporated into later revisions of curriculum documents.

An additional factor which needs to be considered in this regard is the amount of assistance which is provided to teachers to enable them to implement these new approaches. The handbook accompanying Society in View is a detailed and well researched document which brings together a great deal of valuable material. On the other hand, its complexity makes it a demanding publication to read, and future revisions of this program should present the handbook in a more attractive and readable format. Moreover, new approaches require a willingness and effort on the part of teachers to develop new skills and expertise. Therefore, the abandonment of related in-service education, particularly in the case of Society in View, may restrict the implementation of new approaches, and it would appear to be important that new initiatives are taken to provide teachers with appropriate support.
In contrast to the lack of guidance on teaching strategies which develop children's understandings of concepts and generalisations related to the social world in many programs, considerable attention is given to strategies which are designed to assist children to analyse and clarify their own values. These are designed to help children to understand the reasons why they might have, or might adopt, particular values, and why particular groups or individuals hold the values they do. It has been suggested in the previous chapter\(^{14}\) however, that there is a need for curriculum publications to clarify the question of whether or not some particular values are promoted in social studies. It was noted that the resolution of this problem might be related to defining different types of values - behavioural, procedural and substantive - and clearly stating the position which teachers might adopt in relation to each of these different types of values.

Clearly, the teaching strategies which are designed to enable teachers to assist children to analyse and clarify their own values can be applied to the three different types of values identified. But there appears to be a view that these relate, in the main, to the examination of substantive values. On the other hand, there is a suggestion that the teacher has the right to "impose" or "inculcate"

\(^{14}\) See pages 133-140.
behavioural and procedural values since these are necessary either in maintaining classroom behaviour or in utilising the methods of inquiry in social studies.

Given the importance of behavioural and procedural values in relation to classroom conduct, and to inquiry in social studies, there would appear to be some value in investigating other ways in which these might be developed. One of the explicit strategies employed in the social studies program Man: A Course of Study, for instance, was the use of "competence models". These were intended to be examples of systematic, purposeful and sustained research in social science, which children might be encouraged to emulate, within the limitations of their developing abilities, in their own social investigations. While examples abound from scientific research, attention is seldom directed towards similar case studies from the social sciences in social studies programs. While this is only one way in which procedural values, applicable to the social sciences, could be promoted, further research and development might also establish other approaches which would be of benefit to teachers.

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(15) See, for example, the writers quoted on pages 136-7, and comments on the South Australian and Western Australian programs on pages 133-4.

Another aspect examined in this thesis has been the content of social studies programs. Unlike earlier programs in which content referred to the facts which children were expected to learn at different grade levels, new social studies programs define content in terms of concepts and generalisations which summarise a large number of facts and which are applicable to a wide range of social situations.

To assist teachers in planning topics or units of work new social studies programs provide a framework about society either in the form of a set of generalisations, or a number of key concepts, drawn from the social science disciplines. It is doubtful if teachers would have the time and resources to develop their own units of social studies although this is possible and detailed information is often provided to assist teachers in this regard. However, most of the later curriculum guides provide suggested units of work, rather than a syllabus to be covered at each grade level as in earlier programs, and the set of generalisations or key concepts which are provided are designed to assist teachers to select from the suggested topics, or units of work, those which are appropriate to particular groups of children. Most curriculum guides also recommend that topics, or units of work, are presented in a scope and sequence matrix, and related to particular themes, to ensure that a range of topics are dealt with which will enable children to teach a broad understanding of the social world.
Despite the systematic way in which generalisations and/or key concepts have been developed from an analysis of the social science disciplines, and the guidelines which have been provided to assist teachers to plan topics and units of work, a review of the curriculum publications raises some doubts about the value of this approach in enabling teachers to select appropriate and relevant content which meets the needs of children. What is considered to be appropriate and relevant, of course, depends on the aims which have been selected for the program. It has already been pointed out\(^\text{17}\) that the newer social studies programs endeavour to assist individuals to become socially competent; that is, to act intelligently in the rapidly changing social world in which they live. However, it would appear to be possible to argue that some of the content of new social studies programs, defined in terms of the concepts and generalisations which children investigate, fails to include materials which would be relevant to the task of assisting children to become socially competent.

One example is given to illustrate this point. Youth unemployment is a serious problem in our society and many young people find it extremely difficult to make decisions about employment and careers. Making informed decisions about occupations would appear to be one of the requirements

\(^{17}\) See pages 162-163.
of social competence. However, a review of the concepts
and generalisations presented in the curriculum documents,
which were generated from an examination of the social
science disciplines, did not identify occupations as one of
the concepts which students might investigate, and about
which they might develop important understandings, to assist
them to make informed decisions about possible careers. If
children were to leave school without some clear understanding
about, say, the range of occupations available, the level of
qualifications required, and the future possibilities of
employment, this would appear to be a serious failure of a
social studies program designed to assist children to become
socially competent. Yet this is a concept which could
easily be examined at all stages of schooling. Infant
children who visit the policeman and the ambulance station,
Grade 6 children who investigate careers, and Year 10
students who complete periods of work experience, are all
completing activities which contribute to their understanding
of this concept.

What is being suggested is that other approaches to
the identification of significant concepts may ensure that
the content which is investigated relates closely to intended
aims. For instance, an analysis of what it means to be
socially competent in our society may be a more valuable
approach to generating significant concepts and generalisations
which would provide the framework around which a social
studies program could be based.
EVALUATION

The final aspect, examined in Chapter 4, concerned the ways in which the outcomes of social studies, in terms of pupil progress, might be evaluated. There are some problems associated with this component of social studies curricula due to difficulties associated with the objective measurement of outcomes, and with the personal nature of interpretations of the social world which reflect an individual's values, attitudes and experiences. As a result, the use of structured evaluation techniques such as objective tests and rating scales is usually restricted to the testing of aspects of data collection and data presentation skills. Most curriculum documents see unstructured techniques, such as questionnaires and interviews using open-ended questions and question-response interaction between the teacher and the child, as being of greater relevance in the evaluation of pupil outcomes.

The most detailed and complete statement on evaluation is provided in Society in View and much of the material presented in Chapter 4 was based on this program. In this program the information gathered by unstructured techniques is considered in relation to criteria which have been developed from the broad statements of objectives. The criteria, and the dimensions of children's responses on each of these criteria, generally relate to the development of understandings about the social world, social interaction
and discussion, and research skills involved in data collection and presentation.

Some of the examples of criteria, and the dimensions of children's responses which are considered in relation to these criteria, which are presented in Chapter 4, appear to be complex and pre-suppose informed observation and questioning of children's responses on the part of teachers. Diagnosing levels of understanding, recognising aspects of children's responses requiring attention, and providing appropriate activities to assist the child's development, are complex and demanding components of the teacher's role. Since the use of unstructured techniques is so heavily dependent on the interpretation of the teacher the suggestion that examples of children's work over a period of time should be collected, to ensure that the same evaluation criteria are constantly applied, would appear to be sound advice.

The "informal tests" outlined in the South Australian program Learning and Living\(^1\) would appear to be one aspect of evaluation which deserves further research and development. Appropriate "tests" which could be adapted by teachers to suit particular unit requirements might be one way to supplement the heavy dependence on teacher questioning in the collection of data on which evaluation is based. Tests such as these

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(18) See page 155.
might assist teachers to deal more easily with the complexity of the criteria\textsuperscript{19} involved in many of the important aspects related to the evaluation of children's understandings of concepts and generalisations, and to the collection, organisation and presentation of data.

In this thesis social studies programs from 1952 to 1984 have been reviewed. The changes in this period have been considerable both in terms of the theoretical perspectives on which programs are now based, and in the practical application of these to the classroom setting. Social studies curriculum guidelines have developed from a list of content to be covered and poorly defined methods by which this content might be transmitted to children, to comprehensive statements which provide teachers with an understanding of the theoretical foundations on which programs are based, and with suggested teaching strategies which enable programs to be implemented in classrooms. Hopefully, evaluation studies will follow to monitor the extent to which the curriculum development which has been achieved in social studies is translated into the interactions which occur between teachers and children in the classroom setting.

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(19) See, for example, the criteria outlined on page 153.
APPENDIX A: CURRENT DEVELOPMENTS IN QUEENSLAND

It is unlikely that the 1970 Syllabus will be revised in the near future. The recently established (January, 1982) Primary Social Studies Curriculum Project, while recognising that some problems exist with aspects of the 1970 Syllabus, has decided against the writing of a new syllabus statement. Instead, attention has been given to the development of support materials for teachers. According to a recent project report:

... the most pressing need is for teacher support to ensure that the aims and objectives of the syllabus are appropriately met. In terms of this need, the answer does not appear to be in the writing of a new syllabus, which, in turn, might not achieve what is required in terms of teacher support and guidance. Rather what is required is a process of curriculum improvement rather than curriculum change. Curriculum improvement in this sense means changing certain aspects of the curriculum without changing the fundamental conception of it or its organisation. In other words, it will aim at extending and supporting the existing conception of the curriculum, its organisation, and its implementation.

A number of areas in which teachers need assistance have been identified by the Primary Social Studies Curriculum

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Project, and some trial materials for use by classroom teachers have been developed.²
APPENDIX B: CURRENT DEVELOPMENTS IN TASMANIA

Developments in social studies teaching in Tasmania have been omitted from this study for two reasons. Firstly, difficulty was experienced in obtaining copies of earlier courses of study and developments could not be accurately traced. Secondly, the material included in the most recent social studies curriculum guides was considered to be adequately covered in the curriculum documents reviewed in Chapter 4 and, to avoid duplication, was omitted from this study.

The curriculum guides which were obtained are outlined in the Bibliography.
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Author/s:
Pearson, H. John

Title:
A review of selected social studies curricula for Australian primary schools: 1952-1984

Date:
1985

Citation:

Publication Status:
Unpublished

Persistent Link:
http://hdl.handle.net/11343/39095

File Description:
A review of selected social studies curricula for Australian primary schools : 1952-1984

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