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## ABSTRACT

This paper was prepared for a social studies curriculum conference in Alberta in June, 1967. It provides a point of view on curriculum building which could be useful in establishing a national service in this field. The basic assumption is that the social studies should in some measure change the behavior of the students (a sharp departure from the rationale of the information and storage retrieval learning theories of the forties and fifties). Since values held by an individual or group are powerful determinants of behavior, the social studies teachers must be concerned with values and value systems. The curriculum should be designed around their needs and interests to generate relevancy, rather than reflect the dictates of the discipline. Knowledge is essential but if outcomes are not so much what a student knows but how he behaves in certain situations, content becomes not the end but the means. Students who have been exposed to several years of social studies should exemplify the following behaviors: 1) examine social issues critically; 2) question assumptions; 3) be suspicious of action that limits the rights of others; 4) identify and reject prejudice; and, 5) determine reliability of information sources. When the social studies program accomplishes some of these purposes, it has justified its role. The success of such curriculum design resides with the teacher who is broadly educated within the social sciences.  
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THE ROLE OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES  
IN PUBLIC EDUCATION

by

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ONTARIO INSTITUTE FOR STUDIES  
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## THE ROLE OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN PUBLIC EDUCATION

I would like to review, if I may, some of the influences that have directed curriculum planning in the social studies throughout the forties and fifties, those two quiet, and in retrospect, immensely attractive decades. This will, I assure you, be a brief flashback since there is nothing more deadly than the intellectual concepts of the immediate preceding decade. (1)

A major influence in the development of a social studies curriculum has been, and I expect will continue to be, the predominant position of history. No matter how much a curriculum designer might have wished to introduce new content from the social sciences, he did so at his own peril. Teachers had been prepared in the field of history and insisted on teaching it to the exclusion of other content irrespective of provincial directive. The vocal public, these being newspaper editors, politicians, and some university professors, were convinced that the study of history and history alone would produce the informed citizen and that any move to introduce other content was a threat to the security of the state. And further, the curriculum designers themselves in all probability held a deep and abiding faith in the efficacy of historical literature to create the good citizen.

Accordingly, if one examines the social studies curriculum of junior and senior high schools for the fifties and sixties in this and, I suspect other provinces, one can readily detect a strong orientation towards the discipline of history. Ancient history held sway in Grade X, modern history dominated the content of Grade XI and international affairs with Canada as the central focus gave substance to the Grade XII course.

A second influence, which might be termed the social studies "syndrome", provided some slight justification for that title on Alberta curriculum publications. The proponents of social studies held the view that other disciplines within the family of social sciences had much to contribute towards an understanding of the current social scene. And further, that content relevant to a particular topic could be selected from a discipline without a full-scale exploration of its content and structure. Whatever the merit of this eclectic practice, it has had little acceptance from the specialist who feels that one should either drink deeply from his fount of knowledge or else go thirsty.

The Alberta social studies curriculum of the fifties reflected a desire to move beyond the myth-fact-legend of historical narrative by introducing generalizations derived from one or more of the social sciences. (2) Throughout the various units one may find concepts drawn from the field of economics, such as the factors of production, the relationship of supply and demand in the establishment of prices, the theory of marginal utility. True, the emphasis in this selection

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has been strongly classical with the Marshalian tradition very much in evidence. The Keynesian influence had not yet penetrated the conventional wisdom adhered to by curriculum builders in remote mid-century Alberta. Similarly those principles selected from the field of political science were in the best traditions of Bagehot. They reflected the more static and structural approach to the study of political institutions rather than the dynamic behavioral interpretation that is currently the vogue within this discipline.

These are illustrative more of the type of content selected than of the social studies approach. Since the curriculum guide was written in the early fifties, sweeping changes have apparently occurred among the social sciences. Institutions are being analyzed from the behavioral rather than the structural view. How one crystallizes this dynamic emphasis into tidy statements to be included in a curriculum guide poses a problem which at this moment I would rather avoid.

A third influence affected the organization rather than the nature of content; this was the concept of the unit method. A unit essentially is a body of content organized around some central co-ordinating theme which could be covered in a six to eight-week period. The theme might be topical, such as the story of transportation, or it might pinpoint a social issue such as the provision of low-cost housing. While the units in the Alberta curriculum tended to be phrased as problems, they

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were in effect devices for organizing content into comprehensive wholes. They provided the means for introducing distinct divisions in the year's work, each with emphasis on one or another of history, geography, economics, political science or cultural anthropology.

Another influence not generally understood but nonetheless significant is reflected in the series of generalizations contained in each unit. One of the most authentic but least accepted of principles in learning is that individual facts disappear from one's memory very quickly but general statements or principles tend to remain as part of one's permanent framework of knowledge. One may immediately recall such generalized concepts in science as Archimedes' Principle or Newton's Law of Motion without remembering the details leading to their enunciation. The generalizations listed in the various units of the Alberta curriculum guides for Grades VII to XII were, in effect, conclusions, tentative or otherwise, generalized statements and principles.

The effect of listing generalizations was unexpected. Instead of using these statements as models and developing similar or the same conclusions from the detailed study and discussion of historical fact, many teachers regarded them as precepts to be taught. Furthermore, we soon discovered that a statement acceptable to one historian as an insightful conclusion drawn from a series of historical facts might, to another, illustrate uninformed bias. In the evaluation of historical

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generalizations one historian's considered judgement may to a colleague reflect professional ineptitude. Such are the hazards of printing pithy statements intended to summarize lengthy intellectual explorations.

No excursion into the past can be complete without reference  
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to The Enterprise. The term dominated elementary social studies in the Province of Alberta for the best part of three decades. The word brings nostalgic memories of controversy with wide extremes of support and opposition. At least for a short period of time in this century the elementary school became the focus of attention. Post-secondary and vocational education had not yet usurped the centre of the stage.

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The enterprise or the activity movement constitutes perhaps, the first major attempt in our century to change teaching practice. Stated simply the theory underlying this enterprise was that to learn, students must enter actively into the teaching-learning process. They must have established clearly conceived learning purposes and they must achieve these through reading, discussing, writing, drawing, and building. The student rather than the subject became the centre of concern. It did not matter so much what particular set of facts he mastered provided that through their use he developed good habits of investigating, consolidating, and clarifying content, content which to him was relevant to achieving objectives that he had played a part in developing. Currently, we might say that his response should be aggressive; that learning cannot take place unless the learner  
(5)  
is seeking to overcome some disturbance within his cognitive limits.

The activity movement marked the first important assault on the predominant learning theory of this century. Irrespective of official pronouncements we have based teaching practice on what might be termed the information storage and retrieval theory. This theory views the learner as a passive vessel for the storage of facts. The success of the learning process is measured by the speed and accuracy with which these facts can be recalled. If they cannot be recalled, one assumes that the learner has not been taught the facts at all or has been taught them very poorly indeed.

This theory has dominated twentieth century educational practice from the primary to the graduate school. Nowhere did it hold sway so completely as in the universities. It provided a rationale for the practice of history professors at the University of Alberta some years ago asking freshmen to recall lists of unrelated historical or geographical facts at the commencement of the university year. Armed with not unexpected low scores these academicians then pontificated to the press on the inadequacies of high school social studies.

I hope this review has not proved to tedious. I feel somewhat like a man who has unexpectedly come across a love letter written many years ago. The words are still there but time has eroded the emotion. And he wonders why words that once were so moving can no longer arouse anything more than wistful memories of an early attachment.

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A recent period of major curriculum reform commencing some seven or eight years ago seems now to be drawing to a close. Shocked by Sputnik in 1957, the American nation particularly became acutely conscious of certain problems in public education. The drive to examine and remedy instructional inadequacies was understandingly directed first towards mathematics and science. Great national committees in various subject fields, liberally financed, with memberships drawn from practitioners in the disciplines, teachers and curriculum specialists, turned their attention to the analysis of content, the production of curriculum materials, and the improvement of teaching.

The basis for reform resided in the analysis of disciplinary structure. Each discipline has, so it is argued, a unique structure capable of being identified and described. A structure consists of the basic assumptions or principles from which content is derived. It involves the methods through which new knowledge is discovered. It indicates direction for growth, that is, frontiers for further exploration. It provides insights into the logic of the discipline and into its inherent integrity. An understanding of structure should provide an individual with the power to move confidently within the discipline though he may not have mastered its total content.

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A distinguishing feature of the structural approach resides in the inter-relationship of content and method. It is impossible, apparently, to separate the techniques of the discipline from its basic assumptions

and from the expanding body of knowledge deriving from these self evident truths. The chemist employs laboratory procedures to test hypotheses and to establish new principles. His is the inductive, experimental path in the accumulation of facts. To understand the structure of chemistry the student must search out its basic principles in the same fashion followed by the practitioner of the discipline. The student must tread in the footsteps of the scientist to discover anew the trail that he has blazed. The study of science must, according to this view, take place in the laboratory.

A cardinal principle of the structuralist is that serious study of the discipline should commence early in the child's school career. Bruner, the prophet of the movement, asserts that a concept can be understood and learned at any age if it is properly presented, a statement which must be accepted with some reservation. Accordingly, such basic mathematical concepts as grouping and the enumeration system appear in the beginning years of the new mathematics.

Learning through discovery has become the new watchword in educational practice. Again the emphasis is on an active inquiring approach with the learner seeking to reconstruct significant concepts through reading, investigating and laboratory experience. The movement constitutes the second assault of the century on the information storage and retrieval theory of learning.

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What trends in theory and practice appear imminent? We are now entering the age of the computer. It is not my intention to forecast the influence of hardware on teaching procedure. There are others more competent than I to do this task. I find however, the concept of systems analysis intriguing. I suspect that the development of this concept in public education may influence curriculum design in a variety of subjects. Systems analysis could direct the selection and organization of content, the deployment of teaching personnel, the nature of the teaching method and the evaluation of teaching results.

A teaching or learning system consists of certain inputs. These will encompass such components as content, instructional aids, curriculum materials, and teaching time arranged to achieved the desired output most effectively and with minimum cost. The output must be clearly identifiable and measurable. Through the influence of quantifiable results, one may adjust the rate and quantity of inputs to achieve an increase in efficiency. The evaluation of such teaching provides the feedback leading to a more realistic rearrangement of inputs. A continuing analysis of teaching-learning effectiveness is essential in the systems approach. (7)

The key to success in the analysis of a system resides in the clarity of objectives. These must be stated in behavioral terms; the improvement of a skill, the development of a vocabulary, the application of a mathematical concept. One can immediately name certain disciplines, the contents of which make possible the identification of specific

objectives: foreign language instruction, vocational education, reading, and mathematics are among such.

Methods employed in the teaching of reading over the past two decades provide a crude illustration of the systems approach. The reading series consisted of a controlled vocabulary organized to provide increasing power in word recognition. The inputs included the reader himself as a major instrument, the reading group, and teacher directives. The output, the capacity to recognize words, was measurable by predetermined tests. The total system was neatly packaged in the teacher's guidebook. The system did not, of course, teach literature; it purported only to give the student mastery over written symbols. This it did effectively, irrespective of its well recognized limitations.

The systems approach is in effect an engineering concept. It has had widespread application in the military industry. The military services have, so it is reported, used systems analysis to teach a variety of skills ranging from the training of pilots to the learning of a foreign language. It has been for them an extremely powerful tool for effective teaching and learning.

Many of the research and development industries that have served the vast industrial-military complex in the United States are now turning their attention to education. Large sums of money for research and development made available through the U.S. Office of Education account

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in some measure for this attraction. We can look forward to an increasing number of learning packages being made available through the efforts of these research industries. The knowledge industry may replace that of the military as a field for project seeking.

These are some of the ideas that have influenced, are now influencing, or will influence curriculum design in a variety of subjects. They constitute a backdrop against which we might view proposals for change in the social studies. They provide a basis for identifying the major issues of any curriculum conference.

How successful has the social studies been during the past two decades in meeting its objectives? Has it taught students to think critically, to search for relevant facts before coming to conclusions? Has it established those values which provide the best directives for action in a democratic society? Has it affected in any measure the social or political behavior of students? Has it removed prejudices for which there is little or no intellectual justification? Has it engendered interest in reading critical evaluations of the current scene?

Or is social studies a subject which the majority of students take because it is required, a subject which has little relevance to their felt needs or to an understanding of society as they see it? This is an exceedingly disturbing question.

May I present as a basic assumption that the social studies should in some measure and to some degree change the behavior of students.

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← I suspect that whatever our views on social studies instruction we would all accept this statement as a paramount objective. Differences develop, however, when we consider ways and means for its achievement. I shall, I expect, need to be much more explicit in stating my position if I am to provide a modicum of intellectual challenge.

Through the social studies a student should acquire certain skills basic to study in a range of disciplines within the social sciences. He should learn to handle relevant materials of both the print and non-print variety. He should learn the sources of these materials, how to distinguish those that are immediately pertinent, how to glean information from them, how to organize this information to reach either tentative or final conclusions.

In short, the discovery method is as significant in the social studies as in any other field. One might say quite truthfully that social studies teachers pioneered in this approach. Nonetheless, information storage and retrieval theories have had a stranglehold on method in most social studies classrooms.

The values held by an individual or by a group are powerful determinants of behavior. A value may be defined as a predisposition to behave in a certain manner. Obviously if the social studies is to affect behavior, teachers must be concerned with values and value systems.

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Exploring the field of values presents problems of extreme complexity. The line between the critical examination of and an outright indoctrination in a value is exceedingly fine. The fear of crossing this line has caused many educators to avoid any reference to values or value systems. Nonetheless, if we define our objectives in behavioral terms we cannot deny either their existence or influence.

An essential feature of a democratic society is its pluralism. I have never agreed, for instance, that we live in a Christian democracy. To place a qualification on the term democracy no matter how worthy, is to deny its essential integrity. I accept however, that Christianity, along with Judaism and the humanistic traditions of the Graeco-Roman civilizations have given us rich legacies in values, all of which tend to focus on the worth of the individual. These values are of immense significance as a counterbalance to the dehumanizing influences of an expanding technical society. Somehow, in some way, the social studies teacher has the responsibility of making this rich tradition meaningful in the lives of his students.

An examination of the values held by individuals or by groups in informal or formal organizations would be useful. The sociologists have made us sensitive to the influence of values in the functioning of organizations or institutions. Perhaps the first step in an appraisal of values is a willingness to accept their influence on individual or group behavior. We have learned a great deal about the performance of

.....14

school staffs in certain underprivileged communities by identifying the value system dominating their treatment of individual students from such communities.

The third side in the triangle of objectives that I have been constructing is that of knowledge. What knowledge is essential if one holds that the major task of social studies is to influence behavior?

Let me emphasize immediately that knowledge or understanding is essential. The approach I would employ is basically cognitive. In his search for information the student should use every available resource, both primary and secondary. However, it would be most difficult to argue that any particular body of information is essential in the development of a participating citizenry. If we emphasize as outcomes not so much what a student knows but how he behaves in certain situations, then content becomes not the end but the means.

For that reason I am opposed, and have been for many years, to external examinations unless these test the capacity to deal with materials rather than the recall of information. Further, I am opposed to single text book authorizations and to prescribed syllabi. All these are inconsistent with the point of view I have been expressing. I am not opposed, however, to central authorities (whether they be local, provincial, or national) providing both materials and concepts for the development of effective learning. This is a function of leadership.

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If there is a specific body of historical information which every Canadian citizen should possess to be displayed at appropriate times, then we should develop learning packages in history to reduce to a minimum the time spent on information storage and retrieval.

I would like to clarify further what I mean by behavioral objectives. I am not, of course, thinking of the behavior of individuals who enter aggressively into community projects such as community chest fund drives though I am not opposed to this overt expression of citizenship. Nor, on the other hand, am I interested in developing peace marchers though I am not particularly offended by this type of behavior. I would like students who have been exposed to several years of social studies to exemplify to a degree at least, such behaviors as these: to examine social issues critically reserving judgement until evidence is secured; to question assumptions; to be suspicious of action that limits the rights or freedoms of individuals; to identify and reject prejudice as a basis for social action; and to be alert to the reliability of sources of information.

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If the social studies program accomplishes some of these purposes, it has justified its role as a compulsory subject. If it fails to have any or little influence on students, then we should question its usefulness as a universal requirement.

To achieve behavioral objectives an organized program of studies must have meaning to students. Students must in some way accept learning activities as being relevant to their own purposes or in some way pertinent to that which to them appears significant.

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A possible method of approach resides in the identification and study of issues. An issue is defined as a point of either interest or conflict within a social organization or within society which demands resolution. In any attempt to resolve the issue either directly or vicariously, information gathering, study and discussion are essential. Obviously the class should not be limited to one discipline in exploring the total field of knowledge which may have relevance to an understanding of the issue.

The issues might be drawn from the immediate social environment. The large high school is, for instance, a social organization revealing characteristics of the generality of such organizations. There is within the school a hierarchy of positions each with its own expectations. The school organization has its reference groups, its avowed purposes, and its value system. The conflict of interests between the institution and the individual is frequently more evident than in most social organizations.

Dr. William Knill of the Faculty of Education, University of Alberta, along with others, has been making a study of adolescent society within the large Alberta high school. His particular interest resides within the area of political sociology. He is studying the participation of students in student government particularly, and in the range of extra-class activities these schools provide. He speaks of the alienated student in this large complex school society and marks him as the possible forerunner of the alienated citizen in our rapidly-developed urbanized

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culture. I would be loathe to see the social studies classrooms of Canada breaking out into units of study on the alienated student in the same manner as we used to study Indians in the enterprise program of the forties and fifties. Nonetheless, this topic illustrates a possibility for the direct study of the immediate social environment which might have meaning for the student and which at the same time would identify a significant problem in current society.

Significant issues may be drawn from the adolescent sub-culture, if such actually exists distinct from adult society. The use of drugs among this group constitutes a grave social issue of alarming proportions. Here the question of values emerges, particularly those clashes in values that are apparent between generations. If the approach in such a study is one of inquiry with an attempt to get at the reasons for this social phenomenon, one can readily imagine the impact it might have on students. It is possible to identify a number of issues drawn from the adolescent sector of society and from its inter-relationships with other sectors, all of which might have meaning to students and at the same time yield a rich harvest in social understanding.

No social studies program can, however, be limited to the immediate environment. It must touch on issues of national and international significance if it is to achieve its total purpose. The problem of making these issues significant to the student increases in complexity as the focus shifts from the sub-culture of the adolescent to that of the provincial and national community.

Issues of deep social significance, having meaning for both youths and adults, do exist within these broader limits. Automation is one which both intrigues and alarms. Buckingham, in his book entitled Automation, Its Impact on Business and People analyzes the components of automation, providing both historical and contemporary perspectives. The first step in the painful evolution of this new social force was taken with the mechanization of industry. This century has contributed its emphasis on the process of continuous flow, one which was pioneered by the car industry. More recently the application of the automatic control with its capacity for feedback has added a further stage in the evolutionary process or, as some writers say, has created a second industrial revolution. Buckingham insists that a fourth component, that of scientific rationalism has served as a dynamic for the series of stages in the evolution of modern technology. Scientific rationalism is the intellectual force that persuades man to accept the application of logic irrespective of its cultural consequences.

Any study of automation must of necessity be inter-disciplinary. Automation has its roots in the past, with its central focus on the production and distribution of goods; it is creating social problems of inestimable magnitude; further, it is influencing the psyche of individuals in ways of which we have not yet become fully aware.

I feel confident that currently the industrial arts teachers are among those almost exclusively concerned with this current phenomenon. It is, nonetheless, an issue affecting the nature of modern society in ways not yet completely apparent. No one can deny the study of automation a place in the social studies curriculum.

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Or let us consider an issue equally significant and of necessity closely related to that of automation. I refer to the rapid urbanization of modern society - the growth of the city. Harvey Cox has written a compelling book entitled The Secular City with this descriptive phrase on its cover, ...." a celebration of its liberties and an invitation to its discipline." A study of this issue would inevitably draw on the disciplines of history, sociology, economics, political science, cultural anthropology.... the list is endless.

On the world scene we are faced with a plethora of choices, each reflecting a concentration of unresolved issues in international relations. Using Viet Nam as a medium one can explore such problems as the balance of power in Asia, the nature of war in the atomic age, industry in developing nations. Or if we wish to study a nation at peace, we can examine the fascinating story of Japan's industrial growth.

I am presenting the case here for an emerging and dynamic curriculum. By emerging I mean the focus to be on issues or topics deriving from the immediate social environment of students or on those demonstrably part of the current social scene. Dynamic I define as being related to change, keyed to current society and shifting in emphasis as current issues become resolved and new ones appear.

Others will think immediately of less complimentary epithets to describe this approach. They will say that the proposal is hardly new since it is, in effect, a description of the enterprise program of the forties, a sad event in the history of curriculum innovation. I would find it most difficult to counter this criticism.

.....20

The most telling criticism however, will be that the emerging curriculum may become ephemeral, lacking in depth or penetration, scattered in emphasis and possessing the inherent dangers of endless repetition and ineffective moralizing. Whether the risk of such limitations is greater with this approach than with the more highly structured and inevitably static approach of the prescribed curriculum is moot.

If we start with the view that social studies should change the behavior of students we move inexorably to the conclusion that the curriculum should be designed around their needs and interests rather than the dictates of the discipline. The challenge to create this design has remained constant throughout our century. Are we now any better able to meet the challenge or must we cling to the tested and familiar devices of prescribed texts, highly organized and externally devised programs of study and traditional systems of evaluation? Perhaps the following conditions may assure greater success:

1. We are infinitely better equipped to supply curriculum materials. Libraries have improved and this improvement is continuing. The instructional materials centres add new dimensions to our sources of information. We are on the verge of developments in computer service which will enlarge the scope of our learning resources. Television through telestar will eventually bring the world into our classrooms in ways yet unforeseen. This is one exciting frontier which has yet to be fully exploited.

.....21

2. Learning through discovery is gaining respectability in the academic world. Academicians are beginning to accept that learning something of the tools, both material and intellectual by which a practitioner accumulates knowledge may be as significant in understanding a discipline as mastering the total of its accumulated information.

I am not minimizing the difficulties that curriculum designers face in the establishment of a rationale for the application of the discovery method in the social studies. Procedures of investigation may be established which will have a common identity among all or most of the social sciences. Conceivably, too, certain assumptions from which knowledge is derived in one discipline may apply in one of its closely related neighbours in the social science field.

3. The concept of systems analysis may be usefully employed in the social studies. I can see its application in the myth-fact-legend instruction that passes for history in our elementary grades. I do not deny the desirability of every Canadian citizen's knowing certain historical facts. Packaging certain of these into a system to be learned quickly and effectively has interesting possibilities.

4. We are now ready to accept that the amount of knowledge has become so voluminous that no single person could hope in one lifetime to encompass more than a tiny portion. The arguments of the essentialists are becoming increasingly meaningless. With so much to learn how can we possibly prescribe that which everyone should know?

If this is the case then we need a rationale for the selection of knowledge. The rationale of the emerging and dynamic curriculum makes more sense now than it did in the forties. I suspect that it makes as much sense as any rationale that has yet been developed.

The success of this type of curriculum design, or any other for that matter, resides with the teacher. If the teacher is broadly educated within the social sciences, and has pursued one or more disciplines in reasonable depth, then the probability of success is enhanced. If, on the other hand, he is dependent on textbooks and on such ready-made crutches as work books and teachers' guides, then obviously the emerging and dynamic curriculum is not for him. Perhaps, however, an even greater impediment to the development of resourceful teaching is the administrator who lacks confidence in the teaching staff and who believes that learning is more likely to take place if teachers are provided with syllabi containing prescriptions of highly systematized bodies of knowledge.

FOOTNOTES

1. This paper was prepared for a social studies curriculum conference in Alberta in June, 1967. It provides a point of view in curriculum building which might be useful in establishing a national service in the field.

2. The writer regrets the frequent reference to Alberta; however, the paper was as indicated above, prepared for an Alberta audience.

3. Enterprise, a term unique to Alberta, for a period of three decades dominated discussions about education among the teachers and parents of that province. It eventually developed such emotional connotations that cautious Departmental officials removed it from the title of official bulletins.

4. The activity movement of which the enterprise was a variant originating probably with the Virginia State Curriculum in the early thirties had a widespread influence throughout North America. The activity curriculum was an attempt to crystallize the philosophical concepts of John Dewey into a workable design for teaching.

5. Contrary to what one might think if he were to read the Alberta course of studies published in the early forties, the Enterprise Program was not based on the Hall-Dennis Report.

6. I assume that everyone is familiar with Jerome Bruner's book entitled Process of Education.

7. A most useful publication by Jean Hills of the Centre for Advanced Study of Educational Administration, University of Oregon, entitled Towards a Science of Organization, explores the theory of social systems for the busy reader. The views expressed on the school as a social system lead one to be pessimistic about measuring its output.

8. An article entitled Reach, Touch, and Teach by Terry Borton in "Saturday Review", January 18th, 1969, leads one to wonder what would happen if schools actually succeeded in changing the behavior of students. Society might then become acutely conscious of the power of this institution and seek to limit its activities. I think we are safe for a while yet!

9. I suspect these views are somewhat academic for this era of participatory democracy. I would rewrite this paragraph if I actually knew the implications of the term participatory citizenship.