UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

IMPLEMENTATION OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAMME IN TEACHER TRAINING COLLEGES IN GHANA: AN EVALUATION

BY

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DECLARATION

CANDIDATE'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this University or elsewhere.

Candidate: ... *[signature]* .... Date 8/11/99

SUPERVISORS' DECLARATION

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

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ABSTRACT

This is an evaluative study of the implementation of the programme of instruction developed for social studies in the teacher training colleges (TTCs) of Ghana. Data obtained through interviews with principals, questionnaires administered to and discussions held with tutors and students as well as field observation have been combined with material from documentary sources. A conceptual framework put forward for the project emphasises an 'illumino-process' evaluation of a curriculum which is implemented from fidelity and adaptation perspectives as opposed to approaches which, in tune with the dominant conventional evaluation model, stress the extent of achievement of objectives in assessing the worth of an instructional programme.

The study gives background information on the historical development of social studies as a subject in the Ghanaian school system; provides some perspectives on the nature of social studies; and conceptualises implementation evaluation. From this review, the curricular and pedagogical requirements implied in the nature of the TTC social studies programme are isolated and combined with the recommendations by the designers of the programme to serve as the criteria for evaluating the process of implementation.

There is strong evidence to suggest that the characteristics of the social studies programme were fairly clear to both tutors and students and that they regarded all the components of the programme as important. Data also shows, conclusively, that the principals, tutors and students involved in the study had favourable attitudes toward the teaching of social studies in the TTCs.

However, the professional and academic backgrounds of the tutors were not found to be supportive of the implementation of the programme. Consequently, some important methods recommended for teaching social studies were rarely used by the tutors. The implementation was also found to be hindered by non-availability and/or inadequacy of requisite instructional resources and facilities as well as insufficiency of time allotted to teaching the subject.

The study demonstrates that most of the problems that besetted the implementation of the programme had their roots in inadequate pre-implementation preparations. There is therefore a need to take care of this deficiency in future implementation of curricula.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE

CHAPTER ONE
A GENERAL INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

This chapter gives an overview of the area of the study, the core of which is an attempt to evaluate the implementation of the social studies programme in Teacher Training Colleges (TTC) in Ghana. In particular, the chapter provides an insight into the background of the problem culminating in its statement.

Also in the chapter are the assumptions on which the study is based and the research questions which provided directions for investigation. Next, are an outline of the method and procedures adopted for data collection. The chapter ends with the justification of the research and a summary of subsequent chapters.

1.1 Background of the Problem

One of the integrated areas of study in the Ghanaian school system today is social studies. Its entry into the curriculum of the TTCs dates back to the early 1940s when the teaching of the subject was experimented in three TTCs, namely, Presbyterian Training College, Akropong; Wesley College, Kumasi; and Achimota Training College, Accra (Tamakloe, 1987). These experiments were reinforced by social studies courses offered to experienced teachers at the Institute of Education, University College of the Gold Coast (now University of Ghana), Legon[1]

However, these experiments were shortlived. By the early 1950s the traditional separate-subject approach had been resumed. The background and attitude of both tutors and student-teachers brought about this reversal. First, the social science graduates from

the University of Ghana who trickled into the training colleges to teach social studies had no expertise in the integrated approach. They were more at home with their separate subjects and taught them as such. So their academic and professional background did not support the integrated social studies programme. Secondly, the student-teachers also welcomed the separate-subject approach. For most of them, the teaching of the individual social science subjects-economics, geography, government, to mention just a few - enabled them to get a firm foundation in these subjects so that they could attempt them at the General Certificate of Education (G.C.E.) Ordinary and Advanced Level Examinations. For others who had attempted those examinations, the separate-subject approach would enable them to improve upon their grades

In the late 1960s the teaching of integrated social studies was re-initiated in the TTCs and the subject-centred approach was pushed out of practice. The revival of social studies during this period was due to several factors. In the first place, Ghanaian graduate and non-graduate teachers who had been sent for training in integrated social studies in Bristol returned with their colleagues who had undergone similar training in environmental studies in Wales. By 1971, about fourteen of these teachers had been posted to teacher education institutions to spearhead the development of the integrated programmes which they had studied abroad. A second contributing factor was that in 1976 experimental junior secondary schools were established in the country with social studies as a core subject. This led to the introduction into the TTCs of a new social studies

programme to cater for the needs of the experimental junior secondary schools. Merry-field and Muyanda-Mutebi (1991), thus, report that in 1976[2] all teacher training institutions in Ghana were told to prepare their students to teach integrated social studies instead of the separate subjects of history and geography. By the new programme some student-teachers were to specialise in social studies so that they would be able to teach the subject at the junior secondary school level.

After training two batches of specialist teachers at the training colleges for the programme, it was realised that this category of teachers were more in number than the experimental junior secondary schools required. The result of this glut was that the course had to be abandoned in the training colleges in the 1981/82 academic year (Abdul-Kadiri, 1994). There was, of course, no point in producing specialist teachers who could not be absorbed into the education system. The generalists were needed. This state of affairs in the training colleges of Ghana coupled with the fact that social studies was not examined externally for certification both at the TTC and secondary school levels made teachers and students alike develop an apathetic attitude towards the subject. It was in the light of this that Tamakloe (1988) strongly recommended that "if the teaching of social studies is to be taken up seriously in our teacher training colleges, it is vital that the subject be examined externally for certification" (p.100).

The implementation of this recommendation had to await the current education reform which was launched in September,1987.

The reform made social studies a compulsory subject at the basic level (Primary and Junior Secondary) and an elective at the teacher training level of education.[3] In 1997 social studies was also made a core subject at the senior secondary level. At these three levels, however, the subject is now examinable for certification.

Thus, until the introduction of the New Education Reform Programme (NERP) in 1987, attempts at incorporating social studies in the curriculum of Ghanaian schools in general and TTCs in particular had been unsteady. Tamakloe (1987) aptly describes the situation as one bedevilled with a "chequered history".

1.2   Research Problem

As already stated, the steady and systematic teaching and learning of social studies in the TTCs of Ghana began in 1987. However, as an integral part of the entire education reform programme, the teaching and learning of the subject appear not to have escaped the problems that have beclouded the reform as a whole. Tamakloe (1988) researched into the teaching of social studies in TTCs in Ghana and identified lack of competent teachers as the greatest problem facing the teaching of the subject. This problem seems to persist. A preliminary investigation made by the present writer into the academic and professional background of examiners[4] who were invited by the Institute of Education, University of Cape Coast, to mark the Final Parts I and II social studies papers for the Three-Year Post-Secondary Teacher Training Colleges during the 1996 and 1997 residential marking sessions, revealed that less than thirty per cent of the examiners had had professional training in

social studies. One, therefore, wonders how such crop of teachers can effectively and efficiently implement the social studies programme in their institutions.

Another issue that furnishes further grounds for concern is the apparent discrepancy between the methods of teaching and learning social studies prescribed in the syllabus and those actually employed in the colleges. Hawes (1979), explaining the gap that often exists between the official and actual curriculum, not only identifies teachers' use of inappropriate methods as a factor but also relates this to the professional background of teachers. The implication is that if teachers do not have professional training in social studies methods, it is unlikely that they would be able to use the requisite methods in their teaching.

Again, it is questionable whether teaching and learning resources appropriate to the nature of social studies are available in sufficient quantities in the colleges to promote the teaching of the subject. In a study related to the present one, Cobbold (1994) found that instructional materials congruent with the nature of social studies, particularly those needed for teaching current issues, such as newspapers, radio and bulletin boards, were badly lacking at the basic education level where they are most needed. In the TTCs, the picture is probably not different.

There is also the fear that less than the prescribed number of periods would be allotted for the teaching of social studies in the colleges since most heads of teacher training colleges rate it low compared with other subjects (Tamakloe, 1988). This fear is

heightened by the fact that the subject is an elective one. For, as Stodolsky (1988) points out, core subjects are accorded more time and attention, while elective subjects are taken less seriously by teachers and students.

One is also tempted to ask whether the hostile attitude which both tutors and students had toward the subject in the early years of its introduction into the TTCs has changed. The answer to this question is vital in gauging their level of commitment to the implementation of the programme. For, it often is the case that one's commitment to a programme depends on one's level of clarity about the components of that programme.

Evidence to substantiate or allay the above-mentioned fears is needed and one way of providing this proof is through an evaluation of the implementation process. A search through the literature however, appears to suggest that to date no such study has been undertaken. The thrust of the study, therefore, was to examine how the social studies programme was being implemented in the TTCs in Ghana. The ultimate purpose is to bring into focus the strengths and weaknesses of the implementation process and help specify the requirements implied by the programme. This may, in turn, inform subsequent curriculum development and implementation.

1.3   Assumptions of the Study

Every study is based on some assumptions. The assumptions in effect, form the criteria by which judgments about the study can be made. The present study is grounded on several assumptions about the quality of implementation of an instructional programme.

The assumptions are

1.   that teachers' and students' background (academic, professional or both), their level of clarity about the characteristics of an instructional programme and their attitudes toward the programme affect the implementation of that programme

2.   that the effective use of appropriate teaching-learning resources and methods commensurate with the structure of a subject, by both teachers and students enhances the quality of implementation

3.   that the degree of importance attached by both teachers and students to the various components of an instructional programme and the instructional time available for addressing those components determine the extent to which that programme would be implemented according to design

Research on implementation evaluation indicate that any implementation-oriented tool, which embodies these assumptions becomes more insightful than one that fail to do so.

1.4   Research Questions

The general focus of inquiry of this study, as indicated earlier on, was on the extent to which the social studies programme in JHC in Ghana was being put into practice according to the intentions (stated or implied) of the designers. To expand on the general focus the following specific questions were formulated from the major premise of the assumptions to guide the study.

of the social studies programme in the TTCs before it took off?

2. What are the characteristics of students who are pursuing social studies in the TTCs?

3. What are the academic and professional competencies of tutors teaching social studies in the TTCs?

4. What methods are being used by tutors to teach social studies?

5. How adequate are the teaching-learning resources for the implementation of the social studies programme?

6. How adequate is the allotted time for teaching social studies?

7. To what extent are the various aspects and characteristics of the social studies programme clear to both tutors and students?

8. What level of importance is placed on the aims and objectives, content and methods of the programme, by both tutors and students?

9. What are the attitudes of tutors and students towards the implementation of the programme?

10. What are the major factors that affect implementation efforts?

The information gathered to answer these questions constitute the core of the research and it is presented in chapters four, five and six

1.5   Methodological Framework

The study was designed to evaluate the extent to which the social studies programme in TTCs in Ghana had been implemented. This involved, among other things, exploring the characteristics of tutors and students implementing the programme, probing the adequacy of allotted time and

programme, probing the adequacy of allotted time and available resources, determining the extent of tutors' use of suggested methods and resources and gauging the attitude of both tutors and students in the implementation of the programme. The study was, thus, structured basically within the framework of the descriptive research methodology although it adopted a multi- method approach . In the words of Best and Kahn (1995) the descriptive research study basically

> describes and interprets what is. It is concerned with conditions or relationships that exist, opinions that are held, processes that are going on, effects that are evident, or trends that are developing. It is primarily concerned with the present, although it often considers past events and influences as they relate to current conditions (p.105).

The relevance of the descriptive approach to research in the field of education has been addressed by many scholars, (see for example, Ary et al, 1990; Osuala, 1987; and Best and Kahn, 1995). All these scholars are agreed on the view that the descriptive research method provides opportunities for researchers to gain valuable insights into the current status of phenomenon with respect to variables or conditions in a situation. Researchers are able to uncover the nature of the factors involved in a given situation, determine the degree in which those factors exist and discover the links or relationships which exist between them. Such insights ultimately help researchers to project future trends.

1.6 Data Collection Procedures

Data collection procedures are spelt out in detail at the beginning of each chapter which touches the core of the study. Here, only the highlights are briefly sketched.

The focus of the study was on all TTCs in Ghana which offer the social studies programme. The population, therefore, comprised all social studies tutors, students and their principals in such colleges. However, the actual number of subjects involved in the study is 50 tutors, 180 students and 3 principals.

An eclectic approach using different tools was employed to obtain the necessary data and to address the research questions. This included the use of questionnaire, semi-structured interview, observation and document analysis. Together, they provided a rich source of detailed information and ensured validation of the findings through triangulation. The triangulation process also maximised the probability that the emergent assertions were consistent with a variety of data.

The questionnaire, interview and observation guides (Appendix A-D) were developed by the researcher adopting some items used in related studies by Tamakloe (1977, 1988), Ministry of Education (1990), Ampah (1991), Damalie (1997), Amoah (1998) and those suggested by King, et al (1987) and Eraut, et al (1975). Various criteria set by Cohen and Manion (1989), Borg and Gall (1989) and Best and Kahn (995) were also used for constructing and reshaping the instruments, for determining item acceptability and establishing the format of the instruments. The instruments were

content validated by the researcher's supervisors. They suggested the elimination of some items from the first draft of the instruments and the inclusion of other items

Documents that furnished secondary data include the social studies syllabuses for basic education and TTC's. Ministry of Education circulars on the implementation of the New Education Reform and past examination questions and students assessment records. Analysis of these documents provided the basis for judging the worth of the actual implementation relative to the intended implementation of the programme.

The objective of the study was to provide detailed information about the implementation of the social studies programme in TTC's so that educational actors and decision makers could be guided to judge the worth and merit of the programme. In consonance with this objective, therefore, the study avoided, as much as possible, a dominant 'measurement' focus and adopted mainly a range of qualitative approaches and techniques to analyse the field data. Generally, the data was sorted, edited and coded to facilitate analysis and is presented in the form of description, summary and interpretation. For statistical analysis of the results, frequency of responses, percentages and mean numerical values were employed.

1.7   Significance of the Study

In the process of carrying out innovations in education, it is important that after final curriculum materials have been produced and introduced into the system, steps are also taken to adjust the system to meet the demands of the innovation. This is achieved

through evaluation of the implementation process (Harlen, 1977). It is from this perspective that the present study derives its justification and assumes significance for several reasons.

First, it will ensure that objective data generated through systematic research and analysis is available to guide important decisions in education. Thus, it will contribute towards the crusade of a movement away from the position where important decisions on education in Ghana are based more on mere assumptions, imaginations, expectations, intuition and subjective judgement than on investigative review. Curriculum decision making and planning at the Ghana Education Service(G.E.S.) headquarters will be improved because they would occur against an informed background of relevant information and data through the findings of this study.

Second, the findings may be useful to educational planners, policy makers and administrators who wish to identify areas where support or materials are needed to ensure successful implementation of the social studies programme.

Third, tutors' participation in the research may set them thinking about identifying and clarifying their understanding of the major aspects and characteristics of the social studies programme, and thus strive to determine ways and means of improving the programme in their individual institutions.

Fourth, for teacher educators in social studies, the results of the study may enable them to plan for the future and make adjustments or restructure the course where necessary to make it more functional.

Fifth, knowledge and information provided by the study will not only add to but may also whip up interest in curriculum implementation and evaluation in Ghana, particularly in the field of social studies education.

Finally, the findings of the study may open other areas for further research on Ghana's new education reform.

1.8   Preview and Structure of Presentation

In Chapter Two the conceptual issues guiding the study are set out.   Attention is focused on the concepts of curriculum implementation and evaluation-two important dimensions of the curriculum process, from which the study assumes its identity and derives its theoretical basis. Studies on implementation evaluation in Ghana are also reviewed and their implications for the present study outlined.

Social Studies as a curricular area, the implementation of which this study seeks to evaluate, is placed in relevant context in Chapter Three. The nature of social studies with respect to meaning, purpose and goals, attributes and scope, and relationship to the social sciences, are the main themes tackled here The chapter ends with a description of the Social Studies Syllabus for the Three-year Post-secondary Teacher Training Colleges in Ghana.

The major issues of the study are taken up in Chapter Four Of interest here are the preparations and provisions made for the take-off of the programme in the TTCs.

In Chapter Five are the characteristics of the implementers of the instructional programme Specifically,

the quality of tutors and students, their level of clarity about programme characteristics as well as their attitudes and how these affect their enactment of the social studies curriculum are examined.

Chapter Six continues and ends the analysis and discussion of data on the core areas of the study. The chapter focuses on the extent of tutors and students' use of suggested methods and materials for carrying out the programme, the adequacy of instructional time and the factors that affect implementation.

Summary of the research findings, conclusions drawn from them and implications for both policy and research are reserved for Chapter Seven.

1.9   Delimitation of the Study

The scope of the study was limited to issues related to the implementation of the social studies programme in the TTCs in Ghana. The study only attempted to evaluate the process of implementing the programme. It was not in any way concerned with the extent to which the objectives of the programme had been or were being achieved.

1.10   Limitations of the Study

The major limitation of the study is the number of students who were used. The 180 students chosen for the study represented about five per cent of the total number of social studies students in all the TTCs in the country (at the time of the research), though they represented over 30 per cent of the total number of social studies students in the three colleges selected for case study. Their views might, therefore, not be representative of the views of all social

studies students. However, their responses were only intended to verify the responses from the tutors. It is, therefore, hoped that the number of students used will not affect the validity of the findings of the study .

Another limitation of the study is the number of colleges which were selected for case study, their geographical locations and the number of weeks spent in each college. Only three colleges (out of 35 colleges which were offering social studies), all of them located in the central region, were chosen for detailed study. Also, the researcher spent only two weeks in each college. The number of colleges selected and their geographical locations were dictated by considerations of finance and proximity of the colleges to the researcher's university. The relatively short period spent in each college is explained by the fact that the visits were only to enable the researcher administer questionnaire to students, verify availability of teaching-learning materials/facilities and observe classroom lessons. These tasks, the researcher was able to accomplish within two weeks.

Finally, the researcher should have employed assistants to help him in the observation of lessons in order to ensure cross-checking of observations and recordings. But the researcher realised that he could not pay the bills for boarding and lodging as well as allowance for the services of assistants. Moreover, the primary purpose of the lesson observation was only to find out the different methods tutors used to teach social studies and not necessarily everything that took place in the classroom situation. The latter case would have involved

the investigation of a lot of competencies which would have required the help of an assistant.

The above-stated limitations notwithstanding, it is hoped that the different modes of data collection employed in the study - questionnaire, interview, observation and analysis of documents - would ensure internal validity and credibility of the findings. For, "when a conclusion is supported by data collected from a number of different instruments, its validity is thereby enhanced" (Fraenkel and Wallen, 1993, p.400).

Notes

1. The University of Ghana does not have any department of education at the present time. The Institute of Education is now located at the University of Cape Coast.

2. The reorganisation of the TTCs to cater for the needs of the Junior Secondary School actually started in 1975. See Tamakloe, 1987.

3. At the time of the research environmental studies was being taught in the primary school instead of social studies. Also, plans to abolish the specialisation in certain subject areas including social studies in the TTCs were being contemplated by the Teacher Education Division of the Ministry of Education. The indications are that all subjects of the TTC curriculum would be studied by all teacher trainees.

4. These examiners were tutors who taught social studies in the TTCs.

CHAPTER TWO

CONCEPTUALISING IMPLEMENTATION EVALUATION

In this chapter the theoretical perspectives from which the study was carried out are discussed. The aim, primarily, is to illuminate the subject of the study by sharpening its conceptual focus and provide leverage in relation to the research problem. Two concepts are central to the focus of this chapter: implementation and evaluation.

2.1 The Concept 'Curriculum Implementation'

According to Fullan (1991)"curriculum implementation is the process of putting a change into practice"(p. 378). He distinguishes curriculum implementation from curriculum adoption by stating that the latter is the decision to use a new curriculum but the former focuses on the extent to which actual change in practice occurs and on those factors which influence the extent of change. Sharing the view of most researchers that the educational change process consists of three major phases - initiation, implementation and institutionalisation (Berman, 1981) - Fullan asserts that implementation is critically important in that it is the means of accomplishing desired educational objectives. As the link between the other two phases, the amount and quality of change which occurs or fails to occur at the implementation stage significantly affects what outcomes are achieved in any given change efforts.

For Leithwood (1991), "implementation is the process of reducing differences between existing practices and practices

suggested by the innovation" (p. 445). This definition presupposes that implementation only relates to a new programme that is designed to replace or improve upon an existing programme. It should, however, be noted that it is possible for an innovation to have no precedent in actual practice (though such innovations are rare) and yet its being put into practice can be termed implementation. Thus, implementation implies either of two scenarios: modifications being made in an existing set of practices or a completely new set of practices being carried out. In both cases the process of implementation occurs over time.

Lewy (1977) defines implementation as "the open use of a program throughout an entire school system" (p. 22) In an attempt to clarify the meaning of this definition, Tamakloe (1992) uses the implementation of the Junior Secondary School (JSS) programme in Ghana as an illustration:

> When the government of Ghana decided to begin the Junior Secondary School Programme, the schools were established in phases. The first batch of schools, nine in all were established in 1975/76 academic year in each of the then nine (9) regional capitals except in one. Later on, more of the schools were established in the regions. But it was in the 1987/88 academic year that the schools were established in virtually all towns and villages in the country.The establishment of the schools in the entire educational system constitute the implementation of the programme (p.172).

No other illustration could have been more appropriate and clearer. In the light of the above explanation Tamakloe advises that the phrase "full implementation" ought to be used cautiously.

Rogers (1983) sees implementation as involving three stages. The first stage, which he calls re-invention, is the period during implementation when the implementers make changes or modifications in the programme, usually to fit their organisation or institution. On the other hand, the structure of the organisation may have to be changed to accommodate the new programme. For example, in the implementation of the social studies programme in TTCs, a new organisational unit such as a social studies department will be created with responsibility for the new programme.

The amount of re-invention that occurs and why it occurs depends on a number of factors which have to do with the nature of the innovation itself and the individuals implementing it. Generally

1. Innovations that are relatively more complex and difficult to understand are more likely to be re-invented (Larsen and Agarwala-Rogers, 1977a, 1977b).

2. Re-invention occurs when the implementer lacks detailed knowledge about the new idea, due perhaps to relatively little contact between the implementer and the programme developer (Rogers et al, 1977a; Eveland et al, 1977; Larsen and Agarwala-Rogers, 1977a)

3. An innovation that is a general concept or tool with many possible applications is more likely to be re-invented (Rogers, 1978)

4. When an innovation is implemented in order to solve a wide range of users' problems, re-invention is more likely to occur. This is more so where there is a wide degree of differences in the individual and organisational problems and each individual and

organisation matches the innovation with a different problem from another (Rogers, 1983).

5. Re-invention may occur when programme developers encourage implementers to modify or adapt the innovation as is often the case in a decentralised educational system or under an adaptation and/or enactment approaches to implementation.

In fact, even under a strictly fidelity approach, some amount of re-invention takes place because implementers are not passive accepters of new ideas but active modifiers and adapters of new ideas.

The second stage of implementation which Rogers (1983) identifies is the stage of clarification. Here, the relationship between the innovation and the institution implementing it is defined more clearly as the new idea is put into full and regular use. The meaning of the new idea then becomes clearer to the implementers.

The third and final stage of implementation, according to Rogers, is routinisation. This is the point when "the new idea becomes an institutionalized and regularized part of the adopter's ongoing operations" (Rogers, 1983, p. 175). At this point the new programme finally loses its distinctive quality as the separate identity of the new idea disappears. Also, problems might have been overcome, criticisms and oppositions to the new programme abated and the programme's features internalised by the implementers.

From the brief review above, curriculum implementation, in the context of this chapter and work, is the process of using an instructional programme (whether revised or newly designed) in all

the educational institutions and at all the levels targeted to use that programme. It involves changes in the behaviour of people, especially the implementers, in the direction suggested or implied by the programme. Such changes will depend on the acquisition of new knowledge, skills, attitudes and values. In effect, a process of reorganising and adding to what one is able to do, and how one feels, is immediately set into motion. This process is slow and gradual. In it, the implementers grow "from their existing practices through relatively immature approximations of practices suggested by the innovation, to (eventually) relatively sophisticated use of the innovation" (Leithwood, 1991, p. 446). Implementation also involves certain changes in an existing programme or within the educational system. There is the need to adjust the teacher training programmes to the requirements of the new programme through modification in both pre-service and in-service training activities. This is to groom teachers and/or update their competencies in the objectives, content area, teaching-learning methods, assessment and class-management practices of the new programme. Changes must also be effected in the national examination system, if there exists one; otherwise teachers may not have the motivation for changing the focus of their teaching (Lewy, 1977; Leithwood, 1981).

Problems in exactly how to use the new programme may crop up at the initial stages of implementation due to lack of the knowledge and skills required, negative feelings about the programme and implementation activities, unavailability of particular resources and the nature of the existing institution. In the school

system, these problems are likely to be more serious because a large number of people are involved in the implementation and also the implementers are often a different set of people from the programme developers or designers. The organisation structure that gives stability and continuity to the school may also be a resistant force to implementation efforts. All these make individuals entertain a certain degree of doubt about the expected consequences of the programme.

It is important, therefore, that effective pre-implementation measures are taken to forestall the problems or identify and solve them before the programme is fed into the whole school system. The next section takes a look at these pre-implementation measures.

2.2 Prerequisites for Curriculum Implementation

Most curriculum experts believe that for any implementation of an instructional programme to achieve a high degree of success, certain conditions need to be fulfilled. In the view of Tamakloe (1992), as the design of the instructional programme proceeds, it should be tried as and when necessary in the classroom situation at the level for which it is intended. This is to ensure that what has been designed meets the desired objectives. At this stage it may become necessary to take another look at the objectives stated, the content and learning experiences selected and the ways of organising them. The resources suggested for use in the classroom may also be re-considered.

Another pre-implementation measure which Bloom (1977) recommends is the tryout. His suggestion is that as soon as self-contained sections or chapters of the programme are ready for use,

they should be tried out in a few classes, about six to ten. These classes should be selected according to the principles of judgmental sampling so that they represent the different sub-groups of the population for which the programme has been designed. Also, the schools and classes selected should be those in which the teachers have undergone the prescribed teacher training programme and are willing to cooperate with the programme development team.

During the tryout three major types of data are collected. The first is judgmental data, which is the opinions of teachers and students who have used the programme as well as opinions of experts, supervisors, educational psychologists and subject specialists on the suitability or otherwise of the programme. They may indicate any specific modifications that need to be made. Questionnaires and interviews are the main instruments used to collect judgmental data. The second type of data is observational data. As the name suggests, it is data obtained through systematic observation of the teacher-learner interaction in the classroom. Crucial issues here include the degree of learner response, attention, involvement in the programme and the extent of success of teaching methods. In the short term information from the observation is used to redesign appropriate teaching methods in a revised instructional programme while in the long term it helps to determine the problems which are posed in teacher education (Tamakloe, 1992). The third type of data is data on student learning. This is obtained through tests taken by the students on each unit of the programme; examination of student products (eg., work sheets); and student self-

report of what they experience in class. Such data helps to determine the extent to which students acquire the knowledge, skills, generalisations and values demanded in the programme.

Following the preliminary tryout Bathory (1977) suggests that there should be a large-scale tryout before the programme is considered ready for widespread use in the system. He calls this a field trial and justifies its necessity thus:

> The utilization of a new program throughout an
> educational system may raise problems that do
> not appear at the preliminary tryout stage. It is
> necessary to extend the tryout to a wide-scale
> field trial.... Such a field trial is especially necessary
> to determine the conditions under which the program
> will work and those where it may be less than
> satisfactory for teachers and students in particular
> schools and colleges (Bathory, 1977, p. 105).

In other words, a field trial makes it possible to observe the operation of the whole programme in a situation that is typical of its actual expected use in the entire system. It thus helps to deal with problems that remained undetected and therefore unresolved in the small preliminary tryout, and gives a better evidence of the programme's suitability and appropriateness than the tryout.

The major differences between the field trial and tryout as discussed by Lewy (1977) and Bathory (1977) are summarised in Table 2.1

Table 2.1   Tryout and Field Trial Compared

Issue	Tryout	Field Trial
Purpose	Detect flaws and provide suggestions for modification	Identify the conditions under which the programme can be successfully implemented
Nature of Programme	Programme is available only in a provisional form with some portions of it or some equipments to be used not yet developed	Programme is available in its final and standard form.
Sample Size and Sampling Technique	A small sample (about 6-10 classes) selected on the basis of judgmental sampling	Large sample (about 30-50 classes) selected by stratified random sampling.
Scale of Data Collected	Variety of data collected from a relatively small number of respondents.	Limited set of data collected from a relatively large number of respondents.
Nature of Instructional Materials	Materials are relatively crude in form and possess less technical quality.	Materials are relatively refined in form with improved technical quality.
Communication Pattern and Intervention	Close and personal contact between teachers and programme developers. More intervention in the programme by both groups.	More formal and bureaucratic relationship between teachers and programme developers. Little or no intervention by both groups.

SOURCE: Adapted from Lewy, A. (1977) (Ed.), Handbook of Curriculum Evaluation. UNESCO/Longman, Inc. New York.

It must be stated that the field trial of curriculum may raise problems related to the mass production and long-distance transport of instructional materials. This brings into focus the need for a careful consideration of the cost benefit implications of improving education before plunging into the arduous task of developing and implementing any programme of instruction.

Nevertheless, the use of the formative measures described above enable curriculum designers to combine or complement professional wisdom with empirical evidence for the job of material or programme preparation.

A fourth strategy which plays a crucial role in the success or failure of the implementation of an innovation is the dissemination of the innovation (Tamakloe, 1977; Kelly, 1989). Prior to the implementation of the instructional programme that has been purged and refined through the tryout and field trial stages, "there is the need to have an effective dissemination strategy and carry it through as thoroughly as possible" (Tamakloe, 1992, p. 175). Dissemination here refers to "planned pathways to the transmission of new educational ideas and practices from their point of production to all locations of potential implementation" (MacDonald and Walker, 1976, p. 26). It is believed that such a strategy leads to improvements in the channels of curriculum change; accelerates the speed of curriculum change; improves the quality of the curriculum and ensures greater cost effectiveness.

Four major components of dissemination have been identified by Rudduck and Kelly (1976). These are translocation. animation, re-education and communication. Translocation refers to the planning and transfer or movement of both people and materials required to implement a new aspect of or a new instructional programme. The issues to be considered here include whether teachers should have in-service training and what type; whether people in the education system should play different roles through changes in posts; whether inspectors or programme designers should visit schools, and how equipment, books and other materials are to reach the various schools. These issues, no doubt, have to do with the administrative details of the dissemination process in a curriculum centre (for example, C.R.D.D. in Ghana).

Animation deals with the provision of incentives which will motivate the implementers, that is, the teachers to perform their tasks with all the zeal that they can muster. The incentive is also meant to induce in teachers desirable attitudes towards the programme; to effect self-generated and individual changes towards the implementation of the instructional programme (Tamakloe, 1992); and "to increase the degree of relative advantage of the new idea" (Rogers, 1983, p. 219). Incentives may be direct or indirect payments of cash or in kind. It is important to recognise here that motivation constitutes "the strength of the desire to implement a particular policy or practice" (Taylor, 1976, p. 15).

Re-education addresses the issue of cooperative experience among teachers in trying to carry out the programme of instruction

and the establishment of an intimate rapport between the designers and the teachers. The essence is to create an indepth understanding and a high sense of commitment required for the effective implementation of the programme.

Communication has to do with passing on information about the instructional programme from one person or school to another. This may involve personal contact through visits or the use of the radio, television, newspapers and itinerant information vans. Mass media channels are often the most rapid and efficient means to inform an audience of potential implementers about the existence of an innovation. On the other hand, interpersonal channels are more effective in convincing an individual to accept and implement a new idea, especially if the interpersonal channel links two or more individuals who are near-peers. Emphasising the importance of communication as a constituent of dissemination, Rogers (1983) makes the pertinent observation that most individuals do not evaluate an innovation on the basis of scientific studies of its consequences, but rely more upon a subjective evaluation of the innovation which other individuals convey to them. The implication is that awareness-knowledge must be created through intensive communication prior to the implementation of a new programme.

It is best to regard the four components of the dissemination strategy as intimately complementary to one another; one cannot occur adequately without the three others.

2.3   Approaches to Curriculum Implementation

Any change that is attempted in a user system involves movement in some predetermined direction. Fullan and Pomfret (1977) hold the view that curriculum change consists of five components. These are changes in subject matter or materials, organisational structure, role and/or behaviour, knowledge and understanding, and value internalisation.

Subject matter components refer to the content of the curriculum that the teacher is expected to transmit to the learners, or what the learners are expected to acquire on their own, or in cooperation with peers. Organisational structure refers to formal arrangements and physical conditions. The components here do not pertain to changes in uses but changes in the conditions under which users interact. The third component refers to the habits that members who are directly involved in putting an innovation to practice are expected to acquire. The fourth component is the knowledge and understanding that users have about things like philosophy, objectives, subject matter and role relationships in the innovation. Finally, value internalisation is the users' commitment to implementing the various components of the innovation.

In order to determine if any change has occurred in any or all of the components described above, three distinct perspectives of the implementation process discussed in the research literature are to be borne in mind. These are the fidelity, adaptation and enactment approaches. The three approaches are based on different

29

assumptions about curriculum knowledge, curriculum change and the role of the teacher.

2.3.1 Fidelity Approach

The fidelity approach looks at how "faithfully" implementers operate a new programme in accordance with the specifications laid down by the developers or sponsors of the programme. Minor changes might be tolerated but the emphasis is clearly on ensuring that practice concurs with the intentions of the designer (Berman, 1981; Crandall, et al. 1982). It would seem that fidelity approach to implementation is highly optimistic about achieving pre-determined goals through the use of systematic, rational processes. For as rightly observed by Leithwood (1991), developers tend to view the programme "as a relatively complete solution to a clearly defined problem in the school or school system" (p. 447). Consequently, implementers are encouraged to focus their attention on the new programme and its prescriptions and to trust that "faithful" implementation will solve the problem. The emergent assumption then is that implementation is a non-problematic phenomenon which occurs unhinderedly provided people understand the value of an innovation and readily follow its prescribed practices. Because curricula are not always faithfully implemented, adequate training prior to implementation and support and monitoring during implementation have become standard features of this approach.

Underlying the fidelity perspective is the assumption that curriculum knowledge is created outside the classroom by the experts who design and develop the curriculum. It is further assumed that

curriculum change is a rational, systematic, linear process that can be better administered the more we know about the factors that either facilitate or hinder the smooth operation of the process. Similarly, the teacher is regarded as a consumer who should follow the directions and implement the curriculum as the experts have designed it. As an imparter of the curriculum to learners, the teacher's role becomes critical to the success of the curriculum.

These assumptions and the perspective that grows, consequently, from them have implications for the meaning imputed to the term 'curriculum' by the sympathisers of the fidelity orientation. They are likely to see the curriculum as a static thing (document) - a textbook or a syllabus. This view is given credence by Snyder, et al (1992) when they state that from a fidelity point of view "A curriculum is something concrete - something that can be pointed to - something that a teacher can implement and something that can be evaluated to see if its goals have been accomplished" (p. 427).

2.3.2 Adaptation Approach

The adaptation approach rests on the assumption that the exact nature of implemetation cannot and/or should not be pre-specified but rather should evolve as different groups of users decide what is best and most appropriate for their situation (Fullan, 1991). Different points may be located along an adaptation continuum. At one end of the continuum one may envisage minor adjustments. This is fairly close to fidelity. At the other end is what may be called evolutionary changes, in which the users evolve all sorts of uses according to their

own interests. In-between these two polar ends is mutual adaptation. Here an external idea or innovation influences what users do while users more or less equally transform the idea for their situation. This appears to be the most common variant of adaptation associated with most curricula implementation. It allows for adjustments and revision in needs, interests and skills of participants and institutions as well as in programme goals and methods in the light of institutional style, beliefs about knowledge and professional ideology.

Bird (1986) makes the pertinent observation that "mutual adaptation has an agreeable political and social flavour; it grants a measure of deserved respect both to the proponents and to the adopters of an innovation and therefore lets them meet on equal terms" (p. 46). Bird's statement implies that there is a certain amount of negotiation and flexibility on the part of both designers and practitioners. And Leithwood (1991) does not miss the point when he reasons that adaptation is not just a compromise based on what is possible; it is also desirable on ethical and moral grounds because it permits some self-direction for implementers while recognising the legitimate role of policy makers in setting educational goals. The thesis of the adaptation approach seems to be that every effort should be made to ensure that a programme is reasonably well-developed at the very beginning but room should be allowed for reasonable modifications to be made in order to fit the programme effectively into the local context.

For the mutual adaptationists curriculum knowledge is one facet of a larger, complex social system that cannot be taken for granted. That curriculum knowledge still resides in the outside expert who develops the curriculum to be adapted by teachers to the local context, is acknowledged. But this is considered secondary in importance to understanding the constellation of factors that influence any innovation or change, whether from within or without the school (Snyder, et al, 1992). It is further assumed that change is a more unpredictable, less linear process at the end of which is an active consumer. And this process of change needs to be understood to help explain what happens to the curriculum. The role of the teacher in this regard is to shape the curriculum to meet the demands of the local situation.

Research indicates that some degree of adaptation is inevitable in any successful implementation (Fullan and Pomfret, 1977). In this connection Hall and Locks (1981) think that the extent of adaptation that can be allowed should be clarified. "How much and in what way teachers are free to vary the program should be determined by someone and communicated early in the in-service process", they advised (Hall and Locks 1981, quoted in Snyder, et al, 1992, p. 408).

2.3.3 Enactment Approach

Enactment orientation to implementation is concerned with describing how curriculum is experienced by the participants as well as how it is shaped as it gets acted. Consequently, the curriculum is viewed as the educational experiences jointly created and individually experienced by the student and the teacher. The

33

externally designed curriculum materials and programmed instruction strategies at the heart of the fidelity and mutual adaptation perspectives are seen as resources for teachers and students to use as they engage in the ongoing process of teaching and learning in the classroom. It is teachers and students who create the enacted curriculum and give meaning to it. They are creators rather than recipients of curriculum knowledge. It is through these lenses that the advocates of enactment see curriculum knowledge as a personal construct which must answer to both personal and external standards. Snyder, et al (1992) put it this way:

> Curriculum knowledge is "individualized" but not left
> floundering in a sea of relativity. The mind is seen as
> fire to be kindled rather than as a vessel to be filled
> by the knowledge of external experts (p. 418).

In a similar vein, change is not merely observable alterations in behaviour but rather a personal development process both for the teacher and the student. It is not just content and materials which must change. More importantly, thinking, feelings, beliefs, assumptions and practices must change. As for the teacher's role, it is integral to the curriculum process for, as already indicated, there could be no curriculum without the teachers and students giving form to it in the classroom.

Berman (1981) examines the conditions under which each approach can best be applied. He suggests that fidelity approaches are more appropriate under conditions where there are clear and agreed-upon goals, well-designed programmes and minor focused

changes. On the other hand, adaptive approaches appear to be more effective in situations where there are conflicts over goals, incomplete development and major changes.

Given the most propitious conditions, programmes designed to be implemented according to particular approaches have both merits and demerits. Those designed with fidelity mode of implementation in view tend to be more clear, more specific and easier to assess. But they also may be inappropriate for all or some situations and/or lead to rejection by individuals and groups who do not wish to use the particular version being advocated, especially in decentralised educational systems. Adaptive-oriented programmes also have the advantage of allowing for more individual choice, and development suited to a variety of situations; but they more often than not create uncertainty about what should be done. From a research point of view, therefore, such programmes are difficult to assess since they differ from situation to situation (Fullan, 1991).

It is instructive to state, at this juncture, that this evaluative study assumes a fidelity-adaptive approach to the implementation of the social studies programme in the TTCs in Ghana. This assumption is based on the fact that in the centralised education system of Ghana, curriculum is usually developed by a central body[1] and fed into the system to be used by all schools. Though certain major specifications are made, these are very broad to allow for modifications to suit local conditions. Interestingly, all syllabuses are labelled "suggested". One thus clearly discerns features of both fidelity and adaptation in our implementation process. Accordingly,

it is assumed, for the purpose of this study, that the procedural principles stated for the implementation of the social studies programme in the TTCs would be followed and that they would direct whatever adaptations would be made.

2.4   The Concept 'Curriculum Evaluation'

It is important at the opening of this section to draw attention to the fact that in the literature efforts are sometimes made to differentiate 'curriculum evaluation' from 'educational evaluation' and 'programme evaluation' (eg. Worthen, 1991). In the majority of instances, however, the three terms are used interchangeably. In the present work, the latter orientation is adopted with the justification that the curriculum is the translation or the process of the translation of the goals of education into programmes of instruction. To evaluate the curriculum, therefore, is to evaluate an educational programme.

To define curriculum evaluation, it is necessary to define its component parts-curriculum and evaluation. A curriculum can be conceived as the mix of socially prized knowledge, values, attitudes and skills together with all the activities, experiences, materials and methods deliberately designed to achieve well-defined objectives with a given group of learners. Such a curriculum would typically be implemented in the school by the school or outside the school system but under the school's surveillance. In the context of education, evaluation is the act of gathering information and juxtaposing it with some set of criteria to make judgments regarding the strengths and

weaknesses, merits or worth of an educational innovation, programme or product.

In its simplest form, therefore, curriculum evaluation consists of all those activities undertaken to judge the worth or utility of a curriculum. Cronbach (1963) indicates the activities involved in curriculum evaluation when he defines it as "the collection and use of information to make decisions about an educational programme" (p. 672). A parallel definition by Stufflebeam et al (1971) runs: "educational evaluation is the process of delineating, obtaining and providing useful information for judging decision alternatives" (p. 43). Sharing a similar view, MacDonald (1973) quoted in Stenhouse (1975) says, "evaluation is the process of conceiving, obtaining and communicating information for the guidance of educational decision making with regard to specified programme" (p. 112). Collapsing the above definitions together, it may be gathered that in curriculum evaluation quantitative and qualitative data are collected and processed to arrive at a judgment of value or worth of effectiveness of an instructional programme. It is worth reiterating that the judgment about the instructional programme should be based on specified criteria and that it should culminate in decision making.

Cronbach (1963) isolates three types of decisions for which evaluation data is used, that is, for:

1. course improvement: deciding what instructional materials and methods are satisfactory and where change is needed.

2. decisions about individuals: identifying the needs of the learner for the sake of planning his instruction, judging

37

learner merit for the purposes of selecting and grouping, acquainting the learner with his own progress and deficiencies.

3. administrative regulation: judging how good the school system is, how good individual teachers are, etc (pp.672 - 683).

Most curriculum evaluators agree that curriculum evaluation can serve either a formative purpose, that is, helping to improve the curriculum or a summative purpose that is, deciding whether a curriculum should be continued (see Anderson and Ball 1978; Scriven 1967). Curriculum evaluation, indeed, validates or checks the assumptions upon which the curriculum is based, and also uncovers the broader effects of a programme which may serve its central purposes well but may at the same time produce undesirable by-products.

Given the broad scope of the curriculum, the question that readily and logically comes to mind is what aspects of the curriculum should be evaluated? Taba (1962) reasons that the main goal of education is to effect changes in the behaviour of educands, and these changes are represented in the objectives of education. Thus, curriculum evaluation should determine what these changes are and appraise them against the values represented in the objectives "to find out how far the objectives of education are being achieved" (Taba 1962, p. 213). This stance is also adopted by Wheeler (1983) when he advocates the necessity of evaluating the content and learning experiences selected as well as the organisational

procedures in the light of the tenets of the objectives stated. It is vital to state here that objective-oriented evaluation of the curriculum generally has the sympathy of curriculum designers who place a great deal of faith in the objective model of curriculum development (eg. Tyler 1949; Popham 1970; Taba 1962; Wheeler 1983).

However, Taba (1962) in her characteristically ambivalent attitude to the analysis of issues, in another perspective states:

> One can evaluate anything about the curriculum;
> its objectives, its scope, the quality of the personnel
> in charge of it, the capacities of students, the relative
> importance of various subjects, the degree to which
> objectives are implemented, the equipment and
> materials, and so on (p. 310).

This view suggests that the scope of curriculum evaluation is broad. It entails the collection of data on all aspects of the curriculum: the conditions under which it operates, the resources available for its operation, the role and efficiency of the people who operate it, the effects of its operation on students, what all stakeholders in education think about the effectiveness of the data collected (Tamakloe, 1992). It also concerns the relevance of the content to the needs of the society and the learner, the scientific significance and validity of the curriculum materials, the ability of the curriculum to elicit certain student and teacher behaviours and the actual outcome of using a given set of instructional materials (Lewy, 1977).

2.5 Models of Curriculum Evaluation

There is no single correct way to conduct an evaluation exercise. Notions about how one should conduct an educational

evaluation have at various times been postulated. These efforts have resulted in several evaluation 'models', collectively representing different philosophies of evaluation and consequently the formal content of curriculum evaluation. In this section only those models which are most frequently referred to in evaluation reports are discussed.

2.5.1 Objectives-Based Evaluation

The objectives-based model of curriculum evaluation is ascribed to Ralph Tyler. According to Tyler (1949) "the process of evaluation is essentially the process of determining to what extent the educational objectives are actually being realised by the programme of curriculum and instruction" (pp.105-106). In the model, therefore, broad goals or objectives are established or identified, defined in behavioural terms and relevant student behaviours are measured against this yardstick using either standardised or evaluator-constructed instruments. The outcome data are then compared with the behavioural objectives to determine the extent to which performance was congruent with expectation. If discrepancies are found between performance and objectives, modifications intended to correct the deficiency are made and the evaluation cycle is repeated.

Not all curriculum experts espouse faith in the objectives model. Scriven (1967) for instance, argues that an overemphasis on outcomes is unsatisfactory since information about outcomes does not necessarily tell us anything about other important aspects of a curriculum, such as the quality of its objectives or the way in which it has been taught. Eisner (1979) also points out that the outcomes of

educational programmes are not completely predictable and hence to evaluate only for the goals one has intended can lead one to neglect equally important, and at times even more important outcomes that were unintended. He concludes in consequence that "a conception of evaluation that limits itself to what has been preplanned in terms of goals or objectives is likely to be educationally thin" (Eisner 1979, p. 174). And for Stenhouse (1975) the objectives model "assesses without explaining... Hence the developer of curriculum cannot learn from it" (p. 120). Stenhouse's point is that while the use of objectives as criteria for evaluation permits judgment of failure or success, it is incapable of assisting in the diagnosis of reasons why a curriculum has failed or succeeded.

The criticisms of the objectives model have given rise to a number of alternative models which direct attention to the 'curriculum-in-action' (Eisner, 1979). But before turning attention to those models it is pertinent to observe that the change in focus from objectives to processes does not obviate the problem of establishing criteria by which effective 'processes' may be judged. In the absence of any empirically validated and generally accepted indicators of educational quality, evaluators who choose to focus on process still frequently turn to stated intentions, if not more specific objectives, as benchmarks for examining actual learning experiences.

2.5.2 Countenance Evaluation

Stake (1967) argues for an evaluation "oriented to the complex and dynamic nature of education, one which gives proper attention to the diverse purposes and judgments of the practitioner" (quoted in

Stenhouse, 1975, p. 106). In Stake's view the two major activities of formal evaluation are description and judgment. These are the two separate but complementary 'countenances' of a programme being evaluated. As he puts it, "To be fully understood, the educational programme must be fully described and fully judged" (Stake 1967, p. 525).

Within the description phase, three types of data are collected: antecedent, transaction and outcome data. Antecedents are any conditions existing prior to teaching and learning which may relate to outcomes; for example, environmental factors, school procedures, learners' interests and entry behaviour, materials, physical facilities. Transactions are the innumerable interactions of learners with teacher, learner with learner, learners and curriculum materials. Outcomes are the impact of instruction on teachers, learners, administrators, counsellors and others. Outcomes here are interpreted in the widest sense to include those that are "immediate and long-range, cognitive and conative, personal and community - wide" (Stake 1967, p. 528). In relation to each of the three types of data Stake further proposes that data should be collected concerning both intents and observations. Here we see Stake follow Tyler's rationale of comparing intended and actual outcomes of the programme.

In order to establish the nature of the relationship between and among the different types of data, Stake introduces two further concepts: contingency and congruence. Contingencies relate antecedents, transactions and outcomes, and the relationship may be

ogical or empirical. Intended categories are allocated a logical contingency while observed categories are allocated an empirical contingency. In ontrast to contingency, congruence concerns the relationship between ntents and observations. In particular, it involves an analysis of how well vhat actually happens fulfills what was intended.

In the judgment phase of the model, Stake argues that standards and rocedures for making judgmental statements must be explained to ensure ne publicness of evaluative statements.

Clearly then Stake's framework presents a nearly exhaustive account f what is appropriate for evaluation to focus on. Within the context of the amework, Stake suggests five questions which should guide and give irection to curriculum evaluation:

. Is the evaluation to be primarily descriptive
primarily judgmental or both?

Is the evaluation going to emphasise antecedent conditions, transactions or outcomes alone or a combination of these?

Is the evaluation to indicate congruence between goals and what actually occurs?

Is the evaluation to be undertaken with a single programme or as a comparison between two or more programmes?

Is the evaluation intended more to further the development of curriculum or to help choose among various curricula?

5.3 Formative and Summative Evaluation

Scriven (1967) introduced the important distinction between ormative' and `summative' evaluation. Formative evaluation is

43

conducted during the development or implementation of a programme to provide feedback and guide usually for those operating the programme. Lewy (1991, p. 407) thus calls it "in-house" evaluation. Summative evaluation, on the other hand, is conducted after completion of a course of study and for the benefit of an external audience or decision maker. In both formative and summative evaluation, however, the evaluation may be done by an internal or external evaluator or a combination of both.

Attempts have been made by various writers including Alkin (1974), Stake (1977) and Cronbach, et al (1980) to point out systematic differences between formative and summative evaluation. But Scriven himself adheres to the view that there are no basic logical and methodological differences between the two types of evaluation. "Only timing, the audience requesting it and the way its results are used can indicate whether a study is formative or summative" (Lewy, 1991, p. 407).

2.5.4 Decision-Oriented Evaluation

According to Borich (1991) decision-oriented evaluation is a process that produces information for selecting among alternative courses of action. He states: "An evaluation is decision-oriented if it services a decision, implies a choice among alternatives, and is used in committing resources for the next interval of time before another decision is to be made" (p. 414). Stufflebeam et al (1971) whose work represented one of the first attempts to consider evaluation from a decision perspective, in their CIPP model of evaluation, identify four types of evaluation for different educational decisions.

They are context evaluation - which help to identify needs, set objectives and plan or choose strategies for achieving the objectives; input evaluation - which serves structural decisions by projecting and analysing procedural designs; process evaluation - which is a programme monitoring activity to detect procedural or design defects is a record of the actual implementation process; and product evaluation - which identifies and assesses programme attainments and also provides decisions on the continuation, modification or termination of the programme.

A similar decision-oriented view of evaluation can be found in the work of Alkin (1969) who emphasises the notion that the evaluator's most important function is to report summary data to the decision maker in the form of practical and clear statements about what alternative course of action should be taken.

2.5.5 Goal-Free Evaluation

Goal-free evaluation of an instructional programme determines the merit of the programme by examining the actual effects of the programme, whether intended or not, without reference to its stated goals or objectives. Scriven (1972) who proposed this model argues that attention to stated programme goals makes evaluation necessarily circumscriptive in that it narrows the range of potential outcomes that can be investigated by an evaluator. To escape this constrictive influence the goal-free evaluator concentrates on what a programme actually does rather than what it is supposed to do.

Stecher (1991) points out that goal-free evaluation is not a fully realised evaluation model with formal definitions, specifications

45

of structural relationships, framework for data collection and reporting, operating procedures, and so on. It is primarily a philosophical principle for guiding the evaluation process. What is implied here is that the discovery and documentation of programme effects in goal-free evaluation would depend on the professional expertise of the evaluator. Granted this, the question arises as to how the goal-free evaluator can determine the observed effects that are attributable to the programme under investigation and those that are not. Scriven offers some guidance via his "modus operandi method". Likening goal free-evaluation to criminal investigation he suggests that the evaluator carefully examines all potential causes for observed effects and establish strong linkage to prior programme activities and competing influences.

Like all other "new" ideas, goal-free evaluation has not escaped criticism. One of its most trenchant indictments is that it simply replaces the goals of the programme with those of the evaluator. In other words, the criteria which the evaluator uses for making judgments are, by inference, his goals and these substitute the goals of the programme developers. Scriven's way of reacting to this was his later use of the terms "needs-based" and "consumer-based" evaluation (Scriven, 1981). In the view of Scriven (and later his sympathisers) the essential criterion in an evaluation is not the extent to which the programme meets its goals, but the degree to which it meets demonstrated needs of the users of the programme. To use Stecher's(1991, p. 413) expression, "merit is derived from the congruence between programme effects and the needs of the affected

population, but not from the correspondence between effects and goals". The rider is that the goal-free evaluator of curriculum should determine the needs of the learners and the society as a whole and use these as the basis for his judgment about the programme effects

Though goal-free evaluation appears to be erected on pleasurable philosophical underpinnings, it is yet to enjoy wide acceptance as a practical evaluation approach Notwithstanding this it has provided insights into effective evaluation by emphasising the need to

- ensure the independence of the evaluator

- examine any programme effects

- scrutinise programme goals and

- consider a wide range of programme outcomes

2.5.6 Responsive Evaluation

Stake (1972) advocates responsive evaluation and defines it in the following way

> An educational evaluation is a responsive evaluation
> if it orients more directly to programme activities than
> to programme intents, if it responds to audience
> requirements for information, and if the different value
> perspectives present are referred to in reporting the
> success of the programme
> (Quoted in Stenhouse, 1975, p. 114)

Of interest is Stake's emphasis on the presentation of reports If for instance, evaluation is addressed to decision makers rather than researchers the evaluator must attempt to portray the programme in a way that communicates to an audience more naturally and effectively

than the traditional research report. The caveat here is that research style information may not be the kind of information which is useful for decision makers.

An essential feature of responsive evaluation is that attention should be paid to key issues, those held by people who operate the programme being evaluated. The responsive evaluator should, as a first step, get acquainted with a programme's features by observing its activities, interviewing those who have some stake in the programme and examine relevant documents. From this preliminary inquiry the evaluator selects a few issues which serve as conceptual organisers for the initial planning and progressive focusing of the study.

It is pertinent to note that responsive evaluation does not place premium on the testing of students or other indicators of successful attainment of objectives. Rather, "People are used more as sociological informants than as subjects here. They are questioned not so much to see how they have changed but to indicate the changes they see" (Stake 1991, p. 419). Other features of responsive evaluation are:

1.   the evaluator either summarises the programme's worth or provides descriptive data and the judgments of others for report readers to draw their own conclusions.

2.   the feedback is presented in forms and language attractive and comprehensible to the various groups who have a stake in the programme. This may require different reports from different groups. (Stake, 1991, p. 419)

2.5.7 Illuminative Evaluation

Rooted in the anthropological research paradigm, and located within the general definition of a "systems" approach, illuminative evaluation involves an "intensive study of a programme as a whole its rationale and evolution, its operations, achievements and difficulties" (Parlett and Hamilton 1972, p. 1). In the study, the programme is not examined in isolation, but in the wider school context or learning milieu, using a range of methods, mainly direct observation, interviews, questionnaires, focused group discussions, and analysis of background documentary materials. The aim is to study how the programme operates, how it is influenced by the situation in which it is applied, what those who apply it see as its advantages and disadvantages and what the learners' reactions are to the course concerned. Eventually it is "to discover and document what it is like to be participating in the scheme, whether as a teacher or pupil; and, in addition, to discern and discuss the innovation's most significant features, recurring concomitants, and critical processes" (Parlett and Hamilton, 1972, p. 1). In this way, the study can enhance people's understanding of policy questions related to the educational programme.

In Parlett and Hamilton's model two concepts are central: the 'instructional system', that is, the curriculum and the 'learning milieu', that is, the social-psychological and material environment in which learners and teachers work together. In the process of implementation, the instructional system interacts with the learning

milieu. This interaction is crucial for the illuminative evaluator because it is where the action is.

Parlett (1991) in another perspective depicts illuminative evaluation as responsive, naturalistic, heuristic and interpretive. The responsive element of illuminative evaluation is seen in one of its cardinal principles which requires that such studies "be of use and interest to the educational practitioners and policy makers who represent the target audiences" (Parlett 1991, p. 420). The naturalistic feature is that in the study, relevant phenomena are examined as they occur "naturally" in real life institutional settings. The heuristic character is manifested in the flexibility of study design: the study strategy is an evolving one, allowing continuous updating to accord with the investigator's emerging understandings of the programme as a whole and accommodating changes in the programme that result from the flux of unfolding events during the course of study. Finally, in addition to full and accurate description and reporting required of all evaluators, illuminative evaluators are enjoined to "sharpen discussion, disentangle complexities, isolate the significant from the trivial, and raise the level of sophistication of debate" (Parlett and Hamilton 1972, quoted in Parlett 1991, p. 421). This, evaluators do by discovering and constructing meaning from underlying structures and relationships in order to make manifest the invisible realities. This is the interpretive dimension of illuminative evaluation.

Most of the models of evaluation reviewed share common features and some may be regarded as complementary to others. For

instance, goal-free evaluation can be considered as an extension of objectives-based evaluation in so far as the former expands the scope of variables which deserve attention in a curriculum evaluation study. The decision-oriented model differs from the objectives-based and goal-free models, primarily, in its definition of the evaluation target. In the objectives and goal-free models the evaluation target is derived from the curriculum itself or from its implementation in schools. But in the decision-oriented model the evaluation target is derived from the interests of those who are in charge of making decisions concerning the curriculum. The emphasis of responsive evaluation is on the continuous adaptation of the evaluation goal-setting and data-gathering as the evaluators become acquainted with the programme and evaluation context. Illuminative evaluation shares basic principles with responsive evaluation but the latter employs a wholistic approach and "recommends condensing the maximum amount of valid experience and informative commentary about the system studied into a readable report which will stimulate talk and bring together key topics, unresolved questions and practical thinking" (Lewy 1991, p. 397). Indeed, as rightly observed by Worthen (1991) some of the models "are so sufficiently multifacted that they could appear in more than one category" (p. 402). Together they present a rich mix of methods and concerns for curriculum evaluation.

2.6 Some Recent Studies on Implementation Evaluation in Ghana

Implementation evaluation studies are designed to help specify the practices implied by an innovation; identify those conditions under which implementation is likely to succeed; determine the capabilities required of the implementers and to help explain the success and failure of the innovation (Leithwood, 1991).In this section relatively recent studies conducted along these directions in Ghana are reviewed.

Omari (1981) evaluated the implementation of the science curriculum for the experimental junior secondary schools (JSS) established in Ghana between 1976 and 1981. Using a non-participant observation approach, he investigated how six (6) JSS science teachers organised their lessons. He concluded from his findings that the JSS science curriculum was not being implemented according to the specifications of its designers. Teachers dominated the lessons and failed to encourage the pupils to contribute towards the development of concepts. Practical work was also not carried out.

In a case study of the implementation of the JSS Science programme in the Cape Coast district, Tufuor (1989) sampled twenty-seven (27) out of the thirty-two (32) schools in the district. For data collection, he used the interview method. His findings were that considerable success had been achieved. However, he also found that the implementation process faced problems such as inadequate financial support, teachers' use of inappropriate teaching

methods, students' weak background in English and Science, lack of furniture and laboratory space. His conclusion was that more studies should be conducted to ascertain the state of the educational programme.

Ampah (1991) also did an exploratory study to assess the extent to which the JSS agricultural science programme had been implemented in the central region, based on teachers' perceptions. He used the questionnaire as the major instrument to collect data. His findings warranted the following conclusions: most of the teachers were not adequately prepared to handle the pre-vocational agricultural science in the lower forms of a regular secondary school; most of the teachers felt they did not possess sufficient competencies needed for maximum implementation of the programme; the aspects and characteristics of the programme were mostly clear to the teachers, resources required for the implementation of the programme were found to be fairly inadequate; and total degree of implementation was found to be high.

Furthermore, the following factors (in order of priority) were considered important in promoting implementation: teachers' understanding and acceptance of the programme; teachers and students' acceptance of the programme as part of the latter's general education; students' interest in the programme; and cooperative attitudes from other teachers of the school. On the other hand, implementation efforts were found to be impeded by inadequacy of time allocation, inadequate in-service training, too much content expected to be covered and lack of well-trained teachers.

Eminah (1993) also studied the implementation of the JSS Science curriculum in the western region. The thrust of his study was to determine the extent to which the classroom behaviours of selected JSS teachers conformed to the teaching and learning approaches prescribed in the JSS science syllabus and the teachers' handbook. Using the descriptive survey design, Eminah employed a non-participant observation method and a modified form of the Barbados Workshop Observation Schedule (BWOS) to collect data. He found that JSS science teachers asked lower order cognitive questions; they also did not organise practical work as demanded by the science course. Furthermore pupils could not read and write in English. From these findings Eminah (1993) concluded that "six years after the initiation of the New Educational Reform Programme, the desired changes in instructional processes of the JSS Science curriculum had not occurred" (p. 127). In other words, the JSS Science curriculum was not being implemented at the classroom level in the manner prescribed by its developers. As he put it "The teaching and learning strategies being used are at variance with the principles which are intended to guide teaching in the course" (Eminah 1993, p. 127).

Damalie (1997) recently investigated the factors which affect the implementation of the cultural studies programme in Ghanaian JSS. Data was collected through indepth interviewing and observation. The findings were that religious orientation of both pupils and teachers; teachers' lack of expertise in handling the music component of the programme; inadequate time allocation; lack of

continuous in-service courses and lack of materials inhibited the implementation of the programme. On the other hand, positive attitude of teachers towards the programme; cooperation of the pupils; the provision of textbooks; the cooperation of parents in supplying needed resources; the practical nature of the subject; pupils' familiarity with some aspects of the content, and the use of resources persons were listed as factors which facilitate the implementation of the programme.

A study by Amoah (1998) also investigated the implementation of the social studies curriculum in some districts of the central region. His major findings were that the social studies programme was not being implemented via the integrated approach. Also teaching-learning materials were lacking. Teachers and pupils rarely went beyond the textbooks material in their teaching and learning. Field work and other methods recommended for teaching social studies were not being used.

2.7   Implications for this Study

From the studies reviewed in section 2.6 two observations can be made. First, with the solitary exception of Amoah's (1998) work, all the studies have been conducted in subject areas other than social studies. In fact, research in social studies education in Ghana has mainly been conducted by diploma and undergraduate students from the University College of Education, Winneba and the University of Cape Coast respectively. The findings of such studies were, however, not considered very important for the present work because of the inexperience of the researchers and the one-shot nature of

much of the data collection. Second, all the studies looked at implementation and/or evaluation at the JSS level, leaving out the TTCs where the executors of the JSS programme are prepared and equipped. The current study is meant to fill the vacuum left by earlier studies in respect of subject area and level of education.

The conceptual issues reviewed in connection with implementation and evaluation also provide a theoretical basis for the study. In particular, they provide a justification for adopting the illuminative model of curriculum evaluation as the framework for the study.

Together, therefore, the findings of earlier studies on implementation evaluation in Ghana and the conceptual issues discussed in this chapter and in chapter three, have provided invaluable material and insights for the present work, particularly in delineating the variables isolated for study and the instruments used to collect data.

N o t e

1.   Syllabuses for pre-tertiary institutions are developed by the Curriculum Research and Development Division of the Ghana Education Service. Syllabuses for TTCs are developed by the Teacher Education Division.

CHAPTER THREE

PERSPECTIVES ON THE NATURE OF SOCIAL STUDIES

This chapter continues the discussion of the conceptual issues related to the study by examining the nature of social studies. The chapter is intended to furnish familiarity with the structure of the subject area that forms the focus of this study. This acquaintance, the researcher believes, is needed in order to understand the pedagogical processes that are used to address requisite learning in social studies, and also to appreciate the issues that have been disentangled for consideration in this evaluative study. Specifically, the chapter examines the nature of social studies with respect to its meaning, purpose and objectives, scope, attributes as well as its relationship to the social sciences. An intrinsic evaluation of the Social Studies Syllabus for the Three-year Post-Secondary Teacher Training Colleges in Ghana is also given. Here, the procedural principles for teaching the subject at that level are stated.

3.1 The Concept 'Social Studies'

One of the most significant dimensions of the history of social studies has been the lack of agreement among its scholars over the nature, scope and definition of the field (Lybarger, 1991). It is, therefore, no wonder that in the literature on social studies so much attention has been concentrated in this direction than perhaps on any other issue. The proliferation of writings with the variety of views, no doubt, presents a problem to the young student in his

conceptualisation of the field for he is left to navigate, as it were, in an endless sea. But it has also enriched the subject and nourished the understanding of its scholars. From this flux of ideas concerning social studies, Tamakloe (1977) sees two implications of the broadening of the subject in terms of teacher pedagogical practice:

> On the one hand, it allows a very wide area from which teachers can take cues for planning learning and teaching strategies for their pupils. On the other hand, there will be teachers who are likely to take only a narrow aspect and feel that they are doing what is expected of them because they are working within some definition of the concept (p. 79).

In other words, the curricular and instructional decisions that a teacher takes are, to a large extent, dictated by his understanding of the subject he teaches.

In the midst of the burgeoning literature and the problem it poses to conceptualisation, and its implications for curricular and instructional decision making, the concept 'Social Studies' is here examined following the suggestion by Tabachnick (1991). He thinks that to answer the question "What is social studies?" one should "examine general definitions for social studies offered by educators whose special interest is in social studies education" and scrutinise "guidelines and statements of purpose for social studies" (Tabachnick, 1991, p. 726).

It is also important to point out at the onset that there are some writers on social studies who use the term with a singular verb, while others use it with the plural verb. However, professional usage

demonstrates convincingly that the term 'social studies' "is properly regarded as a plural verb" (McLendon, 1965, p. 68). This, notwithstanding, unless a direct reference is being made to a particular writer's work, social studies will be used in a generic sense with the singular verb throughout this study.

Lindquist (1995) simply defines social studies as "an integration of knowledge, skills and processes" and goes on to say that the subject provides "powerful learning in the humanities and social sciences for the purpose of helping children learn to be good problem solvers and wise decision makers" (p. 1). A parallel definition is given by the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) as follows: "Social Studies is the integrated study of the social sciences and humanities to promote civic competence (NCSS, 1994, p. 105).

The definitions quoted above are two sides of the same coin. On one side is the material that is studied: the content or subject matter of social studies. This includes essential information, ideas, skills, issues and inquiry procedures drawn from the array of fields called the social sciences. They serve as resources on which the social studies curriculum draws, blending and integrating them as needed to provide children with meaningful learning experiences (Parker and Jarolimek, 1997). This point is shared by Martorella (1994) when he echoes what he considers to be the common voice of most social studies educators. He states that "the field of social studies gains a significant portion of its identity from the disciplines of the social sciences" and adds specifically that "the methods of

inquiry used in the social sciences... are important sources of social studies subject matter" (Martorella, 1994, p. 21). These two curricular elements - content and method - of the social sciences are embodied in Martorella's own triadic definition of social studies:

> The social studies are selected information and modes of investigation from the social sciences, selected information from any area that relates directly to an understanding of individuals, groups and societies, and application of the selected information to citizenship education (Martorella, 1994, p. 7).

However, it should not be taken that social studies is just an approach to teaching in which the content, findings, and methods of the social sciences are merely simplified and reorganised for instructional purposes. It is a field of study in its own right though it derives its existence from an amalgamation of a number of disciplines.

On the other side of the definitions by Lindquist and the NCSS is the purpose of social studies instruction: citizenship education. Also, Lindquist and the NCSS specifically use the word `integration' to describe the nature of social studies. These points will be taken up for discussion in later sections.

According to Tabachnick (1991) social studies is "that part of the school curriculum which deals with human relationships, and aims to contribute to the development of good citizenship" (p. 725). Here, the writer puts a hand on the essential area of concern in social studies education - human relationships, and rightly so. The focus of

social studies is the network of relationships that evolve among people as they try to coexist in the various group identities that compete for their loyalties. It is needless to say that any academic pursuit that takes the social environment of man as a phenomenon of study should necessarily place premium on human relations. Of all the attributes that distinguish man from other creatures, the most remarkable is his abiding interest in and earnest longing for association with others of his species. Man, it is said, is a gregarious being. Social Studies includes the study of individuals and groups of people and how they relate to one another. In the study, importance is attached to individual qualities like critical thinking, diligence, patriotism, obedience, honesty and group ideals like cooperation, tolerance, interdependence and any other socially desirable habits, ideals, attitudes and values (Tamakloe, 1991).

Banks (1990) defines social studies as

> that part of the elementary and high school curriculum which has the primary responsibility for helping students develop the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values needed to participate in the civic life of their local communities, the nation and the world (p. 3).

This definition has been described as "an incisive and in-depth description of social studies [which] sheds more light on the nature of the subject" (Tamakloe 1994, p. 1) in view, perhaps, of the essential ideas it encapsulates. First, there is reference to the acquisition of knowledge and skills as well as the development of desirable attitudes and values as prerequisites to civic competence, which is

the fundamental purpose of social studies. Second, by mentioning the local community, the nation and the world (in that order) as the social environments in which the citizen actor progressively functions, Banks implicitly alludes to the concentric nature of social studies. Following after Hanna's (1963) 'expanding communities' scope and sequence design, social studies instructional programmes in most educational systems have been organised using a concentric approach. Basic to this approach, alternatively referred to as 'expanding environments' or 'expanding horizons', is the premise that "children usually learn better about real things and life around them than about abstract topics that they cannot see or feel" (Chapin and Messick, 1989 p. 23). The immediate world of children is, therefore, the focal point of the concentric approach. In the primary grades, family, neighbourhood and local communities are studied in succession. As children grow older, they continue to study increasingly remote, abstract communities. In Ghana the sequence of units in the basic education social studies programme reflects this approach. The units are The Home, The School, The Neighbourhood, Ghana, West Africa (Primary Grades); The School Community, The Local Community, The National community, The West African Community, The African Community and The World Community (Junior Secondary Grades). Notwithstanding its popularity, the concentric approach has been subjected to extensive analysis and criticism (see Naylor and Diem, 1987; Welton and Mallan, 1988; Ravitch 1987; Baskerville and Sesow, 1976; Joyce and Alleman-Brooks, 1982; Akenson, 1989).

62

Banks' statement that social studies is a subject limited to the elementary and secondary school curriculum seems to have outlived its time. Today social studies is studied even to the doctoral level in many countries.

3.2   Purpose and Objectives

Most attempts to define social studies, in addition to specifying its content and scope, emphasise its purpose and objectives. The word 'purpose' is being used in this work to refer to the long-term terminal expectation of social studies education as distinct from 'objectives' which are medium or short-term intentions.

3.2.1 Purpose

In general, the reason why a particular subject is included in the curriculum seems self-evident. Yet social studies advocates seem propelled to explain and justify the place of their subject in schools (Marker and Mehlinger, 1994). Banks (1990), for example, states that the major purpose of social studies is to prepare citizens who can make reflective decisions and participate successfully in the civic life of their local communities, nation and the world. Subscribing to this viewpoint, Martorella (1994) opines that the basic purpose of social studies is to develop reflective, competent and concerned citizens. The NCSS also follows the same plane of thought and asserts:

> The primary purpose of social studies is to help
> young people develop the ability to make informed
> and reasoned decisions for the public good as
> citizens of a culturally diverse, democratic society in

an interdependent world (NCSS, 1994, p. 105).

At the highest level of abstraction, therefore, there is a general agreement about the purpose of social studies. It is to prepare young citizens so that they possess the knowledge, values and skills needed for enlightened and active participation in society. Indeed, most social studies educators agree that citizenship education is the ultimate justification for social studies (Hahn, 1985b; Leming, 1986; Stanley, 1985), and so fundamental is citizenship education to social studies that the Ghana Education Service (G.E.S.) equates the two: "Social Studies is citizenship education" (G.E.S. 1998, p. 4).

It is important to state here that not all educators pay homage to the "social studies - citizenship education" totem. There are people who appear sceptical and therefore would not march under the citizenship flag. Such people argue that such a purpose overlaps with the primary purpose and broad socialisation role of schools generally and, therefore. obfuscates the contribution of social studies; that the definition of a good citizen is so vague and the knowledge one requires to perform as citizen so freely interpreted that nearly any point of view can be folded into that noble purpose, that there is no organised, agreed-upon body of knowledge for citizenship education so until there is a "discipline" of citizenship, the term is devoid of meaning for curricular purposes (Longstreet, 1985; Lengel and Superka, 1982). Some even question whether more active participation by all citizens is even healthy for the society and thus a desirable goal (Leming, 1986).

In reaction to the above reasonings, Banks (1990) humbly admits the shared role of all school subjects towards the citizenship education mission but thinks that it is directly and primarily fulfilled by social studies. He submits:

> While the other curriculum areas also help students to attain some skills needed to participate in a democratic society, the social studies is the only area that has the development of civic competencies and skills as its primary goal (Banks, 1990, p. 3).

Beyond the anti-citizenship sentiments referred to above it appears that the agree-upon purpose of social studies, as indicated earlier, is the production of good citizens. However, where the agreement ends, there the disagreement begins over what citizenship education entails and the different ways by which it can be taught in social studies. The controversy consequently snowballs into who the good citizen is or should be.

Citizenship education has been defined or described in several ways. For Welton and Mallan (1988) citizenship education means teaching the knowledge and skills that enable individuals to function effectively in whatever settings they find themselves. Patrick (1986) posits a rather limited view and says that citizenship education involves knowledge of the constitution, its principles, values, history and application to contemporary life. He submits, in consequence, that the individual who does not understand the constitution both as a symbol of nationhood and means of governance is unable to appreciate his civic culture and does not act as an effective citizen.

Shaver (1987) perceives citizenship education as "specifically concerned with ... transmitting values, teaching social science and history...and encouraging the development of competencies in decision making and participation" (p. 115). As if to expand on Shaver's view, Parker and Jarolimek (1997) explain that citizenship education includes both the knowledge of people and places that is gradually constructed as a consequence of studying material from history and the social sciences, and the civic competence that results from studying and practising constitutional democracy.

In brief, citizenship education implies being educated to become an effective member of one's immediate as well as the general human community and develop a commitment to work effectively with diverse people, accept differences in culture and values and to respond to societal and developmental needs and issues. Such education combines the acquisition of knowledge, skills, attitudes and beliefs with an understanding of the application of democratic beliefs to life through practice and social participation. It involves the total activity of the citizen's associations and day to day relationships. Its major purpose "is to legitimate government to students, to teach them to transcend the personal in favour of communal interests, and to teach them to think of the nation-state as a community and themselves as members of that community" (Cusick, 1991, p. 276).

The different views on ways by which citizenship education should be taught within social studies have been analysed by scholars like Barr, Barth and Shermis (1977), Engle (1977) and Nelson and

Michaelis (1980). From these analyses five perspectives on citizenship education within social studies have been identified. Martorella (1994) summarizes the respective emphases of those perspectives as follows:

1. Social Studies should be taught as transmission of the cultural heritage; that is, transmitting traditional knowledge and values as a framework for making decisions;

2. Social Studies should be taught as social science; that is, mastering social science concepts, generalizations and processes to build a knowledge base for later learning;

3. Social Studies should be taught as reflective inquiry; that is, employing a process of thinking and learning in which knowledge is derived from what citizens need to know in order to make decisions and solve problems;

4. Social Studies should be taught as informed social criticism; that is providing opportunities for an examination, critique and revision of past traditions, existing social practices and modes of problem solving; and

5. Social Studies should be taught as personal development; that is, developing a positive self-concept and a strong sense of personal efficacy. (Martorella, 1994, p. 9).

Certainly, these five perspectives do not exhaust all of the possible classifications and none completely avoids overlap among the others. In Ghana the social studies programmes for the pre-university levels appear to adopt a synthetic approach, borrowing elements from the various categories. It must however, be pointed out that not much of "informed social criticism" is woven into our

social studies programmes even at the university level. Social Studies teaching has often been uncritical of the Ghanaian society it claims to study and hence has played its part in sustaining the status quo in school and society. An examination of the most recent documents - Environmental Studies (Basic Stages 1 - 6), Senior Secondary School Social Studies, Social and Environmental Studies for Teacher Training Colleges (all published in 1998) - reveals the tacit assumption that students involved in such porogrammes will neatly fit into preordained slots in society and follow particular styles of life. Time after time the status quo is presented as normal, unchanging and unchangeable - or requiring slight corrections - such that one could begin to argue that social studies instruction is a thinly disguised exercise in 'flexible obedience'. If the production of a critically - reflective citizenry remains the avowed purpose of our social studies programmes, then a critical review of the programmes should be seen as an urgent necessity.

The individual who successfully undergoes the type of education described in the preceding paragraphs of this section is assumed to be a "good" citizen. But the qualities expected of a good citizen depend on the kind of political community in which the individual lives and the values cherished in that community. Hence conceptions of the good citizen range from the passive, compliant member of the local community and nation to the active, informed citizen who is committed to improvement of existing conditions.

Brophy (1988) describes the good citizen as "one who is an informed person skilled in the processes of a free society, who is

committed to democratic values and who not only is able to but feels obligated to participate in social, political and economic processes" (p. 3). Parker and Kaltsounis (1986), in a complementary sense, believe that the thinking and actions of such a citizen would be characterised by global, pluralistic and constructive perspectives. Global perspective means that his commitment to liberty and justice for all extends to people everywhere. Pluralistic perspective describes the fact that the individual sees cultural diversity and differences in opinion as acceptable or even desirable. Constructive in the sense that he sees democracy as an unfinished business and the nation as in need of maintenance and improvement.

Martorella (1994) prefers the expression "effective citizen" and characterizes him as reflective, competent and concerned. The reflective citizen has knowledge of a body of facts, concepts and generalisations concerning the organisation, understanding and development of individuals, groups and societies. He can also formulate testable hypotheses. This enables him to think critically, make decisions and solve problems on the basis of the best evidence available. The competent citizen has a store of skills with which he can make decisions and solve problems. The concerned citizen has an awareness of his or her rights and responsibilities in the nation-state, a sense of social consciousness and a well-grounded framework for deciding what is right and what is wrong and for acting on decisions. Additionally, the concerned citizen has learned how to identify and analyse issues and to suspend judgment concerning alternative beliefs, attitudes, values, customs and cultures.

In the view of Banks (1990) the good citizen not only makes reflective decision (here Banks is on the same wave length with Martorella) but also makes deliberate efforts to influence his or her political environment, including its laws, public policies, values and the distribution of wealth. He is an "effective citizen actor".

For Pecku (1994) the outstanding attributes of good citizens are that they pay allegiance to the ideals of democracy, cherish values which commensurate with the democratic way of life and live according to these values; they are aware of social problems and try to help solve them; they seek to meet human needs for they are concerned with extending the essentials of life to more individuals; they recognise the interdependence of all people in community relationships; and they use their acquired knowledge, skills and abilities to facilitate the process of democratic living.

Collapsing the different views together one can say that the good citizen is a total person - rational in thinking, skilful in behaviour and socially conscious in action.

3.2.2 Objectives

More specific goals (objectives) geared toward the realisation of the over-arching purpose of citizenship are stated differently by different writers and committees. However, barring the use of different words and phrases, there is general agreement that the elements of a sound citizenship education are knowledge, skills, attitudes and values and participation (NCSS 1981; Banks 1990; Parker and Jarolimek, 1997). The objectives of social studies, therefore, may be put into four broad categories:

1.   the acquisition of knowledge

2.   the acquisition of skills

3.   the development of desirable attitudes and values.

4.   civic participation

If students are to make reflective decisions and participate fully in their civic communities and influence public policy, they presumably need knowledge in the form of facts and data, concepts and generalisations, and explanatory theories. But specifically what type of knowledge is fundamental to citizenship education is another topic of debate. "The lack of agreement about what knowledge is fundamental makes social studies, more than any curricular area, susceptible to topical fads promoted by well intentioned advocates" (Marker and Mehlinger, 1994, pp.10-11).

The NCSS (1993) offers part of the solution when it contends that the body of knowledge relevant to social studies education should be what it calls "social understanding". It explains social understanding as knowledge of human beings' social worlds. Students need to know about and experience a deep sense of appreciation for the peoples and places on earth, their relationships, the similarities and differences among them, the problems they encounter, and social trends and processes that are likely to shape the future. This requires that the facts, concepts, principles, generalisations and theories concerning the organisation, understanding and development of individuals, groups and societies, both past and present are taught to students.

Particularly, social studies introduces the student to the modes of thinking and inquiry of the social sciences. These are instrumental in helping the student to comprehend his world; preparing him for responsible citizenship and in equipping him with the necessary tools to gather facts or information or ideas without which he cannot analyse and interprete situations in his environment intelligently and objectively and make reasoned judgments on important issues which confront him

Apart from the social science disciplines, knowledge in the social studies curriculum may also be drawn from other sources if it is needed by the citizen to explain a phenomenon, resolve an issue, make decisions and take action

The systematic and sequential development of skills is of utmost importance to learners of social studies because skills are the tools with which they continue their learning. Students require skills for acquiring, judging and processing information as well as skill in using information through writing and oral argumentation

The range of skills in social studies extend from those that may be covered in several subjects to skills that may be unique to social studies. Banks (1990) identifies four groups of skills fundamental to the social studies curriculum. These are

1. Thinking Skills - ability to conceptualise, interprete, analyse, generalise, apply knowledge and evaluate knowledge

2. Social Science Inquiry Skills - ability to formulate scientific questions and hypotheses, collect pertinent data and use it to test hypotheses and derive generalisations

3. Academic or Study Skills - ability to locate, organise and acquire information through reading, listening and observing; to communicate orally and in writing; to interprete pictures, graphs, tables, etc.

4. Group Skills - ability to perform effectively both as a leader and as a follower in solving group problems, use power effectively and fairly in group situations; resolve controversy in groups, etc. (p. 6)

It is worth noting that the different groups of skills are related one to the other. All of them combined with the appropriate knowledge make the students effective as participating members of their communities.

The inculcation in learners of the right type of attitudes and values needed for the survival of the individual and the society remains an important objective in social studies. Without such dispositions, self-governance and civic life would be impossible. Positive attitude toward society, the physical environment with its natural resources, toward learning and evidence are all needed for the development, upliftment and sustenance of the individual and society.

With regard to values, social studies educators have traditionally been of two minds (Marker and Mehlinger, 1994). On the one hand, social studies is expected to contribute to the values vital for democratic citizenship - for example, respect for law and human dignity, equality, honesty, hardwork, fairness and justice at

work and play, and defence of expression of opinion. On the other hand, social studies educators have often encouraged teachers to promote critical inquiry in which apparently sacred and unassailable values can be confronted (Oliver and Shaver, 1966). The issue of whether social studies teachers are to socialise students into particular core values, whether they are to help students clarify their values, whether they are to nurture children's "moral development" (Kohlberg 1973, 1975; Lockwood 1988) or whether they are to promote critical inquiry of all values has been a contentious one in social studies.

Whatever the choices, Aggarwal (1982) warns that the development of desirable attitudes and values should not be done through indoctrination via lecturing or preaching. It should be the natural outcome of all the discussions and activities carried on by the class. Values and attitudes, it must be emphasised, are caught but not taught. It would be desirable if students would be taught a process for identifying the sources of their values, analysing and clarifying their values, and justifying their values. It would equally be beneficial to help students to state the possible consequences of their value systems. In all these endeavours the teacher's example exerts the most dominating influence. The challenge is his to reflect proper attitudes through his disposition and behaviour so that they are rightly adopted by the pupils under his care.

The essence of the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values imparted in a sound social studies programme is that they be applied through active communication and participation in concrete activities

It is essential that the four categories of objectives be viewed as equally important. If any one of them is ignored the social studies programme is weakened. There is a tight and dynamic relationship among knowledge, skills, attitudes and values and socio-civic participation. Each interacts with the others. Each nourishes the others.

In Ghana more specific objectives related to each of the four strands of objectives discussed are stated for basic education, senior secondary and teacher training college social studies. These are presented in Appendix E.

3.3 Scope

The term scope' (and its twin word sequence') is of relatively recent origin, having emerged prominently in the educational literature after World War II. But the idea of selecting subject matter for inclusion in a school curriculum and then placing it at successive grade levels has been an integral part of curriculum construction for all formal educational systems (Joyce, Little and Wronski, 1991). In this section the term scope' is being used with respect to social studies instruction to refer to "the range of substantive content, values, skills and/or learner experiences to be included in the social studies program" (Jarolimek, 1984, p. 252).

A survey of the available literature reveals, at least, three perspectives from which the scope of social studies has been defined There are some writers who define the scope of the subject in terms of the disciplines that furnish content for the social studies curriculum. Other writers describe the scope from the perspective of

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The term 'scope' (and its twin word 'sequence') is of relatively recent origin, having emerged prominently in the educational literature after World War II. But the idea of selecting subject matter for inclusion in a school curriculum and then placing it at successive grade levels has been an integral part of curriculum construction for all formal educational systems (Joyce, Little and Wronski, 1991). In this section the term 'scope' is being used with respect to social studies instruction to refer to "the range of substantive content, values, skills and/or learner experiences to be included in the social studies program" (Jarolimek, 1984, p. 252).

A survey of the available literature reveals, at least, three perspectives from which the scope of social studies has been defined. There are some writers who define the scope of the subject in terms of the disciplines that furnish content for the social studies curriculum. Other writers describe the scope from the perspective of

the environments (communities) that are concentrically studied. Yet still others delimit the scope in terms of what areas of society's life they consider relevant for study in social studies.

According to Banks (1990), at the lower grades in school the scope of social studies should be based on institutions and communities such as the home, the family, the school, the neighbourhood and the community. He goes on to state that at the higher levels a variety of elective courses such as sociology, psychology, and the problems of democracy should be offered. In Ghana, the scope of social studies appears to reflect the ideas put forward by Banks. At the basic level (primary and junior secondary), the subject is organised around eight communities - the home, the school, the neighbourhood, the local community, the national community, the West African Community, the African Community and the World Community. At the higher levels (senior secondary school, teacher training colleges and universities), the social studies programmes combine elements from geography, economics, sociology, political science and history. The programmes are structured to reflect the Ghana Education Service's (1988) statement that social studies integrates history, geography, civics and elements of economics, government and sociology.

It is significant to note that where subject areas are used to define the scope of social studies, the aim is to promote the understandings, abilities and values associated with the subject areas. Consequently, what is selected for examination should be the defining questions or purposes, the central concepts and bodies of

knowledge, the attitudes and methods of inquiry and the criteria for judging evidence peculiar to those subject areas. If this is done, it could "provide the most systematic and rigorous (or disciplined) way of organizing our study of the social world" (Case, 1994, p. 3).

For Case (1994) the scope of social studies should be discipline - based, dimension - based and concern based. Discipline-based scope means that the structure and contributions of the individual disciplines - especially the social sciences, should be used as the building blocks for social studies. This point has already been explained in the preceding paragraph.

Dimension-based scope is predicated upon the belief that the world does not organise itself according to disciplines, hence the focus of social studies should be commonplace dimensions of society. Case (1994) samples the following dimensions of society: social roles (eg., citizen, worker, consumer, family member); social phenomena (eg., crime, conflict, play, holidays); social institutions (eg., family, government, religion, sports). Concern-based scope emphasises pressing issues or challenges facing students in local, national and international areas. Examples are environmental education, global education, human rights education, law related education, multi-cultural education and peace education. Tabachnick (1991) seems to be referring to the two types of scope (dimension-based and concern-based) when he states: "Social Studies ought to be the most responsive to social conditions and social events, social transitions, confusions and conflict of interests in a community" (p. 726). Such

issues need to be explicitly and fully addressed in multidisciplinary contexts.

The various types of perspectives from which the scope of social studies is defined are not exclusive. They are interrelated and overlapping; they only provide alternative ways of answering the basic question "What content should be selected for study in social studies"? It could also be inferred from the foregoing that social studies does not have an easily apparent core content. This is because the flexible nature of the discipline allows a variety of subject areas and strategies to be employed in the explanation of issues and problems.

The apparently boundless nature exhibited by the scope of social studies has led some people to describe the subject in derogatory terms. In the words of Beard (1963) the scope of social studies is a "seamless web too large for any human eye" (p. 1). That seamless web still exists and will continue to exist for the human experience cannot be taught and comprehended through a single discipline or through the examination of a single facet of life. Barr et al (1977), unable to locate the core content of social studies remarks, in exasperation, that the subject is "a schizophrenic bastard child" (p. 1). Mehlinger and Davis Jnr. (1981) admit that the broad field of social studies has ascribed social importance, but add that the subject "lacks a consistently discernible heart" (p. 204).

It is incumbent on each social studies educator to explore and assess the nature and implications of each strand of scope, taking cognisance of the fact that the prime consideration in selecting

79

content for a programme is the extent to which it promotes the desired objectives and represents the desired emphases within the goals of that programme. In reaching these decisions three factors are particularly relevant:

- the level and needs of the target learners
- the needs of the local community and of society generally;
- the nature of social studies as a curriculum area and range of objectives that social studies is expected to serve.

3.4 Attributes

One distinctive characteristic of social studies that emerges from the definitions and statements of purpose of social studies by the various writers already referred to in this work is that the subject is integrated in nature. In fact integration' appears to be the catch word used by most writers to describe the inter-, multi- and trans-disciplinary nature of social studies (cf. Barr et al, 1977, Barth, 1983). So critical is the concept of integration to the understanding of social studies that Tamakloe (1991, p. 43) regards it as the "pith and core of social studies". However, the different meanings imputed to the word makes Michaelis (1968) hazard the fear that unless the meaning of integration as used to describe the nature of social studies is clarified the subject might erroneously be "interpreted by some individuals to mean a mish mash of socially oriented material that lacks structure and is not rooted in basic disciplines" (p. 2).

The various dimensions of the "complex notion" of integration have been treated extensively in curriculum literature (see, for

example, Glatthorn and Foshay, 1991; Taba, 1962; Tyler, 1949). The general consensus is that integration calls for some form of blending, fusion, convergence or unification of disciplines and curricular elements. Integration breaks the artificial wall of partition between and among disciplines so that each one makes inroads into the territory of others for, as Farrant (1982) puts it, "any pursuit of learning that tries to restrict such interaction soon becomes sterile and dead" (p. 132). Young students in their natural learning situations do not compartmentalise knowledge into subjects. Their knowledge is the outcome of innumerable experiences, each contributing some new features to what they know. This is achieved through integration.

It should be borne in mind that the object of integration, particularly as applied to social studies, is not merely to create learning experiences that demonstrate the relationships of the disciplines but, more importantly, to address problems, issues, topics and phenomena, intelligently and holistically to help students create meaning and order out of the world in which they find themselves. This is achieved by drawing on concepts, ideas, principles, generalizations, theories, skills and methodologies from many areas of study. Uche (1982) captures part of the issue when he states that integration attempts to create units of understanding that consist of integrated materials of instruction from several related disciplines"in order to present a whole picture of a phase of knowledge rather than just a part"(p. 6). Such is the essential nature of social studies.

Social Studies by its integrated nature, therefore, attempts to fulfill the principle of gelstalt psychology in that it places emphasis on the presentation of knowledge as a whole rather than in separate watertight compartments. The 'pigeonholing' of knowledge is thought to retard rather than promote the comprehension of issues, problems or phenomena, more especially with regard to the young student. It is also believed to detach the pupils from experiencing real world situations.

Again, social studies places emphasis on the development of the pupil's ability to inquire, investigate and discover. "The 'Enquiry Approach' is therefore a very highly recommended method for handling social studies lessons" (G.E.S. 1987, pp. 2 - 3). This emphasis on inquiry is based on the assumption that maximum learning takes place when students are actively involved in the teaching-learning situation. Social Studies encourages active, interactive and participatory learning in which the learner is personally involved. Furthermore, in social studies, passive and uncritical acceptance and memorisation of teacher-presented ideas and conclusions by learners is frowned upon. Instead, content knowledge is treated as the means through which open and vital questions may be explored and confronted by students.

In this connection the teacher's role changes from the traditional ultimate 'giver of knowledge' to a guide, director, facilitator and motivator. Lindquist (1995) puts it apositely thus:

> [Social Studies] teachers, at last, are no longer expected
> to be the font of all knowledge. Instead we are
> becoming facilitators. guides, managers, mentors and
> fellow learners. We share in the discourse of the
> classroom, enjoy the hunt for knowledge, and celebrate
> as our efforts culminate into a personal "whole" for
> each learner (p. 5).

This view is given cedence by Michaelis (1968) in his comparison of the learner's and teacher's role in inquiry:

> The student's stance should be that of the searcher and the
> investigator... The teacher's role varies from that of director
> of instructions to arranger of opportunities for independent
> investigation on the part of students (pp. 16 - 17).

The student searches and investigates using all available sources of data to enable him answer questions, test hypotheses, check conclusions and extend or delimit generalisations. The teacher directs his pupils into the type of situations that raises their curiosity and prompts them into seeking explanation and solution to questionable situations and phenomena.

The corollary of actively engaging students in the teaching - learning process through inquiry is that learning extends to the world beyond the classroom. This makes social studies a subject that "seeks to break the traditional two-by-four type of education where it is limited to the two ends of the textbook and the four corners of the classroom" (Tamakloe, 1991, p. 43). Teachers are to regard the environment of the pupil as the "textbook" for learning social studies. Every theme needs to be directed and related to some problem or

83

issue of society and students motivated to identify themselves with such issues and voluntarily seek solutions to them.

3.5 Social Studies and Social Science

With the introduction of social studies as a curriculum area into the education system of most countries confusion, ensuing in conflict, seem to have arisen in connection with the usage of the terms 'social studies' and 'social science' (It is perhaps necessary to point out that in the school system social science antedates social studies). On the African scene the conflict was reflected in the negative reactions from some social science scholars to the introduction of social studies in the curriculum of their schools and some of the derogatory names given to social studies. In Kenya, for instance, social studies was labelled Geography, History and Civics (G.H.C.) Combined when it was reductantly accepted after a protracted period of resistance (Shuindu, 1988). In Ghana, the General Arts programme of the senior secondary school has social studies and social science subjects like economics, geography and government as components. In the University of Cape Coast, besides the Bachelor of Arts (Social Sciences) programme offered in the Faculty of Social Sciences, the Department of Arts and Social Sciences Education (DASSE) in the Faculty of Education also offers Bachelor of Education (Social Sciences) and Bachelor of Education (Social Studies) programmes. The question often asked by students, and sometimes teachers, at both levels is "How different is social studies from social science?" This concern and how it may consequently affect the teaching and learning of social studies as an

integrated field of study, makes it imperative to attempt an examination of the relationship between the two areas of study in this work.

3.5.1 What are the Social Sciences

Wesley and Wronski (1964) define the social sciences as "scholarly materials about human beings and their interrelations" (p. 3). It could be observed that Wesley and Wronski take quite a catholic and inclusive approach in their definition and their view is so embracing that it could easily "allow one to accommodate almost any of the various aims and contents proposed for social studies education and call the result simplified social science" (Fullinwider, 1991, p. 19).

For Dare (1992) the social science subjects derive their label from two basic characteristics which they possess: "they deal with social phenomena, and use the scientific method" (p. 237). Thus, to be considered a social science subject, the processes of science must be present. This means that much of the emphasis will be on incorporating the application of science as a way of studying social phenomena and the human experience. Considerable attention will also be devoted to helping learners develop the skills that social scientists use to produce and validate knowledge.

Martorella (1994) also admits that the social sciences have a focus on understanding and explaining human behaviour and use the scientific method but adds other attributes such as systematic collection and application of data; use of both quantitative and qualitative methods; prediction of patterns of behaviour; concern for

verification of data, and concern for objectivity. In the main, these features are elements of the scientific method, also called social inquiry or social science inquiry (Banks, 1990; Dare, 1992). But they should not be taken as being exclusive to social science. They are skills needed and in fact are also used in social studies. The consequential question then is "What circumstances have tended to set the social sciences apart from social studies, especially in educational institutions where the two areas of study are pursued"?

3.5.2 Difference Between Social Science and Social Studies

Each social science discipline offers a different perspective from which to examine the human or social experience. This unique perspective is obtained by fragmenting the social system to facilitate its study. Economics, for example, studies social reality from the point of view of how humans use the relatively limited resources to satisfy apparently unlimited wants. On the other hand, social studies focuses on a certain social phenomenon and the processes used to study that phenomenon, not the disciplinary label we might attach to it (Banks, 1990; Dare 1992; Welton and Mallan, 1988)

It is also claimed that the basic concern of social science disciplines is to generate knowledge in the form of facts, concepts, generalisations and theories, which they organise and disseminate. Their goal is to accumulate and augment the reservoir of knowledge. This is what Shaver (1967) seeks to put across when he argues that the social scientists "commitment is to adequate description, not to application in practical circumstances" (p. 596). In social studies the interest is in how the knowledge derived by the social scientist can

be used to solve problems and make decisions. As Saxe (1991) points out, "The initial use of and sharpening of the term `Social Studies` was directly tied to the utilization of social science data as a force in the improvement of human welfare" (p. 17).

Shaver (1967) also contends that social scientists give inadequate attention to the feeling, humanistic elements of citizenship, and to the needs of ethical decision making that go beyond scientific empiricism. What Shaver means is that in the social sciences the influence of values in shaping the human experience appears to be de-emphasised. This point strikes a note of attention. In an age when one of the hall-marks of academic respectability of a particular way of explaining the human experience is the dosage of `scientific` element it contains, almost every discipline is being "sciencised" in a sense. Thus, most social scientists have felt an urge to make their discipline more scientific so as to compete favourably with the growing knowledge and prestige of the physical sciences. This emphasis is often interpreted as requiring strict neutrality regarding moral values. Social scientists thus tend or rather want to be objective and "value-free". On the other hand, social studies, by the nature of its content, is value laden and deals with controversial issues. One cannot understand the human condition without considering the role of individual and societal values in the evolution of human history (Merryfield and Remy, 1995).

Examining the place of values in social sciences, Morrissett (1991) notes that many social scientists are not primarily or

exclusively researchers but are teachers who have concern for the welfare of their students. Such people have a commitment to moral values related to their disciplines and to practical applications of their disciplines for social purposes. He consequently advocates for a cooperative rather than competitive and confrontational relationship between social scientists and social studies educators at all levels of education.

Distinguishing between social studies and social sciences is not really the academic hairsplitting it might seem, for the two terms describe quite different programmes. In educational circles it appears more convenient to introduce social studies in the curriculum of young pupils rather than separate social science subjects like economics, geography and history so as to enable learners appreciate, at an early age, the multi-dimensional nature of the problems of society. However, as pupils ascend the educational ladder they could be introduced to the concepts and principles of the separate social science subjects to enable them deepen their comprehension of the problems of society (Dare, 1992). If social sciences are "one-eyed" disciplines, social studies is a "multi-eyed" field of study.

3.6 The Three-Year Post-Secondary Teacher Training Colleges Social Studies Syllabus

It is expected or required of an evaluator to give a sufficiently detailed description of a programme being evaluated, highlighting the programme's major features and intrinsically evaluating them. This section seeks to fulfill this requirement. The Social Studies Syllabus

which is the main document describing the programme is reproduced in full in Appendix F. Here, only the most important characteristics and, more importantly, the principles suggested for implementing the programme are examined.

3.6.1 Aims and Objectives

Statements of objectives for use in the organisation of learning and teaching have traditionally been directed to either the learner or the teacher. However, many curriculum developers eschew objectives which are directed to the teacher because of the drawbacks which they think are inherent in an objective so stated. Tyler (1949) explains:

> Since the real purpose of education is not to have
> the instructor perform certain activities but to bring
> about significant changes in the students' patterns
> of behaviour, it becomes important to recognise
> that any statement of objectives of the school should
> be a statement of changes to take place in students
> (p.44).

Mager (1962) subscribes to the above view and adds that statements of such learner-focused objectives should specify what the learner must be able to do, the context in which he/she must do it and how well it should be done.

In the 1988 and 1993 editions of the syllabus, the aim of the TTC social studies programme is stated. However, the general objectives of the programme are only stated in the 1988 edition of the syllabus. Apart from the general objectives of the programme as a

89

whole, specific objectives are stated for each of the sections of the 'content' area. Such content-area objectives are found in only the 1993 edition of the syllabus. In both syllabuses, however, no objectives are stated for the units in the 'Principles and Methods' section.

In the introductory section of the syllabuses the aim of the programme is stated thus:

> (To) help the teacher trainees to be equipped with both the subject content, the professional knowledge and skills that will enable them to handle confidently the Social Studies Programme at the basic level of education (GES, 1988, 1993, p.1).

Particularly, the programme seeks to effect a change in the attitudes and values of the teacher trainees so that they can induce similar affective change in their pupils. General objectives (these are relatively more specific) geared towards the achievement of the major aim are reproduced in Appendex E. Two of such objectives will serve the purpose of illustration:

> i) Acquire basic knowledge in the social subjects of geography history, economics, and other related subjects with a view to teaching social studies effectively in the First Cycle Institutions

> ii) Develop an awareness of the nature of the immediate and wider environment.

Examples of objectives stated for the unit 'Map Reading, Map Interpre-tation and Statistical Mapping' are:

> At the end of the study, the learner should be able to

> i) acquire the basic skills in map reading;

ii) apply the basic skills to actual map reading;

iii) identify features represented on maps in the field;

iv) represent data diagramatically.

From the above examples, and throughout the syllabus, there is ample evidence that only a few of the objectives have been stated so specifically as to indicate how the students are to behave; nor do any of the objectives indicate students' level of performance, nor the conditions under which the students are to perform their educational tasks. The objectives are stated in general terms and only indicate loosely or generally the purpose for engaging the students in certain types of learning. This statement of objectives in general terms has two implications. On the one hand, it allows the students to perform activities which demand, mainly, the use of the inquiry method which is an important cornerstone on which the social studies programme thrives. On the other hand, the nature of the objectives places the burden on the teacher's experience in structuring specific objectives that help to determine how the students are to behave, their level of performance and the conditions under which the students are to achieve the objectives. In sum, though the objectives of the programme address the needs of teachers who are being trained to operate at the basic education level, the nature of the objectives makes them less useful for instructional purposes, especially in the hands of non-professional teachers.

3.6.2 Content

In this section content is being used to refer to "what should be taught". Selection of content for an instructional programme depends

ii) apply the basic skills to actual map reading;

iii) identify features represented on maps in the field;

iv) represent data diagramatically.

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3.6.2 Content

In this section content is being used to refer to "what should be taught". Selection of content for an instructional programme depends

on many factors. One most important factor is the value which society places on the knowledge, skills and attitudes to be acquired by the learner. Another factor is the nature and scope of the various disciplines. From the literature reviewed in earlier sections of this chapter, a number of attributes of social studies can serve as useful guide in the selection of numerous units of content for the programme. Some of these attributes include the fact that the subject integrates various subject areas; that it places emphasis on the presentation of knowledge as a whole; that it aims at equipping learners with worthwhile knowledge, useful skills and desirable attitudes to make them reflective and concerned social thinkers and actors. It is against these determinants that the content of the social studies syllabus will be examined.

Basically, the syllabus has two sections, namely, 'Content Material' and 'Principles and Methods'. Content material is arranged in sections to correspond with the structure of the final examination, that is, Section A: Map Work; Section B: Ghana; Section C: West Africa; Section D: Africa and the World. Topics for these sections are selected from the subjects of geography, economics, history and related subjects. In fact, the topics fall neat within subject boundaries and suggest no evidence of integration. Again, a disproportionately large part of the material deals with geography topics. This is perhaps to authenticate the view of the designers of the syllabus that "Geography is the basis of social studies" (G.E.S. 1993, p.12).

The Principles and Methods section deals with the philosophy and scope of social studies as well as critical skills and strategies for teaching the subject. The two sections of the 'content' correspond with the external examination structure produced by the examining body, the Institute of Education, University of Cape Coast.

Because the programme was drawn for use all over the country, the designers were cautious not to make the units and the sub-units too specific to render them parochial. Instead, the types of units and sub-units included in the programme are such that they can be taught conveniently and effectively in any locality. Another feature of the content of the programme which allows for flexibility is that though the units are organised under Year One, Year Two and Year Three, they are designed to permit treatment in any order that suits the teacher.

However, as indicated earlier on, the discipline-bound nature of the units implies that tutors who are employed to teach social studies in the colleges should be people who have either read social studies as a course or any of the separate social science subjects. In particular, as the designers of the programme rightly recommended, "every training college offering social studies should have a geography - biased tutor in order to cope with the syllabus" (G.E.S. 1993, p.12). With respect to the Principles and Methods section, any tutor who is not social studies-trained is not likely to find his/her feet.

3.6.3 Teaching-Learning Strategies

The syllabus contains general statements outlining the general strategies to be adopted in the handling of the programme as a whole.

Excerpts from the section where general strategies are stated will serve to illustrate their nature:

> It is important that the staff teaching social
> studies should plan, teach and evaluate the
> various aspects of the syllabus as a team working
> on the single subject (G.E.S.1993, p.1).

> As much as possible, emphasis should be laid
> on problem-solving and the inquiry or discovery
> approaches to learning. To give the student a wider
> scope and involvement, both the Content Material
> and the Principles and Methods should be integrated
> (G.E.S.1993, p.1).

> In view of the fact that the trend in social
> studies is practical-oriented, it is recommended
> that heads of institutions offering social studies
> should make it possible for the social studies
> department to embark on fieldwork (G.E.S.1993,p.12).

> Ideally, the teaching strategies to be imparted to the
> student as his tool for teaching social studies in the
> schools should be used by his tutor to give the student
> a practical illustration of what he is expected to do as a
> teacher (G.E.S. 1988, p.2).

It could be seen from the above statements that generally, specific strategies of instruction in the form of suggested activities, suggested questions to ask learners and notes to the teacher suggesting how the class should be organised, are not stated in the syllabus. Though methods such as inquiry, fieldwork and team teaching are indicated, they have not been particularly described and structured for use in the teaching of definite content areas or units. The implication is that tutors had to be those who are credited with adequate professional

competency or had to be well prepared through in-service courses in order to handle the programme effectively. Otherwise, it is desirable that specific statements concerning methods of teaching form an integral part of the syllabus. For both the experienced and inexperienced teacher the inclusion of such statements in the syllabus serve as reminders and also help considerably in the achievement of the stated objectives.

3.6.4 Teaching-Learning Resources

The syllabus recommends the provision of a social studies resource room well equipped and furnished in every TTC offering social studies.

Textbooks and syllabuses in use at the basic education level are also to be available in the college so that students could be introduced to them at the appropriate times during the course of their training.

The syllabus designers recognised the lack of textbooks and other teaching-learning materials relevant to the teaching and learning of social studies, and recommended that the G.E.S. take steps to produce or procure some for use in the college.

3.6.5 Assessment Procedures

Procedures and instruments for assessing the suitability or otherwise of an instructional programme or student performance are essential elements in any teaching-learning situation, in that their use provides data which shed light on teacher performance and learner achievement.

The syllabus states that students are to be assessed through continuous assessment of their general course work and individual projects as well as written examination. The continuous assessment is the internal assessment by the tutors while the written examination is the external assessment by the examining body, the Institute of Education. At the time of undertaking this study the continuous assessment weighted 30% instead of the former 40% while the external examination weighted 70% instead of 60% previously.

In the use of continuous assessment tutors are enjoined to adhere to all its conditions and requirements though these were not stated in the syllabus. The final written examination is supposed to be a reflection of the integrated approach.

Apart from the specifications above, the syllabus is silent on how the progress of the students in the affective domain can be accurately evaluated. Instruments for measuring students' attitudes and interests as well as other social characteristics like cooperation and tolerance are not stated. It is unfortunate that a programme that places premium on the development of attitudes and values should fail to make provision for measuring such outcomes. The tendency is that tutors would not emphasise affective outcomes in their teaching.

3.6.6 Time Allocation

Twenty-two (22) periods, each of 40 minutes duration, are allocated for social studies per week. The first and second years have 5 periods each week and 12 periods per week for the final year.

In all cases it is recommended that a larger part of the time be devoted to geography.

3.6.7 Teacher Quality and Professional Development

The designers of the programme envisaged that teachers who implement the programme be those "who are skilled in the teaching of each of the aspects" of the syllabus. Cognisant of the high dosage of geography content material in the syllabus, they recommended that "every training college offering social studies should have a geography-biased tutor in order to cope with the syllabus".

Finally, tutors are to be offered opportunity to upgrade their knowledge and skills in the teaching and learning of the subject through regular workshops and seminars.

To sum up this intrinsic evaluation of the syllabus, the analysis shows that the programme contains statements which specify its general purpose and the goals to be achieved in the programme as a whole. However, with the exception of a few units in the 'content material', no objectives are stated for each unit of content designed. If the tutors are to have a clear map of the purpose of their instructional programme, and what is to be achieved for each unit of content designed, it is essential to include in the programme aims and objectives to serve these respective ends.

The topics selected for study are conspicuously discipline-focused with a greater leaning towards geography and lend themselves to treatment via the separate-subject approach rather than the integrated approach. Statements about teaching strategies are vague in terms of what goes on in the classroom. Also, instructional resources are only recommended but not provided alongside the

programme. Finally, the syllabus does not contain any detailed statements with regard to assessment procedures and instruments.

If the designers of the programme were advocates of the distinction between a teaching syllabus and an examination syllabus, then they might have designed the social studies syllabus as an examination syllabus. In that case, they might have considered the specification of content and general objectives as the only vital components of a syllabus. Even so, this writer thinks that since the programme was a new one, it was essential to provide detailed guidelines with respect to objectives, content, teaching strategies and assessment procedures. This would help the tutors to translate the new implications effectively in practical terms. Again, since only a few of the tutors were likely to be offered in-service training for handling the programme, it was necessary to include sufficient safeguards that would help to obviate the shortcomings of the majority of the tutors who might not be fortunate to undergo any in-service training.

3.7   Summary and Implications for this Study

Social studies is an integrated field of study, drawing knowledge, methods, processes, skills and values from many disciplines, especially the social sciences. It has a major focus on the relationship that man establishes with his social and physical environments.

Pedagogically, the subject seeks to present knowledge to the learner in its wholeness so that he can critically and reflectively examine issues and policies from multidisciplinary perspectives. It

also requires that learners acquire appropriate skills and internalize desirable values and attitudes so that they can play useful roles in improving the welfare of the human society.

In achieving this the use of investigative, cooperative and interactive approaches to teaching and learning which tasks students' exploratory and critical thinking abilities, and takes them outside the confines of the classroom and limitations of the textbook are emphasised. The use of multi-media and multi-dimensional resources in the pedagogical processes is equally stressed.

The very nature and philosophy of social studies implies that the teacher who handles the subject at any level should adequately exemplify scholarly and professional competence so that given appropriate resources and adequate time frame, he can concoct a special mix of content and pedagogy to achieve desired objectives with learners possessing the requisite background knowledge, skills and experiences. But to what extent is this picture portrayed in the TTCs? The dimensions of this picture form the thrust of this study. They are unfolded and examined in chapters four, five and six.

CHAPTER FOUR
PREPARATION FOR IMPLEMENTING THE PROGRAMME

In the section on curriculum implementation in chapter two, the preparations which need to be made in order to ensure a successful implementation of a new instructional programme were discussed. In particular, the necessity for a tryout, a field trial and dissemination of the new programme prior to its implementation was stressed. Also crucial are the provision of requisite materials, equipment and facilities and the training of teachers. This present chapter presents the empirical data related to the above issues on the implementation of the social studies programme in the teacher training colleges (TTC).

4.1   Data

Data on provisions made for the implementation of the programme before it took off were obtained through interviews with the principals of three training colleges and discussions with eleven tutors who had been heads of the social studies department since the programme began in their colleges. Four of these tutors were members of the panel which wrote the first edition of the TTC social studies syllabus. Supplementary data were also gathered from souvenir brochures on some of the training colleges.

4.2   Formative Evaluation of the New Programme

As pointed out in chapter two, for any implementation of a new instructional programme to achieve a high degree of success, the programme should be tried as and when necessary in the classroom

situation at the level for which it is intended, during the process of its design. This kind of formative evaluation of the new programme is necessary in order to forestall or identify and solve the problems that might beset the process of nation-wide implementation of the programme. It is also to identify the conditions under which the new programme can be successfully implemented.

As far as the programme under study is concerned the evidence seems to suggest that no pre-implementation evaluation of the programme was undertaken. As one respondent explained, "The time factor did not allow any form of pilot testing of the new programme. In fact, it was not possible". Participants at the syllabus writing workshop which started in June 1987 were to complete their assignment for the programme to commence in September 1988. But the writing of the syllabus ended in August 1988 and was made available to most colleges in November the same year. Thus, there was little time for any form of trial of the programme.

Four respondents who participated in the writing of the syllabus gave reasons why the writing of the syllabus delayed. The highlights are that after the first session which lasted two weeks "we did not meet again until about four or five months later". At the same time most of the tutors engaged in the writing of the new syllabuses[1] were involved in Trainer of Teachers (TOT) courses in preparation for the launching of the new education reform.

This writer views the inability to try the new programme before its eventual implementation as a serious defect. Educationists like Stakes (1967) believe that education innovations should start

with research into the antecedent conditions because it is only such an approach that can validate any further preparatory steps that may be taken. Unfortunately, this need to start off an educational innovation with an evaluation of the antecedent conditions is often underestimated and underrated in Ghana. Lamenting over this neglect Quansah (1973) says:

> Evaluation, as a critical aspect of the educational process, has not received much attention in the Ghanaian educational system. This is mainly responsible for the nation having to spend between 20% - 22% of its annual budget on education without getting any commensurate returns (quoted by the Ministry of Education, 1990, p. 20).

In the absence of research as a starting point for curriculum development in Ghana, it is necessary that a newly developed instructional programme be purged and refined through a tryout and a field trial before it is fed into the entire education system. The neglect of this too would constitute an unpardonable flaw and might create problems for the new programme.

4.3   Dissemination

The need for an effective transmission of new educational ideas and practices from their point of production to all locations of potential implementation cannot be over emphasised. Such a strategy does not only promote acceptance of the new programme but also improves the quality of its implementation.

All the principals and heads of social studies departments involved in the study admitted having received some information

about the introduction of new subjects, including social studies, into the curriculum of the TTCs. One principal said: "We were told at a workshop in Cape Coast University that some colleges would offer group one electives,[2] others group two electives and others both groups of electives". A tutor also said: "We knew about the introduction of new curricula but I didn't know my school was selected for social studies". It would appear that all the colleges were informed of the introduction of social studies into the curriculum of TTCs. What seemed not clear was whether all colleges would offer social studies or only some and which ones. It is, therefore, no wonder that the 35 colleges offering social studies at the time of this research, started the programme at different times. In some colleges the first batch of social studies students started the programme in their second year. In O.L.A. Training College, for example, the first group of social studies students wrote their Final Examination in the subject "just a year and a half" after starting the programme (O.L.A. Training College Souvenir Brochure 1996, p. 78).

Beyond the communication of some sort of information about the new programme to the colleges, as noted above, respondents denied knowledge of the other components of the dissemination strategy such as translocation, animation and re-education (Rudduck and Kelly, 1976). For example, tutors were not informed of any type of retraining and in fact were not retrained for the new programme. In one college the head of department and one other tutor who started the programme were English and Psychology tutors respectively,

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The head of the social studies department of Komenda College, commenting on the problems which "initially militated against the smooth study of the subject", stated "lack of textbooks written in the integrated social studies form" as "a serious debilitating factor" (Komenda Training College, Souvenir Brochure, 1998, p. 54). The situation exemplified by the above statements appears to confirm the observation made by Merryfield and Muyanda-Mutebi (1991) that in Africa "most countries moved more quickly in telling teachers to teach social studies than in providing them the instructional materials with which to teach" (p. 625). In Ghana the designers of the teacher training college social studies programme noted the importance of instructional materials in the implementation of the programme and "recommended that the G.E.S. should do well to produce/procure relevant books and materials for use" (3-Year Post-Secondary Teacher Training College Social Studies Syllabus 1993, p. 12). To what extent this recommendation has been addressed will be examined in chapter six when the data on availability and adequacy of instructional resources is analysed.

4.5 Training of Teachers

The presence of able and progressive teachers adequately equipped professionally represent the main hope of achieving success in effecting educational reform (Ministry of Education, 1990). It is probably in recognition of this that Travaskis (1980) stated with such

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emphasis that "teaching the teachers would appear to be the most logical starting point of any educational system improvement" (p. 21). Such retraining serves many purposes. It creates a forum for the teachers' professional upliftment and motivates them. It also exposes teachers to the new ideas and methods and makes them more confident and independent in the implementation of the programme.

Rudduck (1974) shares similar views but cautions that teachers are unlikely to survive the demands of innovations unless they emerge from a training course feeling keen, determined and optimistic about their new roles. This may be taken to mean that the organisation of in-service courses for teachers by itself is not a guarantee for the successful implementation of the programme by the teachers. At best, such courses should be regarded as stimuli for teachers to renew their commitment to their job. The degree of the stimulation and the desire of teachers to work for success will depend, to a large extent, on the degree of motivation they are accorded during and beyond the retraining programme.

As indicated in section 4.1 of this chapter, eleven of the tutors involved in the study had been teaching social studies since the programme started in their colleges. All of them claimed they were not given any in-service training on the new programme before it took off in their colleges. Some of their responses are worth quoting:

Time was short and we only had to start something.
In fact there was no course for us.

Those in the basic schools attended some courses
on the teaching of the subject but there was no
course for those of us in the training colleges.

As far as I know, G.E.S. or Teacher Education
(Division) did not organise any training course for
teachers. But those of us who took part in the writing
of the syllabus regard the workshop as an in-service
course

.

The above responses suggest that little was done in the area of
preparing teachers for the programme. Thus, one of the problems
always stated by both students and teachers as affecting the teaching
of social studies in TTCs is the lack of teachers adequately trained
and equipped to teach the subject. A social studies subject panel
which reviewed the TTC Social Studies Syllabus published in 1988
recommended that workshops and seminars should be organised
regularly to upgrade social studies tutors' knowledge and skills in the
teaching and learning of the subject (Social Studies Subject Panel
Workshop Report, 1993). At the time of this research, not a single
such workshop had been organised since the recommendation was
made.

Research documents the severity of lack of training for
teachers and its possible relationship with their attitudes toward the
implementation of a programme, their use of instructional methods
and the status they accord a subject in schools and colleges
(Merryfield and Muyanda-Mutebi, 1991). These issues are
investigated in chapters five and six.

4.6 Summary

In the implementation of a new instructional programme certain measures are to be taken and certain facilities are to be put in place if the implementation is to achieve success. In the case of the TTC social studies programme the implementation appeared to have been in a rush. Important pre-implementation measures such as a tryout and a field trial of the new programme; dissemination of information about the programme; provision of needed instructional materials and re-training of teachers appear not to have been accorded the deserved attention.

Notes

1. New syllabuses were written for the new subjects being introduced,for example, social studies, life skills and cultural studies. Syllabuses for existing subjects such as education and mathematics were also being revised.

2. At the time of this research, the group 1 elective subjects were mathematics, agricultural science, technical skills and physical education. Group 2 elective subjects comprised Literature in English, social studies, vocational skills, French and life skills.

CHAPTER FIVE
THE CHARACTERISTICS OF THE IMPLEMENTERS

An instructional programme, no matter how laudable its objectives, how relevant its content, how learner-centred its activities, how logically and psychologically sequenced its content and learning experiences, and how valid and reliable its evaluation procedures and instruments, remains at best a lifeless document or mental design, if there are no teachers and learners to use it. The quality of teachers and learners, their perceptions about the various aspects and requirements of the programme and how they put the programme to use are crucial in determining the worth of the implementation process. In the present chapter the data related to these issues which were raised as questions in the introductory chapter, are discussed under the following topical headings:

(a)   Academic Background of Students

(b)   Academic and Professional Background of Tutors

(c)   Tutors and Students' Level of Clarity about Programme Characteristics

(d)   Importance Tutors and Students place on Programme Objectives, Content and Methods.

(e)   Attitudes of Tutors and Students towards the Programme

First, however, the data collection methods are described

5.1 Data

Data on academic background of students was obtained through questionnaire administered to 50 tutors, 180 students selected from three teacher training colleges (TTCs) which were chosen for case study, and interviews which were held with the principals of those three colleges. Data from the three sources were triangulated to yield the information presented and discussed in section 5.2.

Data on academic and professional background of tutors was obtained mainly through self-administered questionnaire and supplemented with data from the interviews with the principals. For data related to the other issues specified in the introduction to this chapter, the tutors' and students' questionnaires were the major sources.

The responses and codings for items eliciting the level of clarity of tutors and students about programme characteeristics are as follows: Very Clear 5, Clear 4, Fairly Clear 3, Partly Clear 2, and Not Clear 1. Similarly, the responses to items on the importance tutors and students placed on the major elements of the programme were designed on a five-point scale and coded Very Important 5, Important 4, Fairly Important 3, Somehow Important 2 and Not Important 1.

The attitudes of tutors and students towards the programme was gauged using a Likert-type sub-questionnaire, the responses to the items being coded Strongly Agree 5, Agree 4, Uncertain 3, Disagree 2 and Strongly Disagree 1, in the case of statements which

were positive. The negative statements were scored in the reverse order, following the suggestion by Oppenheim (1996).

5.2 Academic Background of Students

Students' previous scholarship, lifestyles, developmlental levels, cognitive styles, special needs and personal interests as well as experiences are crucial in teaching and learning. Good teachers use knowledge of their students' backgrounds to sequence; choose methods and materials; connect them to the topic under study; direct interests; build on previous knowledge and skills; and individualise the process of learning in order to help all students succeed (Merryfield and Remy, 1995). With regard to the academic background of students, Dare (1998) found a relationship between performance in First Year University Examination in economics and 'A' Level grade in economics. This finding could be true of social studies. The educational background of students prior to their admission into the TTCs as posited by their Senior Secondary School, 'O' Level or 'A' Level grades, was therefore investigated.

Eighty-one (45%) of the students entered the TTC with the senior secondary school certificate, 83 (46%) had the G.C.E. 'O' Level and 16 (9%) had 'A' Level. This means that all the students involved in the study had the minimum educational requirement for admission into the TTC.

Apart from passes in mathematics and English which are required of all students seeking admission to the TTC, the students' background in the subject components of social studies, that is, economics, geography, government and history, was also

111

investigated. This is presented in Table 5.1. The highest level to which students had studied each of the four subjects is also presented in Table 5.2.

Table 5.1 Students' Background in Social Studies Components

(N=180)

NO. OF SUBJECTS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
None	24	13.3
One	26	14.4
Two	63	35.0
Three	43	24.0
Four	24	13.3
Total	180	100.0

Table 5.2   Students' Level Of Study Of The Social

Studies Components (N = 180)

SUBJECT/LEVEL	S.S.S.	'O' LEVEL	A' LEVEL	NO.BACKGROUND
Economics	25*	39	13	23
Geography	23	21	6	50
Government	7	18	14	61
History	17	20	-	63

*Figures indicate percentages.

As shown in Table 5.1 more than 80 per cent of the students had passes in at least one of the subjects which are components of the scope of social studies. This meets the requirement of most

colleges that students selected for social studies must have obtained good grades overall and "at least grade E in Geography or History or Economics or Government... or more preferably any combination of these at school certificate level" (Komenda College Souvenir Brochure 1998, p. 54 and OLA Training College Souvenir Brochure 1996, p. 78). A few of the students (13.3%), however, had no background in any of the component subjects of social studies. These were students who had studied business subjects at the senior secondary school level. It is worthy of note here that the Senior Secondary School business programme does not include economics.

Though the generality of students met the subject requirements for studying social studies as demanded by the TTCs, there was not one subject in which all the students had some background. Particularly disturbing is the fact that half of the students had not studied geography, and more than 60% had no background in either history or government. This is a very serious situation. As indicated in chapter one, the programme designers regarded geography as the basis for social studies and accordingly injected a large dosage of geography topics into the 'content' section of the syllabus. History and Government topics follow in descending order of proportion. The implication then is that students entering the TTC to study social studies should also possess a more than average background in geography especially and history or government. Moreover, geography and history offer the perspectives of place and time and therefore provide the matrix or framework for social studies, a subject concerned with the human experience. It is thus an

unfortunate situation that majority of students in the programme had no background in the two subjects. This is likely to affect the importance they impute to topics in the syllabus related more to geography and history, their attitude to social studies and, consequently, their performance in the subject. Some of these issues will be examined at the appropriate points in the chapter. But it is important to indicate here the views of the tutors about the required and actual background of the students and how this affects the students' response and attitude to social studies lessons.

Most of the tutors (80%) felt that students admitted to study social studies.

- must have knowledge in all or at least two of the subjects which form   social studies
- must have a good background in basic geography
- must have knowledge in map reading and interpretation
- must have skills in simple calculations and sketching.

Other social competencies stated by a few tutors are ability to make friends easily, concern for others and activeness.

According to the tutors, many students did not possess the required academic background, especially in geography. Such students "complain about the course, especially the geography aspect"(15)[*] "do not welcome the teacher"(25), and "show unwillingness to answer questions in class"(38). On the other hand, students who had the requisite academic background show interest in the subject, find the course interesting and useful and participate fully during classes.

_____
[*] Serial number of questionnaire

114

5.3 Academic and Professional Background of Tutors

> The teacher's beliefs about schooling. his or her
> knowledge of the subject area and of available
> materials and techniques. how he or she decides
> to put these together for the classroom–out of that
> process of reflection and personal inclination comes
> the day-by-day classroom experiences of students.
> (Shaver. Davis and Helburn 1980. p. 5).

> The classroom teacher is the mediator of the
> curriculum. the one who makes decisions that
> profoundly influence what is actually taught
> (Parker. 1987 cited in Adler 1991. p. 210)

It appears to be virtually undisputed that the classroom teacher remains the most important cog in the wheel of implementing an instructional programme. More than any other factor teachers pull the parts of the instructional programme together for the learner. As the most vital single resource in the implementation process. the quality of the teacher becomes very crucial. This is what Hama (1998. p. 67) recognises when she states that "school effectiveness depends largely on teacher quality". And Byram. Goodings and McPartland (1982) do not miss the point when they argue that competent teachers through their good teaching can compensate for many other deficiencies in a school but ill-trained teachers by their poor teaching can render nugatory any other advantages.

The issue of teacher competence assumes more prominence in the area of social studies. The field of social studies is becoming pedagogically unmanageable on account of its integrated nature. and

yet is considered increasingly important in the preparation of future citizens who must address themselves to the challenges and responsibilities of modern society. The range of content, objectives, teaching-learning and assessment strategies as well as instructional materials in social studies all contain implications for the calibre of teacher needed to teach the subject.

Fenton (1967), in his discussion of the academic and professional competencies expected of the social studies teacher, lists three areas which should form the foci for the total preparation of the social studies teacher. These are general studies, professional education and subject specialisation. These three areas are also emphasised by the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) (1988) in its position in a paper 'Standards for Social Studies Teachers'. By general studies, Fenton means that because of the academic and professional confrontations required of social studies teachers, their training should be such as will enable them to break out of disciplinary encapsulations, certify and qualify them to teach at the level of the education system for which they are trained. General studies, he thinks, is also needed as a basis that enables the teacher to have feeling for or understanding of different modes of intellectual thought as they relate to various processes of living. In this regard the NCSS (1988) prescribes, though suggestive rather than definitive, rigorous introduction of prospective social studies teachers to the humanities and the social sciences, the physical sciences and the biological sciences.

The professional education dimension is supposed to focus on the theory and practice of social studies education. Here the courses of emphasis, according to Fenton and the N.C.S.S. should include educational psychology and learning theory; methods of teaching social studies; sociology of education; testing and evaluation; and student teaching interaction(s) which should form the bridge between theory and practice. The methods course, to Fenton, is "the single most important course, ... the prime candidate for the job" (Fenton 1967, p.112). He justifies the importance of such a course by arguing that questions pertaining to the objectives of social studies and how they differ from the goals of social science courses; methods of teaching implied by specific objectives; criteria for the selection of content; and other pedagogical details which other courses may have missed or have explored in isolation are all raised by the methods course. No doubt, these issues provide useful guides to social studies teacher educators in their designing of methods courses.

Concerning the subject specialisation component Fenton (1967, p.107) contends that all social studies teachers, irrespective of the level at which they operate, must have an extensive training in the content of "all the social sciences, not just one or two". The defence given to this apparently ambitious and impossible task is that without such background, social studies teachers

> cannot be expected to understand the structure of
> the social science disciplines, either their concepts
> or their proof processes, both of which play a central

117

> role in the new social studies. ...(Consequently they)
> will be unable to grasp a conceptual approach to the
> social studies and to communicate it to others (Fenton
> 1967, p.107).

However, as far as preparation in the social science subjects are concerned, the N.C.S.S. takes the position that what is needed by post-elementary school social studies teachers (for example, TTC tutors) is, first, basic introduction to all the disciplines and then close familiarity with the subject matter and modes of inquiry of three of them including specialisation with research experience in one.

Aggarwal (1982) groups the basic competencies of the social studies teacher into five scholarship, professional training, personality, teaching skills and human relations. Scholarship includes the acquisition of a sound knowledge of subjects which form the foundation of social studies, acquaintance with present-day problems and prolific reading of both professional and educational books and materials. Under professional training, Aggarwal seems to be more concerned with the outcome rather than the content of such training. He thus mentions a desire for improvement, which finds expression in reading professional and educational materials, and professional attitude.

The personality of social studies teachers, in the view of Centre (1981), includes their attitudes and values and the way in which these are manifested through what the teachers say and do These, Centre (1981, p 367) concludes, "are very significant in influencing student attitudes". Aggarwal (1982), therefore, specifies

three aspects of the social studies teachers' personality and exemplifies them as follows:

1. Physical aspects - those characteristics which give us our first impressions of individuals: eg, personal appearance, etiquette, good command of language, patience, and health.

2. Passive virtues - those virtues which attract us to those who possess them: eg, enthusiasm, fairness and friendliness.

3. Executive virtues - those abilities which are possessed by leaders and without which leadership is impossible: eg, initiative, organising ability, self- confidence and industry.

With regard to the teaching skills of the social studies teacher, Aggarwal lists class management, communication and use of teaching aids. The human relationships are those between the teacher and students, colleagues, school personnel, parents, administrators and professional bodies.

The type of social studies teachers Aggarwal seems to describe are those who are schooled in subject matter, practised in the arts of pedagogy, attuned to the needs of students, and alive to the interplay of theory and practice in everything they do. These are the professionals who can lead the way in formulating and confronting the great social and educational questions of the day.

Shulman (1987a) identifies seven types of knowledge relevant to teacher competence in social studies. The categories are:

1. Content knowledge - the most recent knowledge in the discipline as well as its history and philosophy, including

schools of thought   and how the knowledge base of the disciplines informs or is informed by other disciplines and fields.

2.   General pedagogical knowledge - a generic set of principles and strategies for organising and managing classrooms.

3.   Curriculum knowledge - including the various programmes and materials relevant to social studies

4.   Pedagogical content knowledge - how teachers blend content and pedagogy to determine the most effective means to teach particular topics   or   problems   consistent   with   students' interests and abilities. This expresses the teacher's special form of professional understanding.

5.   `Knowledge of learners and their characteristics.

6.   Knowledge of educational contexts, which includes group and classroom behaviour, school culture and organisation, and community and national cultural patterns.

7.   Knowledge of educational ends, including educational values and   the   historical   and   philosophical   grounds   for   their development.

Other writers have offered related lists on the qualifications of social studies teachers (Engle and Ochoa, 1988; Torney-purta, 1991; Martorella, 1994). The general conclusion that can be drawn from these lists including those that have been reviewed is that social studies teachers must possess both academic and professional qualifications in their field. Academically, they need broad and deep knowledge of the subject content of social studies. This requires that

they should have a strong background in all the social science subjects - geography, economics, sociology, history, etc. - which form the foundational disciplines of social studies. They need more than a passing familiarity with their basic concepts, skills, principles, generalisations, theories and language.

Their professional preparation should acquaint them with the history and philosophy of social studies, sharpen their tools in pedagogy and enable them to acquire scientific tools so that they can look at their subject from a scientific perspective. It should also groom them in the concepts, content, skills and methods of the subject so that they can select useful content, appropriate teaching-learning strategies, purposeful activities and meaningful problems to guide the teaching-learning enterprise and also develop the right kind of attitude towards the subject. In addition, competencies in creating democratic classroom atmosphere, in communication skills, and in skills of inter-personal relationships should not be compromised. Undoubtedly, these characteristics can be acquired through a well-planned and structured pre-service or in-service training.

Guided by the above premise, the nature of the TTC social studies syllabus and the principles suggested for its implementation, and cognisant of the Ministry of Education's (M.O.E.) and Ghana Education Service's (G.E.S.) requirement for teaching in the post-secondary TTCs, the study investigated the competence of social studies tutors using the following criteria:

121

1   Professional teaching qualification of at least a diploma in education (Dip. Ed)

2.   Professional training in social studies methods at least to a diploma level either through pre-service or in-service courses.

3.   Academic qualification in at least two of the following subjects: -geography, economics, history and government[1] to a diploma level.

The first specification is the current MOE and GES basic requirement for teaching in a post-secondary TTC[2]. The second criterion would equip a teacher to handle the 'Principles and Methods' portion of the TTC social studies syllabus effectively. Finally, the academic qualification is needed to enable a teacher teach the 'Content' aspect of the syllabus.

As indicated earlier on, 50 tutors were involved in the study. Forty-three (86%) were males and 7 (14%) were females. They were aged between 26 years and 60 years with most of them within the ranks of senior superintendent and principal superintendent. Thirty (60%) had taught social studies at the TTC level for 1 - 5 years and 20 (40%) had taught the subject for 6 - 10 years.

5.3.1 Professional Teaching Qualification

The teaching qualification of tutors was investigated to find out whether they qualified to teach in the TTC in the first place. The data gathered on this is presented in Table 5.3 Data in Table 5.3 shows that with the exception of 10 (20%) tutors, all the others had the requisite professional qualification for teaching in the TTC. It could be assumed, therefore, that such qualified tutors were at home

with general methods of teaching. But the same supposition cannot be made with respect to their competence in social studies methods since "because of its integrated nature, the methods that are employed in social studies are not only varied but also eclectic" (Tamakloe 1991, p. 48).

It sounds rather surprising that ten tutors were teaching in the TTC without possessing the minimum teaching qualification for that level of the education system. They were there because of their academic qualification. As one principal said, referring to one of her social studies tutors who did not possess the requisite teaching qualification

> I know he is not qualified to teach here but if I don't take him, the economics component of the syllabus will not be taught. And yet, my students will meet questions in economics during their final examinations (Interview, 18th May, 1998).

Another principal expressed the same feeling thus:

> Actually they don't qualify but without them the programme cannot go on. How many [professionally] qualified teachers have studied social studies? Even those who know social studies do not go to the classroom (Interview, 1st June, 1998).

The point that the two statements above convey is the acute lack of suitably qualified social studies teachers at the TTC level. Part of this problem could be explained with reference to teacher deployment. Appropriate deployment of social studies teachers after their education is very essential. As Thompson (1985) cautions, much of the value of careful selection and training may be lost if staff

are not efficiently utilised. Efficient deployment involves, among other things, posting the teachers to the right type of educational institution where their services would be most needed and utilised. It is also worth noting that tutors without the requisite teaching qualification cannot behave in accordance with the code of ethics of the teaching profession.

Table 5.3   Teaching Qualification of Tutors

QUALIFICATION	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Diploma in Education (non-social studies)	17	34.0
Post-graduate Diploma in Education (non-social studies)	6	12.0
Bachelor in Education (non-social studies)	1	2.0
Diploma in Education (Social studies)	5	1 0.0
Bachelor in Education (social studies)	11	22.0
None	10	20.0
Total	50	100.0

5.3.2 Professional Training In Social Studies Methods

It is discernible from Table 5.3 that only 16(32%) of the tutors had had professional social studies education. These were the few who had undergone formal education in social studies, five to a

diploma level and 11 to a bachelor's degree level. The question that readily comes to mind is how could the rest, 34(68%) organise learning activities and materials effectively to teach social studies in a manner consistent with the spirit and purpose of the subject. Perhaps they would feel that since they had, for a long time, been teaching the subject, they had become conversant with its methods. But this will depend on whether they had undergone any in-service training in connection with social studies teaching.

Eleven tutors claimed to have attended one such course in 1993. The course which lasted three days was said to have been on "General Discussion on Effective Teaching and Learning of Social Studies". Other sources indicate that the said course was a workshop organised to review the 1988 syllabus, and it was attended by 15 tutors. These tutors constitute less than a third of the total number of tutors involved in this study. Further evidence will be sought when the data on teachers' use of recommended methods is analysed in a later section. But it is important to indicate here that in the education of social studies teachers, a course that addresses the methods of teaching the subject is regarded as a special feature (Adler, 1991). As already indicated, the integrated nature of the subject calls for the use of teaching methods which are not only varied but also eclectic. "On account of these the teacher has to be grounded in a variety of teaching methods and strategies if he is to be effective" (Tamakloe 1991, p. 48). A course in methods helps the teacher to develop a definition of social studies, an understanding of its goals and objectives, a knowledge of major concepts and how

they are to be sequenced, and be aware of appropriate methods of evaluation (Skeel, 1981). It also equips the teacher with the skill to correlate and integrate knowledge. The lack of professional education in social studies methods among majority of the tutors, therefore, constitutes a great weakness in the implementation of the programme.

5.3.3 Academic Qualification

It is important to state at the beginning of this section that 'academic qualification' as used in this work refers to qualification in subject areas other than 'education'. Fourteen (28%) of the tutors had academic qualifications to a diploma level, 35 (70%) to a bachelor's degree level and one (two per cent) to a master's degree level.

But the major concern of the research as far as academic qualification is concerned, was to find out if tutors possessed adequate knowledge in, at least, two of the social studies subject areas. The item used to elicit this information required tutors to indicate the highest level to which they had studied economics, geography, government and history. The responses are presented in Table 5.4. Forty-five (90%) of the tutors had studied economics, at least, to the specialist or diploma level. In geography the number of tutors who had diploma/specialist or degree qualifications is thirty-one (62%). An insignificant number, two (4%), had studied government and 15 (30%) had studied history to a degree level.

In Table 5.5 the number of tutors who had at least, a diploma or specialist qualification in one or two of the social studies subject areas is also shown.

Table 5.4 Tutors' Highest Qualification In Social Studies Subject Areas

LEVEL	ECONS.	GEO.	GOV'T	HIST.	SOC.
'O' Level	-	10.0*	10.0	20.0	-
'A' Level	10.0	20.0	40.0	-	-
Specialist/Diploma	40.0	-	-	-	-
Bachelors Degree	50.0	60.0	4.0	30.0	34.0
Master's Degree	-	2.0	-	-	-
No Qualification	-	8.0	46.0	50.0	66.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

*Figures indicate percentage

Table 5.5 Number of Tutors with Specialist/Diploma or Degree Qualification in Social Studies Subject Areas

SUBJECT	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Economics Only	34	68.0
Geography Only	20	40.0
Government Only	2	4.0
History Only	10	20.0
Sociology Only	-	-
Economics and Geography	3	6.0
Economics and Sociology	8	16.0
Geography and Sociology	6	12.0
Geography and History	2	4.0
History and Sociology	3	6.0

A greater proportion, 62 per cent, of the tutors had studied geography to, at least, the diploma/specialist level. However, the geography - biased nature of the syllabus and the consequent recommendation by the designers that "every training college offering social studies should have a geography - biased tutor in order to cope with the syllabus" (G.E.S. 1993, p. 12), makes this number relatively inadequate. Also considering the proportion of history and/or government topics in the syllabus, the number of tutors with the requisite qualification in history (30%) and government (four per cent) is lower than expected. Judging by the criterion used in this study, one can conclude tentatively that the academic background of tutors is not satisfactory, for less than half of the tutors, that is 22 (44%) had at least a diploma/specialist qualification in two of the social science subject areas. On the basis of the data, the suspicion could be raised that in most of the colleges many topics in the syllabus, especially those related to geography, history and/or government, would either not be taught at all or would be taught ineffectively.

As a further means to ascertain the academic and professional competence of tutors, they were asked to rate their training with respect to specific competencies in social studies. The competencies and means of the rating are shown in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6 Tutors' Assessment of Their Training in Relation to Social Studies Competencies

COMPETENCIES	MEAN	COMMENT
Knowledge and application of skills and special methods of teaching social studies	2 12	Inadequate
Understanding of the influence of society on the social studies curriculum and of social studies on society	2 40	Inadequate
Understanding of the ways children,adolescent and older students learn social studies	3 50	Fairly Adequate
Knowledge of the history, philosophy and purpose of social studies education in Ghana	2 36	Inadequate
Using audio-visual aids (eg charts, radio, pictures, etc.) to teach social studies	3 16	Fairly Adequate
Knowledge and use of appropriate procedures to assess students' learning in (a) the cognitive domain	4 58	Very Adequate
(b) the affective domain	2 18	Inadequate
(c) the psychomotor domain	2 40	Inadequate

COMPETENCIES	MEAN	COMMENT
Exposure to all aspects of the 3-Year Post-Secondary Social Studies Syllabus	2.68	Fairly Adequate
Knowledge of general social and environmental issues	3.92	Adequate
Knowledge of economics topics in the syllabus	3.54	Fairly Adequate
Knowledge of geography topics in the syllabus	3.56	Adequate
Knowledge of government topics in the syllabus	2.04	Inadequate
Knowledge of history topics in the syllabus	2.42	Inadequate
Grand Mean	2.92	Fairly Adequate

Rating: 1.00 - 1.50 Very Inadequate; 1.60 - 2.50 Inadequate; 2.60 - 3.50 Fairly Adequate; 3.60 - 4.50 Adequate; 4.60 - 5.00 Very Adequate.

With respect to knowledge of the history, philosophy and purpose of social studies education in Ghana; the mutual influence of society and the social studies curriculum on each other; and the application of skills and special methods of teaching social studies, the tutors felt their training was inadequate. This corroborates the findings of a similar study conducted by the Kenya Institute of Education (1983)

in which 76 per cent of the tutors surveyed were not familiar with the philosophy of the social studies programme they were implementing. The implication is that such teachers cannot formulate instructional objectives and design learning experiences that are congruent with the spirit and purpose of the subject. Neither can they relate their teaching of social studies to issues and problems of society to make what students learn relevant and functional.

Another area where the tutors thought their training was inadequate was knowledge and use of appropriate procedures and instruments to assess the affective and psychomotor outcomes of students' learning. This constitutes a big deficiency because in social studies, affective change is the overriding purpose. The Ghana Education Service (1993) cogently states it this way:

> Our goal in teaching social studies in the teacher
> training colleges should be to help students to
> acquire knowledge and to effect a change in their
> attitudes and values in their society and their
> environment (p. 1).

If teachers do not know how to assess learning outcomes in the affective category, then it is doubtful whether they can teach to bring about changes in students' attitudes, values, interersts and appreciations.

The tutors also felt their exposure to the social studies syllabus was fairly adequate. This could be explained by their long experience in teaching the subject. However, judging from their

inadequate training in most of the competencies specified (mainly drawn from the syllabus), one is inclined to think that the tutors understood exposure to mean mere awareness of the things in the syllabus. As regards understanding the ways children, adolescents and older students learn social studies, as well as using audio-visual materials to teach social studies, the mean (3.50 and 3.16 respectively) indicate "Adequate Preparation". These are issues which are taught in professional education courses and the tutors who had professional teaching qualification (80%) are naturally expected to know them. In the case of topics related to the subject areas of social studies the data proves that tutors' knowledge of the history and government topics was inadequate but they had a fairly adequate knowledge of the other topics.

In the overall rating of their training as tutors in relation to the social studies competencies specified, the tutors' training as indicated by the grand mean, was "Fairly Adequate".

Recalling that only 32 per cent of the tutors had had pre-service professional education in social studies (Table 5.3) and were therefore conversant with issues related to the history, philosophy and teaching of the subject, and that less than half of the tutors had, at least, a diploma or specialist qualification in two of the social studies subject areas (Table 5.4); and juxtaposing this information with the fact that the tutors rated their training as only fairly adequate for the teaching of the subject, it could be concluded that the professional and academic background of the tutors are inadequate for the implementation of the programme. This conclusion appears

consistent with tutors' responses to an item which inquired from them to indicate whether their education adequately prepared them to teach social studies at the TTC. Twenty (40%) of the tutors responded 'Yes'; ten (20%) responded 'No' and 20 (40%) gave no response. The conclusion also confirms the findings of a study by Tamakloe (1988) in which heads of TTC's in Ghana ranked social studies in the lower third in the category of important subjects and ascribed the relatively unimportant status of social studies to lack of competent tutors. The same finding appears in studies on social studies carried out in other parts of Africa (Odada, 1988; Osindi, 1982; Obebe, 1981; Shiundu, 1980). Thus, Merryfield and Muyanda-Mutebi (1991) after reviewing the research on social studies in Africa conclude that one of the most critical problems facing social studies in Africa is the lack of social studies-trained teachers.

In Ghana, one cause of the problem, as indicated earlier in this chapter, seems to be inefficient deployment of teachers. Until 1998 when the Ghana education Service began giving out posting forms to students who were completing degree programmes, teachers who had been sponsored by G.E.S. to undertake degree courses had to find employment themselves and most of them sought places outside the chalk fraternity. Thus, although the University of Cape Coast and the University College of Education, Winneba, started training social studies teachers since the 1988/89 academic year[3], the training colleges still do not have well-qualified social studies teachers.

Other factors such as insufficient support services might have added to the problem.

5.4 Tutors and Students' Level of Clarity about Characteristics of the Programme

One of the factors which Fullan (1991) identifies as affecting the implementation of an instructional programme is the implementers' level of understanding about the programme's features. According to him "the degree of clarity on the part of people attempting something new is related to the degree of change in practice which occurs" (p. 380) In other words, the extent of understanding that implementers have about an innovation impacts on how they tackle the process of the innovation. Fullan, therefore, recommends that in evaluating implementation, this factor of clarity should be included in the evaluation design.

Evidence from studies in some African countries demonstrates that

> those persons most directly responsible for
> the implementation of a social studies program,
> teachers and teacher educators, are not clear
> about its meaning and how it differs from the
> separate subjects of geography, history and
> civics (Merryfield and Muyanda-Mutebi, 1991, p. 623).

Is the situation quoted above true of social studies tutors in TTC in Ghana? To answer this question tutors and students were requested to indicate how clear various characteristics of the social studies programme were to them. The results as presented in Table 5.7

shows that in general, the characteristics of the programme were "Fairly Clear" to both tutors and students. The levels of clarity assigned to specific characteristics, however, need comment. Apart from procedures for assessing students' progress in the affective and psychomotor domains which many tutors said were not clear to them, the other aspects of the programme seemed fairly clear to respondents. This is unlike the situation which existed in Uganda where 75 per cent of 60 teacher training college tutors surveyed in 1984 claimed "complete ignorance" of social studies and regarded it as "a vague and undeveloped subject that had no experts to explain all that it is about" (Odada, 1988, p. 4).

The low level of clarity assigned to procedures for assessing affective and psychomotor outcomes may be due to the fact that such procedures are not specified in the syllabus or any other material for the programme. Also, assessment of student achievement has traditionally dealt with the cognitive component. Thus, with their poor professional background in social studies it could be expected that tutors would find procedures for assessing attitudes and values as well as manipulative skills unclear. In fact, in Table 5.6 tutors rated their training with regard to these competencies as "Inadequate".

Five tutors who claimed that procedures for assessing affective outcomes were fairly clear to them, listed appropriate assessment instruments such as interviews and observation. All the five tutors had bachelor's degrees in Social studies education. Interestingly, one

135

tutor who taught the 'Principles and Methods' section of the syllabus thought that the assessment of students' personal traits and attitudes toward people, school and subject was "not applicable" to his area. The tutor in question had a bachelor's degree in history and a diploma in education. One wonders how he could teach 'Assessment/Evaluation of Social Studies Programmes' which is a unit under 'Principles and Methods', the section he claimed to be teaching. This finding, though an isolated one, is an illustration of the extent to which lack of professional training in a teachers' field of operation can affect the implementation of an instructional programme.

The different levels of clarity assigned to various characteristics of the programme may also be the outcome of the different meanings that teachers of social studies ascribe to the subject which, in turn, affect their understanding of the other aspects and also determines, to a large extent, what decisions they make about appropriate curriculum and instruction (Thornton, 1991).

One interesting thing about the results on clarity of programme characteristics is the agreement between the responses of tutors and students. But there was no possibility of collaboration between the two groups of respondents during the time of filling the questionnaires. It is therefore, difficult to explain that aspect of the findings.

Table 5.7 Tutors and Students' Level of Clarity about Programme Characteristics

CHARACTERISTICS	TUTORS		STUDENTS	
	MEAN	COMMENT	MEAN	COMMENT
The meaning of social studies	2.80	Fairly Clear	2.76	Fairly Clear
Its scope and content	2.80	Fairly Clear	2.90	Fairly Clear
Its aim and objectives	3.20	Fairly Clear	3.13	Fairly Clear
Its recommended method of teaching	2.80	Fairly Clear	3.27	Fairly Clear
Its procedures for assessing students' progress in				
I) the cognitive domain	3.67	Clear	3.30	Fairly Clear
ii) the affective domain	1.50	Not clear at all	1.20	Not Clear
iii) the psychomotor domain	1.80	Partly Clear	1.50	Not clear at all
Grand mean	2.65	Fairly Clear	2.58	Fairly Clear

5.5 Importance Tutors and Students Place on Programme Components

One way of establishing the extent of reliability one can attach to stated pedagogical practices of teachers may be to establish the level of importance they (the teachers) attach to various identifiable components of a programme they are implementing. For instance, the effort teachers exert in order to achieve an objective is known to be a function of the importance they attach to the objective (Ministry of Education, 1990). Similarly, given an instructional programme,

137

the emphasis which teachers place on selected content as well as the methods they use frequently is determined, to some extent, by the level of importance they attach to such content and methods. Also, students' interest in a particular content and the efforts they put into studying that content to achieve a certain objective is a function of the importance they place on that content and the method used to teach it. An attempt was made, therefore, in the study to find out the level of importance tutors and students placed on the aims and objectives, content and methods of the social studies programme they were implementing. The results are summarised in Tables 5.8 and 5.9

5.5.1 Importance Placed on Aims and Objectives

With regard to the aims and objectives of the programme, most of the tutors chose the 'Important' and 'Very Important' response categories. Only five (10%) tutors chose the 'Fairly Important' response category with respect to the objectives "developing in students an awareness of the nature of the immediate and wider environment" and "helping students acquire appropriate skills with which to interpret and develop the environment". It is vital to note that these two objectives touch the core of social studies. In the present era of escalating detrimental consequences of the activities of humankind on the environment, such environmental awareness and skills are necessary for preserving our environment from ecological holocaust. It is, therefore, surprising that those tutors, though very few, did not place high importance on those two objectives Again five tutors did not regard "developing in students

138

an appreciation of the importance of the primary and junior secondary school social and environmental studies programmes to the future lives of pupils and the future of society" as very important One may ask whether those tutors would be able to imbue in their students the interest, knowledge, skills and values needed to teach social studies at the basic education level - the level for which the student-teachers were being trained Incidentally all the five tutors were non-social studies-trained Their background might have influenced their responses It must be stated, however, that the same response, Fairly Important to the three objectives already referred to from the same number of tutors obviously conjures a suspicion of the incidence of response set But this cannot be proved

Majority of the students also chose the 'Important' and 'Very Important' categories of responses. Four (2.2%), however thought "teaching students to understand clearly the concept of social studies" was not important The same number of students felt that objective was 'Somehow Important' For students pursuing a programme which prepares them to teach at the basic education level, one would have thought that they would regard a clear understanding of the programme as a very important objective so that they would communicate the same to their pupils The low profile response from the four students therefore reveals their lack of focus of the programme they were pursuing Eight (4.4%) students also did not consider the development of integrative attitudes and values as important. But without such affective competencies basic education

teachers will find it difficult to teach their pupils to "relate effectively with others in the community, the country and others in Africa and the world as a whole" (G.E.S., 1987 p.1). Again, four students did not attach any importance to "helping students to acquire the basic skills and knowledge of methodology to handle the social and environmental studies programmes at the basic education level effectively". It is very difficult to explain this response. Perhaps the four students are among those who go to a TTC and for that matter choose the teaching profession as a second best occupation or a stepping stone for entering "better" occupations. Such people, in reality, do not consider themselves as student-teachers and therefore do not see the need for the acquisition of pedagogical knowledge and skills.

5.5.2 Importance Placed on Content

As far as content is concerned, all the tutors considered the topics selected for the various aspects of the programme important. A similar response trend came from the students with the exception of four students who felt that the economics topics were not important. The four students are likely to be among the 23 students who had no background in economics (see Table 5.3) though the study did not seek to establish any relationship between respondents' background in a subject and the level of importance they attach to topics in that subject.

5.5.3 Importance Placed on Methods

Concerning the methods of teaching the programme, none (not even the lecture method) was regarded as unimportant by the tutors.

For discussion and fieldwork, the responses fell exclusively in the 'Important' and 'Very Important' categories. One would have expected a similar response trend for the inquiry or discovery method. This is because of the emphasis that the social studies programme places on that method. Notwithstanding, the general level of importance placed on all the methods by tutors was high as evidenced by the mean of means of 3.85. This would seem to suggest that tutors would use those methods as often as content would dictate and availability of materials and/or finance would permit, in their teaching. However, this is yet to be investigated when the data on tutors' use of recommended methods of teaching is analysed in chapter six.

A few students did not accord team teaching and lecture any importance. Is it likely that their tutors did not use those methods? For even "the lecture method... in spite of its deficiencies, has its benefits and unique usefulness if it is used sparingly and carefully" (Ministry of Education, 1990, p 87). In general, however, the students like the tutors, also placed great importance on the methods. Thus, measured by the grand means of 4.22 for tutors and 4.36 for students, the components of the programme can be said to be important to both tutors and students.

Table 5.8 Importance Tutors Place on Programme Components

AIMS AND OBJECTIVES	NI	SI	FI	I	VI	MEAN
	%	%	%	%	%	
Teaching students to understand clearly the concept of social studies	-	-	10.0	40.0	50.0	4.40
Helping students acquire basic knowledge in economics, geography, history and related subjects so that they can teach social studies effectively at the basic education level	-	-	10.0	30.0	60.0	4.50
Developing in students an awareness of the nature of the immediate and wider environment.	-	-	10.0	60.0	30.0	4.20
Helping students acquire appropriate skills with which to interprete and develop the environment	-	-	10.0	20.0	70.0	4.60
Helping students to appreciate what the environment provides for man and the need to conserve or improve upon it	-	-	-	40.0	60.0	4.60
Developing in students the attitudes and values that weld a nation together and create understanding among different peoples of the world	-	-	-	30.0	70.0	4.70
Developing in students an appreciation of the importance of the primary and junior secondary school social and environmental studies programmes to the future lives of pupils and the future of society	-	-	10.0	50.0	40.0	4.30
Helping students to acquire the basic skills and knowledge of methodology to handle the social and environmental studies programmes at the basic education level effectively.	-	-	-	10.0	90.0	4.90

AIMS AND OBJECTIVES	NI %	SI %	FI %	I %	VI %	MEAN
Helping students know how man has been able to adapt to the environment or change it to suit his needs	-	-	-	50.0	50.0	4.50
Mean of Means						4.52
CONTENT						
Economics topics	-	-	-	60.0	40.0	4.40
Geography topics	-	-	-	40.0	60.0	4.60
Government topics	-	-	20.0	50.0	30.0	3.80
History topics	-	10.0	-	50.0	40.0	4.20
Topics related to Principles of Social Studies	-	-	-	60.0	40.0	4.40
Mean of Means						4.28
METHODS						
Inquiry or Discovery	-	-	20.0	20.0	50.0	3.90
Team Teaching	-	-	30.0	20.0	40.0	3.70
Fieldwork	-	-	-	30.0	70.0	4.70
Discussion	-	-	-	30.0	70.0	3.70
Use of Resource person	-	-	10.0	50.0	30.0	3.80
Role Play	-	10.0	40.0	20.0	20.0	3.20
Simulation	-	10.0	30.0	30.0	20.0	3.30
Lecture	-	20.0	20.0	50.0	10.0	3.50
Mean of Means						3.85
Grand Mean						4.22

The Mean Scores are rated 1.00 - 1.50 Not Important (NI), 1.80 - 2.50 Somehow Important (SI), 2.60 - 3.50 Fairly Important (FI), 3.60 - 4.50 Important (I); 4.60 - 5.00 Very Important

143

Table 5.9 Importance Students Place on Programme Components

AIMS AND OBJECTIVES	Ni	SI	FI	I	VI	MEAN	
	%	%	%	%	%		
Teaching students to understand clearly the concept of social studies	2.2	2.2	-	32.2	62.8	4.49	
Helping students acquire basic knowledge in economics, geography, history, government and related subjects so that they can teach social studies effectively at the basic education level	-	-	-	30.0	70.0	4.70	
Developing in students an awareness of the nature of the immediate and wider environment	-	-	-	50.0	50.0	4.50	
Helping students acquire appropriate skillswith which to interpret and develop the environment.	-	-	10.0	40.0	50.0	4.40	
Helping students to appreciate what the environment provides for man and the need to conserve or improve it.	-	2.2	2.2	30.0	65.0	4.63	
Developing in students the attitudes and values that weld a nation together and create understanding among different peoples of the world.	4.4	4.4	4.4	32.2	52.8	4.20	
Developing in students an appreciation of the importance of the primary and junior secondary school social and environmental studies programmes to the future levies of pupils and the future of society.	-	2.2	10.0	52.8	35.0	4.20	
Helping students to acquire the basic skills and knowledge of methodology to handle the social and environmental studies programmes at the basic education level effectively.		2.2	-	4.4	15.6	77.8	4.67

AIMS AND OBJECTIVES	NI	SI	FI	I	VI	MEAN
	%	%	%	%	%	
Helping students know how man has been able to adapt to the environment or change it to suit his needs	-	2.2	10.0	30.0	57.8	4.43
Mean of Means						4.17
CONTENT						
Economics topics	2.2	2.2	2.2	35.0	57.8	4.42
Geography topics	-	-	7.2	27.2	65.0	4.62
Government topics	-	2.2	4.4	30.0	62.8	4.51
History topics	-	4.4	4.4	42.8	47.8	4.32
Topics related to Principles of Social Studies.	-	10.0	12.2	30.0	47.8	4.15
Mean of Means						4.40
METHODS						
Inquiry or discovery	-	-	7.2	35.0	57.8	4.50
Team Teaching	2.2	10.0	15.6	35.0	37.2	3.95
Field work	-	2.2	4.4	22.2	70.0	4.57
Discussion	-	-	-	30.0	70.0	4.70
Use of Resource Persons	-	-	4.4	15.6	80.0	4.76
Role Play	-	2.2	12.2	45.0	40.0	4.21
Simulation	-	12.2	15.6	32.2	40.0	4.00
Lecture	15.0	25.0	30.0	15.0	15.0	2.90
Mean of Means						4.20
Grand Mean						4.36

5.6   Tutors and Students' Attitudes Toward the Social Studies Programme

Attitudes are clusters of related beliefs that express likes and dislikes general feelings, and opinions about some individual, group, object or event (Rokeach, 1968). Attitude toward anything is largely influenced by the usefulness of that thing to the individual. Thus, the attitude of tutors and students towards the social studies programme can be determined, among other things, by their perception of the programme and the envisaged benefits they are likely to derive from it.

Research on the attitude of teachers and learners toward social studies programmes has proved inconclusive. In Kenya teachers who were piloting social studies in the Central Province were found to have unfavourable attitudes to the programme (Kabau, 1983). According to Schug (1982) many students see social studies as less important and less interesting than other subjects. Such negative attitudes toward social studies are found to increase over time; the higher the grade level, the more negative students' attitudes seem to be (Crawley, 1988). In the USA social studies is reportedly not given status equal with other subjects in the primary grades; and many teachers even think that the subject can be ignored entirely (Cawelti and Adkisson, 1985; Gross, 1977; Hahn, 1985b; Marker and Mehlinger, 1994).

However, Shiundu (1980) in his inquiry into the status of social studies in Kenya found primary school pupils' attitude

generally positive towards social studies, despite its low status in the education system, lack of support in the community, and inadequate teacher preparation. Makunha (1983) also examined the preparedness of primary school teachers in Kakanega District (Kenya) to implement social studies. Although the learning environment was characterised as not conducive to achieving the objectives of social studies, the teachers said they would welcome the new programme. In an evaluation of the pilot-testing of social studies by the Kenya Institute of Education, over 72 per cent of the teachers said they enjoyed teaching social studies and wanted to continue doing so the next year. Merryfield (1986a, 1986b) also observed social studies instruction in Kenya in the last year of the pilot-testing before countrywide implementation. She found the teachers' attitude to be supportive of the programme despite complaints over lack of training and the quality of instructional materials. In Nigeria, Adejunmobi (1976) surveyed secondary school students on their perceptions of social studies versus history courses in the lower secondary curriculum. The majority of students preferred social studies with reasons that it provided "total human understanding", involved " problem-solving through subject fusion" and led to "community understanding" (Adejunmobi, 1976, p. 381).

It should, however, be admitted that peoples' attitude towards various aspects of a thing such as the social studies programme under study, may vary from aspect to aspect. For instance, somebody who is favourably disposed to the aims and objectives of the programme

147

may be unfavourably disposed to its implementation. It should further be admitted that attitude towards any attitude target is never static. It changes both in direction and intensity as the attitude target is able or unable to live up to the expectations and hopes of people. Whatever the dimensions of attitude and how they may be explained, it is a fact that the dispositions of implementers to an instructional programme affect their perceptions of the programme and their commitment to its implementation. In the light of the above research findings and considerations tutors and students were presented with Likert-type attitude sub-questionnaires that required them to express their feelings towards various aspects of the social studies programme. The attitude scale was so constructed as to measure not only the directions of the respondents' attitude towards the programme but also to measure the intensity of the attitude. The aggregated result is presented in Tables 5.10 and 5.11

Table 5.10 Attitudes of Tutors and Students Towards Social Studies: Frequency of Responses

RESPONSE CATEGORY	TUTORS		STUDENTS	
	f	%	f	%
Agree	395	56.4	1643	65.2
Uncertain	90	12.9	227	9.0
Disagree	210	30.0	638	25.3
No Response	5	0.7	12	0.5
TOTAL	700	100.0	2,520	100.0

Table 5.11 Attitudes of Tutors and Students Towards Social Studies

RESPONDENTS		
Very Negative		
Negative		
Very Positive		
Perfectly Positive		
Total		

the respondents that is tutors and students were asked to indicate their agreement or disagreement to certain statements about social studies. The possible responses in respect of all the statement were ... for tutors and ... for students. ... shown in Table 5.11 for the two groups of respondents ... were in the ... for tutors and ... for the students. This indicate a favourable attitude on the part of both tutors and students to the programme as proven by the attitude scores in Table 5.11

The score of zero point that is, the point of neutrality, on the scale of both the tutors and students is 42. Scores higher than 42, therefore, show a positive attitude while those lower than 42 show an attitude in the negative direction. The maximum score possible to an individual is 70 while the minimum is 14. The results show that the direction of attitude for both the tutors and students is positive. Only

30% of the tutors and 25.5% of the students are below the zero point in the negative attitude direction

The favourable attitude demonstrated by both tutors and students to the social studies programme is further confirmed by their responses when asked to compare the social studies approach to the separate subject approach with respect to specified attributes (Table 5.12)

Table 5.12 Social Studies and Separate Subjects Compared

ATTRIBUTES	SOCIAL STUDIES		SEPARATE SUBJECTS	
	TUTORS %	STUDENTS %	TUTORS %	STUDENTS %
Relevance to the needs of the individual student	50.0	45.0	50.0	55.0
Better Objectives	60.0	70.0	40.0	30.0
Better Content	60.0	50.0	40.0	50.0
Better Methods of Teaching & learning	80.0	77.8	20.0	22.2
Better assessment procedures	40.0	65.0	60.0	35.0
Relevance to the present basic education programme	80.0	84.4	20.0	15.6

Both the tutors and students did not see much difference between social studies and the separate subjects approach in terms of their relevance to the needs of the individual student. The differences between the two approaches in terms of content was also not so much, in the opinion of the respondents. However, both the tutors and students felt that social studies was preferred to the separate subject approach because social studies has better objectives, better methods of teaching and learning, better assessment procedures and is more relevant to the present basic education programme than the separate social science subjects. Consequently, in response to an item on the attitude scale which stated that social studies should be discontinued in the TTCs all the tutors disagreed and 85% of the students also disagreed. In terms of acceptability, therefore, 90% of the tutors felt the social studies programme was very acceptable. Sixty-eight per cent of the students also gave the same response.

When asked to rank social studies among the four most important subjects in their colleges, three principals who were interviewed gave the following responses:

> To me all the subjects are equally important. It is only that when we come to talk of examinations then some subjects are made to look more important because students write three-hour papers in them. But social studies is one of the three-hour paper subjects (Interview, 1st June,1998).

My school is science-biased and I am also science-trained.But I think that every subject is important, except that a subject like 'Education' is compulsory for all students and here many students also do science. So some students may think that these subjects are more important than others(Interview, 18th May, 1998).

In my school all the subjects are important and any tutor or student who jokes with a subject will not be spared. So that's it(Interview, June 15th, 1998).

The responses of the principals quoted above reveal that they were favourably disposed to social studies and ranked it equal among the cluster of subjects taught in their colleges. Thus, the results from all categories of respondents confirm the fact that the social studies programme has won the respect and acceptance of majority of all those who have responsibility towards its implementation. This would suggest that all those who are involved in the implementation would want to do everything possible to ensure its success.

Notes

1. These subjects make up the 'Content' portion of the TTC Social Studies syllabus.

2. When the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE)programme is fully implemented, "the minimum qualification for tutors teaching in TTCs will be Bachelor in Education (B.Ed) or a degree with the appropriate qualification in education. Ultimately,all TTC tutors should have Masters

in Education (M.Ed) or post graduate degree with appropriate qualification in education" (Ministry of Education, 1996, p. 26).

3. Between 1988 and 1998 University of Cape Coast has turned out a total of 268 Social studies graduates. University College of Education has a also produced 352 social studies graduates (Academic offices of the two Universities).

CHAPTER SIX

TRANSACTING THE CURRICULUM

In chapter five the quality of tutors and students and their perception of various components of the social studies programme were explored. In this present chapter the issues related to how the programme is operated are analysed. The major areas of attention are the teaching-learning methods used, the availability and adequacy as well as use of instructional resources, the adequacy of allotted time, and the factors that affect implementation. The chapter begins with data collection procedures followed by the main issues.

6.1 Data

Data for this chapter were derived mainly from responses to questionnaires. In the case of tutors' use of recommended methods of teaching, classroom observation provided another source of data. Responses to the items on the questionnaire in this respect were designed on a four-point scale and coded as follows: Frequently 4, Occasionally 3, Rarely 2 and Never 1. Concerning availability and adequacy of instructional resources, additional data were got from verification the writer made in three colleges selected for case study. The time tables of those colleges were also studied in an attempt to find out whether the responses to the items on allocation of time approximated to what obtained in the colleges. Here, the Ghana Education Service's time table allocation and the recommendation made by the designers of the programme with respect to time allocation provided further guidance.

In the analysis of data it was found that many (92%) of the respondents did not express their reason how often they used the materials if those materials were available to them. There was therefore no analysis of the few responses given by the rest (8%) of the respondents.

6.2   Tutor's Use of Recommended Methods of Teaching

In the literature on pedagogy three words are often used to describe the means by which teachers induce learning in their students. The three words are method, technique and strategy. The African Social and Environmental Studies Programme (ASESP) (1992) makes the following distinctions among teaching method, teaching technique and teaching strategy.

> Method means a teacher's approach to instruction whereas techniques mean the specific activities performed in class, ie. lecture, grouping, discussion. A strategy means the sequence of the techniques during a class period (ASESP, 1992, p.3)

In this work the term 'method(s) of teaching' is used to refer to a teacher's overall approach to teaching which includes the activities designed to be performed by students as well as the teacher and how those activities are structured.

According to Aggarwal (1982) good methods of teaching social studies should aim at inculcating love of work, developing the desire to work effectively to the best of one's ability, providing numerous opportunities of participation by the learner and developing the capacity for clear thinking, among others. Methods which are

155

...sed by social studies educators is possessing these attributes to make discussion important ... play simulation fieldwork and lecture (Aggarwal, 1982 Banks 1990, Martorella, 1994, Singleton, 1996) These teaching methods are recognized by the designers of the teacher training college (TTC) social studies programme as helpful for teaching the subject at the basic school level. Consequently, they recommended that tutors use those methods "to give the student a practical illustration of what he is expected to do as a teacher" (G.E.S., 1988, p 2)

How often tutors use the recommended methods to teach social studies was ascertained from the views of tutors, students and through classroom observation. The results are presented in Tables 6.1 and 6.2

Table 6.1 Students' Rating of Methods used by Tutors to teach Social Studies

METHOD	MEAN	RANK	COMMENT
Lecture	2.98	2	Occasionally Used
Discussion	3.35	1	Occasionally Used
Inquiry/Discovery	2.05	3	Rarely Used
Role Play	1.83	4	Rarely Used
Simulation	1.73	5	Rarely Used
Team Teaching	1.53	8	Never Used
Use of Resource Person	1.53	6	Never Used
Fieldwork	1.48	7	Never Used
Grand Mean	2.04		Rarely Used

The Mean Scores are rated 1.00 - 1.50 Never Used; 1.60 - 2.50 Rarely Used; 2.60 - 3.50 Occasionally Used; 3.60 - 4.00 Frequently Used.

**Table 6.2   Tutors' Rating of Methods they
              use to teach Social Studies**

METHOD	MEAN	RANK	COMMENT
Lecture	2 50	2	Rarely Used
Discussion	4 00	1	Frequently Used
Inquiry/Discussion	2 30	3	Rarely Used
Role Play	2 00	5	Rarely Used
Simulation	2 00	5	Rarely Used
Team Teaching	2 30	3	Rarely Used
Use of Resource Person	2 00	5	Rarely Used
Fieldwork	2 40	4	Rarely Used
Grand Mean	2 40		Rarely Used

Data from the three sources (see Tables 6.1 and 6.2) indicate that the most frequently used method is discussion. However, from the observation data, tutors use the whole class discussion rather than the small group discussion. Of all 10 lessons (out of 16) observed as taught via discussion, the interaction was between the teacher and students with little cooperative examination and comparison of views between and among students. Also, the discussion technique was used more during the double-period lessons than in the single-period lessons which were, in the main, lecture-taught. However, no lesson was taught through the discussion method from beginning to end. In all the discussion lessons tutors supplemented the usual explaining and clarifying with lecturing, usually at the beginning and end of the lesson.

The lecture method was the second method mostly frequently used by tutors to teach social studies. Amoah (1998) also found the discussion method as the most popular method of teaching social studies at the JSS level, followed by the lecture method. Amoah's finding and that of the present study suggest that the methods of teaching that student-teachers experience while in college are the methods they also use while in the field. The observation data did not indicate any evidence of the use of the other methods of teaching social studies. The students and tutors' ranking of how frequently those methods were used also suggests that such methods were not popular with most tutors. Thus the findings seem to confirm previous findings on social studies teaching in Africa that methods used to teach social studies in TTCs are primarily lecture and whole class discussion with occasional role playing and field trips for observation (Obebe, 1981; Merryfield and Muyanda-Mutebi, 1991). The effect of such heavy reliance on a few methods has been noted by Merryfield and Remy (1995) thus:

> ...Not only is the use of the same instructional
> method unstimulating to students and teachers alike
> but such teaching methods do not address diverse
> student needs and learning styles (p.9).

In particular, using the same instructional method hardly helps students to become both independent and cooperative learners who develop skills of problem solving, decision making, negotiation and conflict resolution, as required in social studies. For instance, the infrequent use of role play, simulation and fieldwork denies students

"the experience of becoming involved in decision making and learning first hand the interactions of various factors in the complex problems of business or governmental policy planning" (Clegg, Jr. 1991, p. 523).

In the case of team teaching, use of resource persons and fieldwork, their rare use by tutors (according to the tutors' responses) is understandable since not every topic lends itself to the use of those methods. But if those methods are never used by tutors, as the students' responses indicate, then the gains of teaching and learning via those methods cannot be reaped by tutors and students.

Most of the students also felt that the lecture method which their tutors use makes it difficult for them (the students) to retain material and transfer knowledge, for the tutors teach more than can be absorbed at a time; and that it makes lessons too boring. However, a third-year student was of the view that the lecture method was a "good" method. He explained:

> With it the tutors explain everything to us. It is
> good for us because we don't have the books. Things
> also move fast. We can cover the syllabus before
> examination time. (103)

Tutors also stated some of the reasons why they do not often use the other methods (see Table 6.3). The major reason is the time-consuming nature of the other methods. In an educational system which is unduly influenced by examinations teachers are more likely to use methods of teaching which would enable them complete their syllabus rather than those methods which promote the acquisition of

worthwhile skills, attitudes, and knowledge essential for effective living in society and societal progress. It is also worth noting that every method of teaching has its strengths and weaknesses but in the hands of an effective teacher the weaknesses can be minimised. The lack of training in social studies methods with respect to majority of the tutors therefore needs serious attention.

Table 6.3   Reasons why Tutors do not often use
Some Recommended Methods of Teaching

METHODS	REASON	FREQUENCY
Role Play/Simulation	Takes too much time	42
	Difficult to organize	27
Fieldwork	Time consuming	50
	Lack of funds	50
	Large class size	38
Team Teaching	Tutors have different schedules	14
Inquiry/Discovery	Time consuming	38
	Insufficient materials	25
	Requires too much critical thinking	2
Use of Resource Persons	They don't come when Invited	5
	It is difficult to get them	3
	Preparing to get them takes much time	21

6.3 Instructional Resources

The importance of using high-quality multi-media and multi-dimensional resources in teaching has been recognised and documented by many educators (see for example. Ryozo et al. 1981, Aggarwal 1982. Callahan and Clark 1988 Banks 1990 Nkumbu 1991. Singleton 1996. Tamaklœ et al. 1996). All these writers agree that instructional resources offer students enriched opportunities to acquire concepts, values and skills appeal to the different senses involved in learning, cater for varied learning styles of students and help in students' understanding and remembering of what is taught. Yet in almost all African countries that have adopted social studies, teaching-learning materials are reportedly not frequently used in many schools and colleges (Merryfield and Muyanda-Mutebi, 1991). The explanation often given is that the resources are either not available or insufficient due to lack of funds to provide them. Perhaps, lack of skill on the part of both teachers and learners to improvise is another factor. Aggarwal (1982) in a different perspective thinks that social studies "teachers are yet to be convinced that teaching with words alone is very tedious, wasteful and ineffective" (p. 153).

In view of the importance of teaching-learning resources in the effective teaching and learning of social studies, the present study attempted to find out whether requisite resources were available and adequate in the colleges. The responses are summarised in Table 6.4.

Table 6.4 Availability and Adequacy of Teaching-Learning Materials and Facilities in Teacher Training Colleges

MATERIAL/FACILITY	NOT AVAILABLE %	AVAILABLE %	NOT ADEQUATE %	ADEQUATE %
Textbook	100.0*	0	-	
Teacher's Guide to Textbook	100.0	0	-	-
Primary School Syllabus	2.0	98.0	4.0	96.0
J S S Syllabus	0	100.0	2.0	98.0
Training College Syllabus	0	100.0	28.0	72.0
Wall Map of Ghana	68.0	32.0	12.6	87.5
Wall Map of West Africa	64.0	36.0	16.7	83.3
Wall Map of Africa	58.0	42.0	4.8	95.2
Wall Map of the World	64.0	36.0	0.6	99.4
Topographical Maps	66	34.0	96.0	6.0
Globe	86.0	14.0	-	100.0
Atlases	84.0	16.0	50.0	50.0
Printed Charts	96.0	4.0	100.0	0
Newspapers, Magazine and Journals	66.0	34.0	11.8	88.2
Bulletin Boards	98.0	2.0	-	-
Models	94.0	6.0	33.3	66.7
Specimens	92.0	8.0	50.0	50.0
Projectors	90.0	10.0	0	100.0
Social studies room	100.0	0	-	-
Library	0	100.0	-	-

Figures in the "Not Available" and "Available" columns are based on the total number of respondents. Figures in the "Not Adequate" and "Adequate" columns are calculated from the number of respondents who indicated "Available" for the listed items only.

It can be seen from Table 6.4 that with the exception of syllabuses for teaching social studies at the primary, junior secondary and teacher training levels, all other materials needed for effective

teaching of the subject were either not available at all in the colleges or were woefully inadequate. In the case of textbooks the "Not Available" responses (100%) indicate that there was not a single textbook written purposely for teaching social studies in the training colleges. Discussions with some of the respondents and data from my observation in three of the colleges reveal that for the 'Content' aspect of the syllabus tutors relied on textbooks written for teaching separate subjects such as economics, history and geography. Tutors either used their own personal copies of such textbooks or had access to some copies available in the college library. For the 'Principles and Methods' section of the syllabus there was not a single textbook. There were, however, pamphlets written by some tutors. One of such pamphlets, 'Towards Effective Teaching and Learning of Social Studies', written by one Nyame-Kwarteng, was popular with both tutors and students. Unfortunately, it contained a great deal of incorrect information, trivial facts and "inconsiderate writing style that does not help students understand and construct meaning" (Singleton, 1996, p.392). In explaining what social studies means, for example, the author only cites definitions by different writers without commenting on or explaining those definitions (see page 1 of the pamphlet). Also, the author states that the University of Cape Coast offers a master's programme in social studies, and that the programme started in the 1993/94 academic year (p 16) This information is not true

This writer is aware of an attempt by the Institute of Education, University of Cape Coast, in 1996 to help put those pamphlets in

good shape for use in the colleges, in the absence of approved textbooks. Thus, all tutors who had written such pamphlets were asked to send copies to the Institute for assessment. Of the number received at the Institute some were banned completely while others were recommended to be used subject to certain corrections Unfortunately, at the time of collecting data for the current work, those "textbooks" were still being used in the colleges in their original form. Perhaps the tutors who wrote those pamphlets are more concerned with making more money than improving social studies as a subject. With such "textbooks" being used in the colleges, one can hardly say that the Programme was being steered on the right course. Such an assertion is based on the realisation that "classroom interactions between the teacher and pupils and among pupils themselves based on the ...textbook. is the crux of any educational programme implementation" (Ministry of Education, 1990, p.81). The textbook gives an overview or general survey of a topic or unit for an information base; furnishes a point of departure for further exploration and new ventures; provides a common body of knowledge; provides one organised frame of reference; and often has good bibliographical material for sources of additional information. The importance of the textbook in programme implementation and the lack of it in the colleges puts a responsibility for textbook production on all those connected with social studies education in Ghana. The constant request from tutors to the present writer has been "Please, write one for us; it will help a great deal".

Another finding, from Table 6.4 is the fact that most colleges had no maps, globe and atlases. These materials help both tutors and students to find the location of places, people, phenomena and their interrelationships which are discussed in social studies lessons. Their non-availability in majority of the colleges must, therefore, be viewed as a serious situation, for, without knowing the "where" of the human experience, the actors of the social drama with which social studies is concerned would seem to be walking with their feet in the air. In addition, the geography-biased content of the syllabus and the high proportion of marks (40 marks) allotted to 'Map Skills' in the Final Examination makes the availability of maps, especially topographical maps, and other geography-related materials a sine qua non in every college.

Newspapers, magazines and journals are other important reading materials for social studies instruction. They communicate the latest news and developments to both teachers and students. They are, therefore, essential resources for supporting current affairs instruction in social studies. Yet 66% of respodnents said their colleges did not subscribe newspapers, journals and magazines. In the three colleges where verification of materials was made, there were newspapers. The most common were 'Daily Graphic', 'Ghanaian Times' and 'People and Places'. Discussion with students, however, indicate that tutors did not often cite examples from newspapers in their teaching; neither did they refer them to such materials. Some students did not even know that newspapers were available in their college.

Bulletin boards were also not available in virtually all the colleges. It is important that principals and heads of social studies departments see the bulletin board as an educational ally and try to provide one in their colleges. It is

> a vehicle for reporting, clarifying concepts, arousing
> interest in new materials, serving as a source of
> information, provoking thought, developing individual and
> group responsibility, helping pupils learn to communicate
> ideas visually, and (providing) opportunities for working,
> planning, organizing, and evaluating together (Chase and
> John, 1978, p. 270).

Other materials which make the learning situation more real are specimens and models. But these were also not available in almost all the colleges.

All the colleges had libraries but none of them had a social studies room. In one of the colleges where observation and verification of materials were conducted, an unused classroom was in the process of being converted into a social studies room. Eight (16%) tutors who taught the geography-related content of the syllabus lamented that the normal classrooms were not "suitable" or "convenient" for doing practical works like drawing of maps and making of models. The sentiments of the tutors could not be otherwise. In the teaching of social studies, a room that has been specially designed and equipped with relevant materials serves many purposes. It provides a ready space for the proper display and storage of accumulated collections of models, realia, illustrations and other materials. Also, more practical-related work such as the

making of models, charts or large maps which usually spread over a considerable length of time, if not completed within a lesson period, can be left undisturbed in the unfinished state in a social studies room. The room further ensures the safety and longevity of materials and equipment. Again, it projects an atmosphere of a sense of "social" purpose, a room of their own to social studies teachers and learners. Aggarwal (1982) in making a case for the existence of such a room in institutions posits: "This is a must for every school" (p. 142). In the absence of a social studies room, the available teaching-learning materials were kept in the offices of the heads of department (72% responses), houses of individual tutors (10% responses) and the library (18% responses). Twenty-two (44%) tutors who claimed to do practical work like drawing of maps and making of models with their students said these were done in the normal classroom.

As regards the adequacy or otherwise of listed teaching/learning materials, it is worth noting that with the exception of textbooks, a few copies in a college could be considered adequate since they are not normally used on a one-to-one basis. Therefore, the inadequacy of such materials as reported by the respondents is not considered to be very serious. In any case, apart from atlases, printed charts, specimens and topographical maps, the 'Not Adequate' responses in respect of the materials were not high. But certainly the inadequacy of the supply of curriculum materials and the complete lack of them in some cases should have serious repercussions on teacher efficiency. For, no worker, no matter the

nature of the job, can be expected to work effectively without the requisite tools of his trade. Furthermore, the inadequate materials would seem to invalidate the emphasis placed on inquiry/discovery approach to teaching and learning in social studies since that approach thrives on the availabililty and adequacy of requisite materials. Tutors would therefore tend to use the traditional lecture method in teaching social studies.

6.4   Allocation of Time

The time allotted for teaching a subject not only determines the nature of learning experiences that would be designed to address desired learning but also provides an index to the extent of coverage of subject matter and the level of importance placed on a subject in an education system. As indicated in chapter three, the designers of the programme suggested 5 periods of 40 minutes duration per week for teaching social studies in the first and second years. In the third year it is 12 periods of 40 minutes per week. The Ghana Education Service has the same time table allocation. The study sought to find out whether the colleges complied with the official policy and how adequate social studies tutors regarded the time allotted to teaching their subject. The responses on time allocation are presented in Table 6.5

Table 6.5 Number of Periods Devoted for Social Studies in a Week

CLASS	NUMBER OF PERIODS			RESPONSES(%)
	CONTENT	METHODS	TOTAL	
POST-SEC 1	2	2	4	2.0
	3	2	5	76.0
	5	2	7	12.0
	6	2	8	10 0
POST-SEC 2	2	2	4	2 0
	3	2	5	88 0
	6	2	8	10 0
POST-SEC 3	4	2	6	10 0
	7	3	10	2 0
	7	5	12	16 0
	8	4	12	72 0

From Table 6.5 two per cent of the respondents indicated that in the first year less than the required number of periods was allotted to social studies in their colleges whilst in the colleges of 22% of the respondents the time used exceeded that of the official time. For the second year two per cent of the respondents reported that they used less periods than the official time and 10% reported that they exceeded the time specified. For the third year, the time allotted, according to 12% of the respondents, was less than the required number of periods. However, the large majority of responses (over 75% in each class) indicated that most of the colleges stuck to the official policy.

Colleges which had eight periods per week for first and second years and six periods for the third year, were perhaps using the old

syllabus or had no copies of the Ghana Education Service's time table supplied to the colleges

It is also clear from Table 6.5 that most of the colleges devoted two of the total number of periods to methods of teaching the subject in the case of first and second years, and four periods for the third year. Two factors might have generated this trend. First, in the 1988 edition of the syllabus, it is suggested that

eight periods per week be allocated for the teaching
of social studies in the 1st and 2nd years and 6 periods
per week in the final year. Two of the suggested periods
should be given to methodology (G E S., 1988, p 3)

Most colleges might have been guided by the above suggestion since the new syllabus (1993 edition) only proposed the total number of periods per week per class and the duration of a period without specifying the periods for 'Content' and 'Methods'. Secondly, the colleges might have considered the relatively less number of topics in the 'Methods' section of the syllabus as compared to 'Content' and hence they skewed the time allocation in favour of 'Content'.

With respect to the duration of a period only two per cent of the respondents indicated that in their college the duration of a period was 45 minutes. All the other responses (98%) indicated that the colleges conformed to what was the official requirement. Thus, the deviations are not significant in terms of the number of colleges which did not conform.

Respondents were also requested to indicate how adequate the period allotted to social studies in the college was, considering the

content of the syllabus and the nature of the methods prescribed for teaching. Seventy-eight per cent of the respondents said the time was 'Very Inadequate', sixteen per cent indicated "Inadequate" and the rest (6%) gave no response. The general impression therefore is that the tutors felt the number of periods allotted for teaching social studies was not adequate.

6.5   Factors Which Affect Implementation

The success or failure of an educational programme depends on the presence or absence of a number of factors. The list of such factors in any one situation can be quite large and varied. Fullan (1991) however, divides them into four broad categories. These are the characteristics of the curriculum change being attempted; conditions at the district, community and school levels; strategies being used at the district and school levels to implement the programme; and external factors.

Changes have different attributes as seen by those who are putting the change into practice. The attributes may relate to the extent to which the change addresses the needs of those implementing it; clarity of the programme's requirements and of roles to be played by different people; the difficulty and extent of change required of those involved in the implementation; and the quality and practicality of the teaching-learning materials being used. In the view of Welch (1979), inadequate attention to the quality, usability and appropriateness of materials was the major reason for the failure of most implementation of curricula in the United States in the 1960s and early 1970s.

171

At the district and school levels, the type of leadership that is provided, and the consequent climate and relationships that are engendered, are found to be crucial in implementation. Equally important is support from the community.

Strategies being used at district and school levels refer to the planning and policy actions that are taken in relation to implementing specific curriculum changes. Basically, they involve choices about in-service or development activities and communication - information systems. Studies by McLaughlin and Marsh (1978) demonstrate that little change in practice occurs when staff development activities are absent or when they consist of one-time orientation sections without follow-up. Similarly, it has been found that irrespective of the degree of formality of communication systems, "a regular, systematic exchange of information about implementation requirements is necessary for change in practice to occur" (Fullan, 1991, p. 381).

Finally, factors external to the school system can facilitate or inhibit curriculum implementation. Of particular importance in this regard are policy change, financial or material resources and technical assistance.

It would be recalled that the presence or absence in the colleges, of some of the factors mentioned in the preceding paragraphs have already been discussed in chapter five (for example, clarity of programme requirements) and in earlier sections of the present chapter (for example, availability of materials). In this section, however, the emphasis is on whether respondents see these

factors, including others, as promoting or impeding implementation of the Programme in their colleges.

6.5.1 Factors Which Impede Implementation

Respondents (both tutors and students) were requested to indicate the factors which, from their experience, impeded the effective teaching and learning of social studies in their colleges. The responses have been grouped under headings as presented in Table 6.6.

Table 6.6 Factors Hindering Implementation of the Programme in Respondents' Colleges

FACTOR	STUDENTS		TUTORS	
	f	rf%*	f	rf%
Inadequate instructional materials/facilities	180	55.0	50	21.0
Overloaded syllabus	2	1.0	46	20.0
Weak academic background of students	-	-	27	11.0
Lack of tutors	102	31.0	11	5.0
Inadequate number of periods	-	-	47	20.0
Absence of fieldtrips	30	9.0	2	1.0
Absence of in-service training	-	-	45	19.0
Unequal attention given to the subject by tutors	15	4.0	7	3.0
Total	329	100.0	235	100.0

*Relative Frequency Percentage

173

It could be seen from Table 6 6 that inadequate teaching-learning materials in the colleges is the most prominent factor hampering the implementation of the social studies programme. This observation agrees with respondents' responses to the item on availability of instructional materials presented in Table 6 4. The response given by one student is worth quoting

> The tutors tell us to use instructional aids in our teaching practice and when we go to the field. But they themselves do not use them because the school hasn't got (42)

It could be inferred from the above statement that both tutors and students are very clear about the considerable extent to which success in social studies depends on having readily available, high quality and varied resources for use.

An equally common problem registered by most tutors was the perceived excessive content of the syllabus. "Too overloaded" was the phrase used by most tutors to describe the syllabus. One tutor observed that "there are too many topics in the geography, economics and other subject areas but few topics in the area of methods which to me is the most important". The above responses signal two dimensions to the problem of excessive content. First, there is too much material to cover. Second, there is no balance between subject matter content and acquisition of pedagogical skills. This writer is of the view that there should be balance between "content" and "teaching skills" in the social studies curriculum for student-teachers and that these should not be too much as to discourage in-depth study of issues.

It could be seen from Table 6.6 that inadequate teaching-learning materials in the colleges is the most prominent factor hampering the implementation of the social studies programme. This observation agrees with respondents' responses to the item on availability of instructional materials presented in Table 6.4. The response given by one student is worth quoting

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Two other factors which the tutors perceived as hindering the implementation of the Programme were inadequate number of periods allotted for teaching social studies and lack of in-service training for teachers. A few number of tutors and students also felt that equal attention was not given to social studies by tutors who taught the subject. One student remarked:

> Some of the tutors waste our time.
> They don't teach their portion very
> well; eg, geography and economics(102)

A similar comment was made by a tutor:

> Not all of us see the different aspects of the subject
> as equally important. Some tutors do not always
> complete their portion of the syllabus (37)

Inability to complete the syllabus could be due to the inadequate number of periods relative to the volume of work to be covered. But, surely, if it is lack of concern on the part of some tutors, then the situation is unfortunate. For, "better implementation and learning occurs when (all) teachers set instructional matters as a high priority, and have a sense of efficacy that they can improve instruction through their efforts" (Fullan, 1991, p. 381).

6.5.2 Factors Which Promote Implementation

The factors which respondents thought were facilitating the implementation of the Programme in their colleges are grouped and presented in Table 6.7.

175

Table 6.7   **Factors Facilitating Implementation of the Programme in Respondents' Colleges**

FACTOR	STUDENTS		TUTORS	
	f	rf%	f	rf%
The presence of resourceful and diligent tutors	32	10.3	19	17.0
Students' interest in the subject	96	31.0	29	26.0
Relevance of certain topics to students' life and experience	122	39.4	36	32.0
Principals' encouragement and supervision	60	19.3	28	25.0
Total	310	100.0	112	100.0

As seen from Table 6.7 most of the respondents (tutors and students) were of the view that some of the topics in the syllabus relate to the daily life and experiences of students. This not only made the topics easy to teach but also stimulated students' interest in the subject. Some of the topics cited by tutors were "Population Growth and Problems", "Social and Institutional Practices", "ECOWAS" and "Banking and Public Finance" Generally, the students did not cite examples of topics which they claimed were relevant to their circumstances. A few, however, stated "Current Issues", "Instability in Africa" and "Environmental Degradation/Pollution". The examples of "relevant" topics stated by respondents seem to suggest that social studies teaching should

incorporate more contemporary issues. There must be greater emphasis on making connections between remote and immediate, past and present, distant and local issues. Contemporary issues should not mean occasional discussion of isolated news items; they should be incorporated in the "established" interaction of social studies teaching.

Students' interest in the subject, as a factor that helps the teaching and learning of social studies, was thought to have resulted from various factors. In the view of one tutor "the students are eager to pass their final exams". However, for most students and tutors the subject makes students broad-minded; facilitates transfer of learning and is challenging.

It is worth noting that both tutors and students stated the role of the principal as crucial in the implementation process. Some of the specific responses are worth quoting:

> The principal always sees to it that tutors and
> students are regular and punctual at classes. If
> you are not serious she will rebuke you or you
> will be dismissed. This helps effective teaching
> and learning (Response from a student).(009)

> Our principal will always come round to see whether
> tutors are teaching or not. Students who are also
> not in class will be punished (Response from a
> student).(065)

> The principal makes sure that every tutor does his work
> well. So we are trying our best (Response from a
> tutor).(28)

These responses attest to the positive attitude of the principals to social studies as indicated in chapter five. More importantly, the responses indicate the importance of the role of the institutional head in influencing the likelihood of change. It is he/she who sets the climate of communication, support, encouragement and decision making which can foster or inhibit change in practice.

6.6 Respondents' Assessment of the Implementation of The Programme

Tutors and students had an item which elicited their general assessment of the implementation of the social studies programme in their colleges. Samples of responses from the tutors are presented below.

> Not all that successful. Students begin to understand the subject only when they are in the third year. (02)

> The programme has not achieved the desired objectives. (12)

> There is still the element of the subject being taught as separate subjects because the heads still look for teachers who have specialised in the separate subjects instead of one who has read social studies. (16)

> There is less of supervision from the principal or teacher education and the university. However, so far, so good. A lot can be achieved if the necessary support is given. (25)

It is fairly good. (40)

If the conditions prevailing in my college are the same everywhere then I will say the programme should be revised.(31)

More room for improvement. (23)

Generally, the responses from the students on their assessment of the implementation of the programme were more of suggestions than assessment. Only a few students gave responses which indicated assessment. Samples of those responses are presented below

> Masters (ie tutors) are somehow very good but some are not punctual to class. Students attitude is not encouraging since most of them did not offer social studies in the secondary school. (133)

> It is very well taught but the only problem is how the master can combine the different methods to teach the subject effectively. (120)

> The teaching of social studies is fairly good and there is room for improvement. Even though social studies is taught, the attitude of some of the tutors to the teaching of the subject is not encouraging which makes students feel bored. (007)

> The teachers as well as the students are doing well but if the problems I mentioned are solved, teaching can be enhanced. (057)

The way it is taught and learned is acceptable
but only that there are no field works. (070)

Averagely, it is alright. (162).

The responses from both tutors and students would seem to suggest that the implementation of the programme in the colleges was not all that satisfactory. This is proven by respondents' reservation towards specific parts or aspects of the implementation. The reservations expressed include non-use of the integrated approach by tutors to teach the subject, lack of requisite teaching-learning materials, weak academic background of some students and unsupportive attitude of some tutors and students.

The non-use of the integrated approach is the outcome of the nature of the syllabus. The topics in the syllabus fall neat within subject entities, which naturally demands that teachers employed should be those who can teach the different subjects. It is needless to say that integration in methods can be done effectively only with respect to integrated content.

6.7   Suggestions from Respondents for Improving
the Implementation Process

Respondents were requested to suggest ways by which the implementation of the programme could be improved. Both tutors and students offered suggestions which could be grouped into categories, namely, provision of teaching -learning materials, periodic in - service training courses for tutors, regular supervision and monitoring, increasing the

180

number of periods allotted for social studies and making the programme more integrated (see Table 6.8)

Table 6.8 Suggestions offered by Respondents

SUGGESTIONS	STUDENTS		TUTORS	
	f	rf%	f	rf%
Provision of teaching-learning materials	180	40.0	50	27.0
In-service training courses	-	-	50	27.0
Regular supervision and monitoring	-	-	13	7.0
Increasing number of periods	124	27.0	44	24.0
Making programme integrated	150	33.0	27	15.0
Total	456	100.0	184	100.0

Concerning the provision of teaching-learning materials both students and tutors indicated the dire need for a textbook. One student wrote: "There should be one textbook that treats all the aspects instead of teachers writing pamphlets to cover their areas only". A tutor who was the only person teaching the subject in his college had this to say: "there should be a relevant textbook for the course which both teachers and students can use". Commenting on the above, this writer would like to say that the availability of a good textbook on social studies for use in the teaching colleges will not only reduce the cost involved in students buying series of pamphlets, but also guide tutors whose background in the subject area is not adequate.

Touching upon the urgent need for in-service training courses the tutors made a number of suggestions. The highlights are that such courses should be organised during the holidays; that the focus of such courses should be to equip tutors with the methods of teaching the subject and that they should be frequently organised. A tutor said, "We are willing to pay for the expenses involved in such courses". Another said, "We must form a Social Studies Teachers Association which shall see to it like the Science people do".

On supervision and monitoring one tutor was of the view that "periodic observations, monitoring and official supervision will make some of us more serious". Another respondent felt supervision was lax in the colleges. He said: "Intensify supervision in all training colleges". One of the means of improving the quality of education management under the New Educational Reform Programme is to strengthen supervisory capacity at all levels so that absenteeism among teachers and learners would reduce and effective use of instructional time ensured. This objective appears not to have been achieved at the TTC level as evidenced by the suggestions of the respondents. An effective monitoring system, therefore, needs to be put in place at that level.

Over 80 per cent of the students and more than 50 per cent of the tutors also suggested that the TTC social studies programme should be made a fully integrated one. As one tutor pointed out, "We call it integrated social studies but we don't see this in the syllabus". Another said: "The three of us teaching social studies here teach different aspects, that is, economics, geography and

history Where is the integration?" it would seem from the above statement that the situation where teachers during social studies classes wrote things like "Social Studies-History", "Social Studies-Geography", "Social Studies-Government" (Agyemang-Fokuoh, 1994, p 12) still exists in the TTCs This situation, as indicated earlier on, is the natural outcome of the syllabus and the single-discipline academic background of the tutors. It is pertinent to emphasise that since the programme at the basic level exhibits less of disciplinary boundaries, that at the TTC level ought to follow the same pattern so that the training college graduates can use the integrated approach effectively at the basic education level.

CHAPTER SEVEN

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The main objective of this study was to evaluate the implementation of the social studies programme in teacher training colleges in Ghana, using the recommendations made by the programme designers and the curricular implications of the programme as criteria.

The respondents used in the study consisted of 50 tutors, 180 students and three principals. Data were collected through the use of questionnaires, interviews, observation and analysis of documents. In the concluding remarks that follow the findings furnished by the data are summarised and conclusions with respect to the specific issues raised in the section on research questions in Chapter One drawn. Finally, implications for both policy and research are stated.

7.1 Summary of Findings and Conclusions

From the various sources of data used in the study, the following findings and conclusions to the main issues of the study have been established.

7.1.1 General Provisions Made for the Implementation of the Programme

The social studies programme was designed and introduced into the teacher training colleges without having it pilot-tested in any form with a view to detecting any weaknesses or strengths or ascertaining the conditions under which it could be effectively used.

Although different colleges started the programme at different times, they did that because of their peculiar circumstances and not because they were being involved in the programme in turns during its trial stage.

Another deficient area of preparation for the take-off of the programme was dissemination of information about the new programme to the colleges where it was to be implemented. Information that reached principals and their tutors did not indicate whether all colleges or some of them were to implement the new programme until some years after the proposed year (1987) for the start of the programme. In addition, nothing by way of incentives was offered tutors to motivate them to accept the challenges implied by the demands of the new programme. All these kept the tutors unprepared for the commencement of the programme in their colleges.

Teachers, who were the final implementers at the college level were not given any special orientations to equip them to handle the new curriculum. Only four tutors (8%) had an idea of what the programme entailed before it was introduced in their colleges And this was by virtue of their participation in the workshop at which the programme was designed. Thus, attempts were not made to ensure that tutors had the right tuning for the implementation before the take-off.

The situation of instructional resources was no better Textbooks, maps and basic materials required for the implementation

of the programme were not supplied to the colleges before the programme began.

7.1.2 Characteristics of Students

Concerning the calibre of students admitted to pursue social studies in the teacher training colleges, 80 per cent of the students (N=180) involved in the study met the general requirements set by most colleges. They had passes in at least one of the subject components of social studies. However, more than half of the students had no background in geography, history or government. Though not required by most colleges, the nature of the syllabus demanded such a background and most social studies tutors (80%) also felt the same. Thus, judged by the academic characteristics implied by the nature of the syllabus (which is the criterion used in this study), more than 50 per cent of the students did not possess the pre-requisite academic background for pursuing social studies. though all of them had the minimum educational requirement for admission into the teacher training colleges.

7.1.3 Professional and Academic Qualifications of Tutors

Of the tutors involved in the study 80 per cent (N-50) had the requisite professional qualification (a minimum of diploma in education) for teaching in teacher training colleges. However, only 32 per cent had professional social studies education and were assumed to be competent in the use of appropriate methods for teaching the subject.

The criterion used in this study to judge the academic competence of tutors is at least a diploma/specialist qualification in

two of the social science subjects. Forty-four per cent of the tutors met this yardstick. This means the academic background of tutors was less than satisfactory.

7.1.4 Methods used by Tutors to Teach Social Studies

The findings from the study have shown that the method which was used most frequently by tutors to teach social studies was the teacher - class discussion. This method was mostly used during the two-period lessons. The lecture followed as the second method most frequently used by tutors, then inquiry, with occasional use of other methods like role play, simulation and fieldwork. The rare use of such other methods would seem to reflect the unsatisfactory professional background of the tutors.

7.1.5 Availability and Adequacy of Teaching-Learning Materials.

Apart from syllabuses for teaching social studies at the primary, junior secondary and teacher training levels, all other materials needed for effective teaching of the subject were either not available at all in the colleges or were woefully inadequate. In the case of textbook, there was not a single one written specifically for teaching the subject at that level. Other basic materials not available in the colleges were maps, globes and atlases. Also, none of the colleges had a social studies room. The few resources available in some colleges were therefore kept in the offices of the heads of departments, houses of individual tutors and the libraries. The problem with instructional resources was not so much their adequacy but their availability. For most of the resources (for example, maps

globes and charts) a few copies in a college could be considered adequate since they are not normally used on one-per-student basis.

7.1.6 Adequacy of Allotted Time

A large majority of the colleges, over 70 per cent, complied with the official allocation of time, allocating a total of five periods (a period being of 40 minutes duration) per week for first and second years and 12 periods per week for the third year. Furthermore, all the colleges devoted two of the total periods to 'Methods' for the first two years. In the final year the period per week for 'Methods' varied from two to four.

Concerning the adequacy of the number of periods, 94 per cent of the respondents felt it was "Inadequate", considering the extensive nature of the syllabus and the time-consuming methods recommended for teaching.

7.1.7 Clarity of Programme Characteristics

In general, the characteristics of the social studies programme were "fairly clear" to both tutors and students. In particular, the meaning of social studies, its scope and content, its aim and objectives, its recommended methods of teaching and procedures for assessing students' progress in the cognitive domain, appeared clear to the two groups of respondents. However, a large number of respondents assigned a low level of clarity to procedures for assessing the affective and psychomotor outcomes of student learning. Only five tutors who had bachelor's degrees in social studies education claimed that such procedures were clear to them. This would seem to suggest that there is a positive relationship

between teachers' level of clarity of the characteristics of a programme they are implementing and the level of professional education they have had in that programme.

7.1.8 Importance Placed on Programme Components

The components of the programme were seen to be important to both tutors and students. The aims and objectives stated for the programme, the content selected as well as the teaching-learning methods prescribed were regarded as important by both tutors and students. In fact, for each component the responses fell mainly in the "Important" and "Very Important" categories.

7.1.9 Attitude Towards Social Studies

The findings show a generally favourable attitude of all categories of respondents to the social studies programme, at least, in its conceptual form. Seventy per cent of both tutors and students, and all the principals demonstrated positive attitude toward the programme. The tutors and students preferred social studies to the separate social science subjects. They took this stance because they felt social studies has better objectives, better methods of teaching and learning, better assessment procedures and is more relevant to Ghana's present basic education programme. Respondents (90% of tutors and 68% of students) therefore felt the social studies programme was very acceptable and, consequently, would not support any move to discontinue the programme in the teacher training colleges. The principals appeared to express similar

sentiments when they rated social studies equal among the cluster of subjects taught in their colleges.

7.1.10 Factors Affecting Implementation

Inadequate instructional materials/facilities, overloaded syllabus, weak academic background of students, lack of adequately trained teachers and inadequacy of allotted time were some of the factors listed by respondents as inhibiting the implementation of the social studies programme in their colleges.

Top of the list of factors helping the successful implementation of the programme was the relevance of certain topics in the syllabus to students' life and experience. Indeed, about 70 per cent of both tutors and students listed this factor. Next on the list was students' interest in the subject; followed by encouragement and supervision by the principals and the presence of resourceful and hardworking tutors.

Despite the presence of the above-stated factors in most of the colleges, respondents felt that the integrated approach was not being used to teach the subject. This is due, perhaps, to the nature of the syllabus and the weak professional background of tutors. Emerging out of this reservation and the problems besetting the implementation process are suggestions which respondents believed could enhance the quality of implementation of the programme. Some of these suggestions are incorporated in the recommendations which follow in the next section.

7.2 Implications for Policy and Practice

The findings on the various dimensions of the implementation of the teacher training college social studies programme furnish evidence of the general acceptance of the programme in its conceptual frame. All the categories of respondents are agreed on this. But they are also agreed on the fact that the programme has not had the best form of implementation it should have been given.

Some aspects of the implementation process were faulty and showed apparent signs of lack of sufficient foresight in both initial preparation for the take-off of the programme and regular support for maintaining the effectiveness and quality of the programme in action. On the basis of the findings and also on the basis of this summary of defects, the following recommendations are being proposed for the consideration of decision makers in social studies education.

1.   Care should be taken to avoid rushing the process of any curriculum implementation. No matter the time constraints, all the necessary processes in curriculum implementation, including the trial testing of the materials, should be gone through. It is only then that one can be sure that the curriculum eventually introduced adequately takes account of the objectives of the programme, existing conditions in the schools and the grade level for which it is meant.

In addition, adequate information on the programme should be made available to the teachers as early as possible. This is because the teachers are the first to answer questions from the uncompromising public about any educational innovations. Besides, having detailed information on the programme would satisfy the

teachers' quest for understanding the nature of the programme and appreciating its usefulness.

2. The role of teachers in the effective implementation of a new educational programme cannot be underestimated. However, their effectiveness is ensured not merely by being informed about the innovation. Consequently, their professional qualities and abilities need to be particularly sharpened for and tuned to the new programme. This special preparation for the programme can primarily be achieved through periodic and regular in-service education for teachers. In the case of newly introduced social studies programmes such as the present social and environmental studies[1] programme in the teacher training colleges, initial in-service courses should imbue teachers with the general as well as specific pedagogical competencies required for implementing the programme. Subsequent courses should focus on development of instructional resources, evaluation of curriculum or instructional impact and sharing of new ideas, materials, or teaching strategies from various localities of implementation.

3. Elsewhere in this work, the importance of availability of appropriate materials in the success of an educational innovation was stressed. It is important that adequate provision be made for the supply of these inputs to the schools prior to implementation of the programme. More importantly, teachers should be trained to develop and improvise some of the materials needed. The government, communities and non-governmental organisations could be sources of funding for the development of such materials. Special attention

must be given to the writing of textbooks. With the new social/environmental studies programme which includes contemporary issues not treated in the traditional single subject textbooks, it is suggested that the Institute of Education and the Teacher Education Division should engage a group of social studies tutors and lecturers to write a standard textbook for the subject.

4. The present time allocation for social studies, especially for first and second years - five periods per week - seems inadequate taking into account the broad nature of the syllabus. In fact, the newly introduced Social and Environmental Studies Syllabus has not cut down the content of the subject. It is, therefore, suggested that the period for first and second years should be increased to eight per week while maintaining the twelve periods per week for the third year. The increase in the number of periods would enable teachers to treat the topics into detail using the participatory and interactive methods suggested.

5. With the introduction of social studies as a subject in the senior secondary school curriculum, it is expected that candidates who would be admitted into the training colleges to pursue social studies (now compulsory in the teacher training colleges) would be those who had studied the subject at the senior secondary level. For candidates who have other qualifications, passes in two of the following subjects - geography, economics, history and government - at the '0' Level or senior secondary level should be the requirements.

7.3 Implications for Research

To the extent that the findings presented in this study are circumscribed by the delimitations and limitations of the study, the following recommendations would seem to be in order. They are intended to represent a revised and, hopefully, a more effective examination of the problem considered in this study.

1. In this study whole class discussion, lecture and inquiry were found to be the methods frequently used by tutors to teach social studies. Since these methods are recommended for teaching the subject, a study to ascertain the competence of tutors in the use of those methods could be conducted.

2. A study of the social studies programme being offered in the University College of Education, Winneba and the University of Cape Coast could also be undertaken to determine the extent to which such programmes prepare teachers for the senior secondary and teacher training college levels where the graduate teachers are expected to operate.

3. Most of the problems of implementation found in this study were due to the fact that the recommendations made by the programme designers were not implemented by the policy makers and the tutors. A study into the extent to which recommendations made by curriculum designers are implemented by policy makers and teachers could be carried out.

4. In view of the fact that only 32 per cent of the tutors involved in this study had professional social studies education, a follow-up study of social studies graduates from the University College

of Education, Winneba and the University of Cape Coast is needed to find out how many of them are actually teaching social studies at the levels of the education system for which they were trained

Note

1.   At the time of collecting data for this research, social and environmental studies was being taught in ten pilot colleges, six colleges in their second year of implementing the programme and four in their first year. However, at the time of writing this report, the new subject, with other subjects, had been introduced in all the teacher training colleges. The new subject (social and environmental studies) does not differ much from the old one (social studies) except for a little cut of the geography topics and the addition of more topics of contemporary significance.

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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE TO TUTORS

IMPLEMENTATION OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAMME

IN TEACHER TRAINING COLLEGES IN GHANA: AN EVALUATION

Dear Sir/Madam,

QUESTIONNAIRE TO TUTORS

The following questionnaire is part of a study being conducted in connection with a masters thesis on the above-stated topic at the Department of Arts and Social Sciences Education, University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast. I shall be very grateful if you could take part in the study. Every information shall be treated as confidential and besides, your anonymity is guaranteed.

Thanks for your cooperation.

COSMAS COBBOLD

General Instruction:

Please, tick (√) the appropriate box [ ] or column; or write in the blank spaces where necessary.

A PERSONAL DATA

1. Your Sex: Male [ ]   Female   [ ]

2. Your Age: Under 26 years [ ] 26-35 years [ ] 36-45 years [ ]
    46-55 years [ ]   56 years and above [ ]

3. For how long have you been teaching?

Less than 1 year [ ]   1-5 years [ ]   6-10 years [ ]

11-15 years [ ]   16-20 years [ ]   21-25 years [ ]   26-30 years [ ]

31 years and above [ ]

4. Your rank in the Ghana Education Service (G.E.S.).

Superintendent [ ]   Senior Superintendent [ ]

Principal Superintendent [ ]   Assistant Director [ ]   Director [ ]

B. ACADEMIC AND PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATIONS

5. Your highest qualification in subject areas other than 'education'

Specialist/Diploma [ ]   Bachelors Degree (BA, B.Sc.etc.) [ ]
Masters Degree (MA, M.Sc., M.Phil, etc.) [ ]

Other (specify)................. ....

7. How many of the subjects (namely: Economics, Geography, government, History and Sociology) do you have qualifications in?

None [ ]   One [ ]   Two [ ]   Three [ ]   Four [ ]   Five [ ]

8. Indicate the highest level to which you have studied each of the subject areas listed below.

Subject	'0' Level	'A' Level	Specialist/Diploma	Degree
Economics	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Geography	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Government	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
History	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Sociology	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

219

9. For how long have you taught social studies in the training college?

Less than 1 year [ ] 1-5 years [ ] 6-10 years [ ] 11-15 years [ ]
16 years and above [ ]

10. Did you have any professional education in social studies before teaching the subject in the training college?

No [ ] Yes [ ]

(b) If 'Yes', at what level?

Teacher Training College [ ] Specialist/Diploma [ ]

Degree (Bachelor's, Master's, Doctorate-underline as appropriate) [ ]

(c) Indicate where and when you had your education specified in (b)

Institution: ... ...

Year: 19........ to 19...

11. Have you attended any in-service course connected with social studies since you started teaching the subject in the training college? No [ ] Yes [ ]

(b) If 'Yes', how many such courses have you attended?

One [ ] Two [ ] Three [ ] Four [ ] Five [ ]

(c) What was the duration of each course?

1st Course........weeks 2nd Course:........weeks

3rd Course........weeks 4th Course:......... weeks

(d) What was the content of the course(s)?

1st Course: .... -

9. For how long have you taught social studies in the training college?

Less than 1 year [ ] 1-5 years [ ] 6-10 years [ ] 11-15 years [ ]
16 years and above [ ]

10. Did you have any professional education in social studies before teaching the subject in the training college?

No [ ] Yes [ ]

(b) If 'Yes', at what level?

Teacher Training College [ ] Specialist/Diploma [ ]

Degree (Bachelor's, Master's, Doctorate-underline as appropriate) [ ]

(c) Indicate where and when you had your education specified in (b)

Institution:................................

Year: 19........ to 19......

11. Have you attended any in-service course connected with social studies since you started teaching the subject in the training college? No [ ] Yes [ ]

(b) If 'Yes', how many such courses have you attended?

One [ ] Two [ ] Three [ ] Four [ ] Five [ ]

(c) What was the duration of each course?

1st Course:...........weeks 2nd Course:..........weeks

3rd Course...........weeks 4th Course:............weeks

(d) What was the content of the course(s)?

1st Course:...

2nd Course:...

3rd Course:...

4th Course:...

12. How would you rate your preparation as a social studies tutor with regard to each of the following competencies? Circle 1 for <u>Very Inadequate,</u> 2 for <u>Inadequate,</u> 3 for <u>Fairly Adequate,</u> 4 for <u>Adequate</u> and 5 for <u>Very Adequate</u>

(a) Knowledge and application of skills and special
     methods of teaching social studies 1 2 3 4 5

(b) Understanding of the influence of society on the
     social studies curriculum and of social studies on
     society. 1 2 3 4 5

(c) Understanding of the ways children, adolescents
     and older students learn social studies.............. 1 2 3 4 5

(d) Knowledge of the history, philosophy and
     purpose of social studies education in Ghana.......   1 2 3 4 5

(e) Using audio-visual aids (eg. charts, radio, pictures,
     etc) to teach social studies...............   1 2 3 4 5

(f) Knowledge and use of appropriate procedures to
     assess student learning in
       I) the cognitive domain 1 2 3 4 5
      ii) the affective domain 1 2 3 4 5
     iii) the psychomotor domain 1 2 3 4 5

(g) Exposure to all aspects of the 3-Year Post-
     Secondary Social Studies Syllabus 1 2 3 4 5

(h) Knowledge of general social and environmental
     issues 1 2 3 4 5

(I)   Knowledge of economics topics in the syllabus....   1 2 3 4 5

(j)   Knowledge of geography topics in the syllabus....   1 2 3 4 5

(k)   Knowledge of government topics in the syllabus...   1 2 3 4 5

(l)   Knowledge of history topics in the syllabus.........   1 2 3 4 5

C.   STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS

13.   From your knowledge and experience as a social studies tutor, what pre-requisite knowledge, skills and other characteristics, would you say, are needed by students who enrol to study social studies at the training college?...

14.   Do your social studies students possess the knowledge, skills and attributes you have specified in 13?

All the students have those attributes   [ ]
Some of the students have those attributes   [ ]
None of the students has those attributes   [ ]

15.   In a brief statement, describe the response of the following groups of students in your class to social studies lessons.

(a) Those who possess the pre-requisite knowledge and skills for the course..

(b) Those who do not have the pre-requisite knowledge and skills for the course..

D.   USE OF TEACHING-LEARNING METHODS

16.   How often do you use each of the following instructional strategies to teach social studies?

Method	Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Frequently
Discussion	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Fieldwork	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Inquiry/Discovery	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Lecture	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Role Play	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Simulation	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Team Teaching	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Use of Resource Persons	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

17.   Which of the methods listed in 16 seem most successful with your students (List not more than three in descending order of effectiveness)

....

18.   List the problems you encounter using any of the methods listed in 16 to teach studies...

E   TEACHING-LEARNING RESOURCES

19.   Does your college have a social studies room? No [ ] Yes [ ]

    (b) If 'No', where are teaching-learning materials kept?
    (c) Where do you do such practical works as drawing of maps
       and making of models?

20.   Does your college have a library? No [ ] Yes [ ]

21. Tick [√] the appropriate column in respect of the listed materials for teaching and learning social studies in your college.

Material/Equipment	Not Available	Available but Not Adequate	Available And Adequate
Textbooks			
Teachers' Guide to Textbook			
Primary School Social Studies Syllabus			
JSS Social Studies Syllabus			
Training College Social Studies syllabus Wall Map of Ghana			
Wall Map of West Africa			
Wall Map of Africa			
Wall Map of the World			
Topographical Maps			
Globe			
Atlases			
Printed Charts			

Material/Equipment	Not Available	Available But Not Adequate	Available And Adequate
Models			
Specimens			
Projectors			
Newspapers, Magazines & Journals			
Bulletin Boards			

F.   ALLOCATION OF PERIODS

22.   How many periods per week are devoted to teaching social studies in your college in each class?

PS.1:........periods   PS.2.....   periods PS.3...........periods

(b)   How many periods are allotted to:

I) methodology? PS.1 ....periods PS.2:.....periods PS.3......periods

ii) content?   PS.1......periods PS.2......periods PS.3......periods

215

(c) What is the duration of a period?   ....minutes.

23.   How adequate, would you say, is the total number of periods per week devoted to social studies in your college, considering the content of the syllabus and the nature of the methods suggested for teaching?

Very Inadequate [ ] Inadequate [ ] Fairly Adequate [ ] Adequate [ ]

G. CLARITY OF PROGRAMME COMPONENTS

24. In your opinion, how clear are the following aspects of the social studies programme?

Programme Component	Not clear At all	Partly Clear	Fairly Clear	Clear	Very Clear
What social studies means					
Its scope and content					
Its aims and objectives					
Its suggested methods of teaching					
Its procedures for assessing students' progress in I) the cognitive domain					
ii) the affective domain					
iii) the psychomotor domain					

25. List some of the procedures you use to assess the following aspects of your students' learning.
    (a) Their ability to recall, understand, apply, etc. information

    ....

    (b) Their personal traits and attitude towards other people, school and subject (eg. level of tolerance, cooperation, diligence, etc.)

    ....

    (c) Their skill in map drawing, model making, etc.

    ....

26. If you do not assess any of the areas specified in 25 a - c, state the specific area and the reason(s) for not assessing that area.

    ....

H. IMPORTANCE OF PROGRAMME COMPONENTS

27. Indicate the degree of importance you attach to each of the following aims and objectives, content and methods of the social studies programme. Circle 1 for Not Important; 2. for Somehow Important; 3. for Fairly Important; 4. for Important and 5. for Very Important.

Aims and Objectives

(a) Teaching students to understand clearly the
concept of social studies   1 2 3 4 5

(b) Helping students acquire basic knowledge in
economics, geography, government, history and
related subjects so that they can teach social studies
effectively at the basic education level   1 2 3 4 5

(c) Developing in students an awareness of the nature
of the immediate and wider environment   1 2 3 4 5

(d) Helping students acquire appropriate skills with
which to interpret and develop the environment   1 2 3 4 5

(e) Helping students to appreciate what the
environment provides for man and the need to
conserve or improve upon it   1 2 3 4 5

(f) Developing in students the attitudes and values
that weld a nation together and create under-
standing among different peoples of the world.   1 2 3 4 5

(g) Developing in students an appreciation of the
importance of the primary and junior secondary
school social and environmental studies programme
to the future lives of pupils and the future of society   1 2 3 4 5

(h) Helping students to acquire the basic skills and
knowledge of methodology to handle the social
and environmental studies programme at the basic

education level effectively.   1 2 3 4 5

(I) Helping students know how man has been able to
adapt to the environment or change it to suit his
needs.   1 2 3 4 5

Content

(a)   Economics topics   1 2 3 4 5

(b)   Geography topics   1 2 3 4 5

(c)   Government topics   1 2 3 4 5

(d)   History topics   1 2 3 4 5

(e)   Topics related to Principles of social studies   1 2 3 4 5

Methods

(a)   Inquiry or Discovery   1 2 3 4 5

(b)   Problem Solving   1 2 3 4 5

(c)   Team Teaching   1 2 3 4 5

(d)   Fieldwork   1 2 3 4 5

(e)   Discussion   1 2 3 4 5

(f)   Use of Resource Person   1 2 3 4 5

(g)   Role Play   1 2 3 4 5

(h)   Simulation   1 2 3 4 5

(I)   Lecture   1 2 3 4 5

ATTITUDE TOWARD SOCIAL STUDIES

28. To what extent do you <u>agree</u> or <u>disagree</u> with each of the following statements? Circle 1. for <u>Strongly Disagree</u>; 2. for <u>Disagree</u>, 3. for <u>Uncertain</u>, 4 for <u>Agree</u> and 5 for <u>Strongly Agree</u>

(a) Social studies is the most useful approach to the teaching of the social science subjects.　　　1　2　3　4　5

(b) Social studies broadens the scope of the learner and makes him/her understand issues better.　　　1　2　3　4　5

(c) Social studies makes it possible for the student to identify and appreciate the relationship among the various social science subjects.　　　1　2　3　4　5

(d) Social studies makes the learner see his/her learning programme as an interrelated whole.　　　1　2　3　4　5

(e) Social studies develops in students better attitudes and values　　　1　2　3　4　5

(f) Social studies has the potential to produce good citizens better than the individual social science subjects taught in isolation.　　　1　2　3　4　5

(g) Social Studies develops the total personality of the learner.　　　1　2　3　4　5

(h) Teaching economics, geography, government, history etc. as separate subjects is better than teaching them as one subject (social studies).　　　1　2　3　4　5

(I) Learning social studies makes one a "jack of all trades and master of none".　　　1　2　3　4　5

(j) Students teachers should be made to study economics, geography, government, history as separate subjects so that they get a firm

229

foundation to enable them pursue those subjects
at higher levels (eg. university) if they want to.   1 2 3 4 5

(k) Social studies is only good for basic education
pupils.   1 2 3 4 5

(l) Students appear to learn better if they are
taught in separate subjects instead of the social
studies approach.   1 2 3 4 5

(m) Students are always happy when the period for
social studies is over.   1 2 3 4 5

(n) Social studies should be discontinued in the
teacher training colleges.   1 2 3 4 5

29. In comparing the social studies approach to the
separate subject approach, tick [√] the appropriate column in respect of
the following statements.

	Social Studies	Separate Subjects
(a) More relevant to the needs of the individual student.		
(b) More relevant to the present basic education programme in Ghana.		
(c) Better Content		
(e) Better Methodology		
(f) Better assessment procedures.		

30. From the point of view of objectives, content, teaching methods,
assessment procedures and relevance to the needs of the individual student
and the present basic education programme in Ghana, the social studies
programme is (tick one).

Excellent [ ] Very Good [ ] Acceptable [ ] Somehow Acceptable [ ]
Unacceptable [ ]

FACTORS AFFECTING IMPLEMENTATION

31.   What factors do you think <u>impede</u> the effective teaching and learning of social studies in your college?

....

32.   What factors do you think <u>promote</u> the effective teaching and learning of social studies in your college?

....

33.   What is your overall assessment of the implementation of the social studies programme in your college?

....

34.   What, do you suggest, should be done to improve the implementation process?

....

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE TO STUDENTS

IMPLEMENTATION OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAMME IN TEACHER TRAINING COLLEGES IN GHANA: AN EVALUATION

Dear Respondent,

QUESTIONNAIRE TO STUDENTS

The following questionnaire is part of a study being conducted in connection with a masters thesis on the above-stated topic at the Department of Arts and Social Sciences Education, University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast. I shall be very grateful if you could take part in the study. Every information shall be treated as confidential and besides, your anonymity is guaranteed.

Thanks for your co-operation.

COSMAS COBBOLD

=====

General Instruction:

Please, tick [√] the appropriate box [ ] or column; or write in the blank spaces where necessary.

A. **PERSONAL DATA**

1. Your Sex: Male [ ]   Female [ ]

2. Your age: 18-22 years [ ] 23-27 years [ ] 28-32 years [ ] 33 years and above [ ]

3. Your class: PS.1 [ ] PS.2 [ ] PS.3 [ ]

4. With what educational qualification were you admitted into this

college?

Senior Secondary School Certificate   [ ]
School Certificate/G.C.E. '0' Level   [ ]
Higher School Certificate/G.C.E. 'A' Level   [ ]

Others (specify):...

5. How many of the subjects (namely: Economics, Geography, Government and History) did you study before your admission to this college?

None [ ] One [ ] Two [ ] Three [ ] Four [ ]

6. Indicate the highest level to which you studied each of the subjects listed below before your admission to this college.

Subject	S.S.S.	'0' LEVEL	'A' LEVEL	NOT STUDIED
Economics	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[.]
Geography	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Government	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
History	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

B. METHODS OF TEACHING

7. How often do your social studies tutors use each of the following methods in teaching the subject?

Method	Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Frequently
Discussion	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Inquiry/Discovery	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Fieldwork	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Lecture	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

Role Play	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Simulation	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Team Teaching	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Use of Resource Persons	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

8. Which of the methods listed in question 7 above make(s) you understand what is taught better when used by your tutor(s)? (List not more than three in descending order of preference).

....

9. Do you have any problem(s) learning through any of the methods listed in question 7 above? No [ ] Yes [ ]

(b) If 'Yes' list those methods and their respective problems.

C. TEACHING-LEARNING RESOURCES

10.
(a) Does your college have a social studies room? No [ ] Yes [ ]
(b) If 'No', where are teaching-learning materials kept?
(c) Where do you do such practical works as drawing of maps and making of models?
(d) Does your college have a library? No [ ] Yes [ ]

Tick [√] the appropriate column in respect of the listed materials for teaching and learning social studies in your college.

Material/Equipment	Not Available	Available But Not Adequate	Available And Adequate
Textbooks			
Teachers' Guide to Textbook			
Primary School Social Studies Syllabus			
Junior Secondary School Social Studies Syllabus			
Training College Social Studies Syllabus			
Wall Map of Ghana			
Wall Map of West Africa			
Wall Map of Africa			
Wall Map of the World			
Topographical Maps			
Globe			
Atlases Printed Charts			
Newspapers, Magazines and Journals			
Projectors			

235

D ALLOCATION OF PERIODS

13. How many periods per week are devoted to teaching social studies in your class?

3 periods [ ] 4 periods [ ] 5 periods [ ] 6 periods [ ]
7 periods [ ] 8 periods [ ] 9 periods [ ] 10 periods [ ]
11 periods [ ] 12 periods [ ] Other (specify)

(b) How many periods are allotted to
i)content?........periods
ii)methodology:............periods

(c) What is the duration of a period?   minutes

14. How adequate, would you say, is the number of periods per week allotted to social studies in your class, considering what you are supposed to cover in that class and the methods your tutors use to teach the subject?

Very Inadequate [ ] Inadequate [ ] Fairly Adequate [ ]
Adequate [ ]   Very Adequate [ ]

E. CLARITY OF PROGRAMME COMPONENTS

15. In your opinion, how clear are the following components of the social studies programme?

Programme Component	Not clear At all	Partly Clear	Fairly Clear	Clear	Very Clear
What social studies means					
Its scope and content					
Its aims and objectives					
The recommended methods of teaching social studies					
The methods that Tutors should use to assess Students' progress in					
i)the cognitive domain					
ii)the affective domain					
iii)the psychomotor domain					

F. IMPORTANCE OF PROGRAMME COMPONENTS

16. Indicate the degree of importance you attach to each of the following aims and objectives,content and methods of the social studies programme · Circle. 1. for NotImportant, 2. for Somehow Important, 3. for Fairly Important, 4. for Important and 5. for Very Important.

AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

(a) Teaching students to understand clearly the concept
of social studies   1 2 3 4 5

(b) Helping students acquire basic knowledge of

economics, geography, government, history and
related subjects so that they can teach social studies
effectively at the basic education level.   1 2 3 4 5

(c) Developing in students an awareness of the
nature of the immediate and wider environment   1 2 3 4 5

(d) Helping students acquire appropriate skills
with which to interpret and develop the environment. 1 2 3 4 5

(e) Helping students to appreciate what the
environment provides for man and the need to
conserve or improve upon it.   1 2 3 4 5

(f) Developing in students the attitudes and
values that weld a nation together and create
understanding among different peoples of the
world.   1 2 3 4 5

(g) Developing in students an appreciation of
the important of the primary and junior secondary
school social and environmental studies programme
to the future lives of pupils and the future of society. 1 2 3 4 5

(h) Helping students to acquire the basic skills and
knowledge of methodology to handle the social and
environmental studies programme at the basic
education level effectively.   1 2 3 4 5

(I) Helping students know how man has been able
to adapt to the environment or change it to suit his
needs.   1 2 3 4 5

Content

(a) Economics topics   1 2 3 4 5

(b) Geography topics	1	2	3	4	5
(c) Government topics	1	2	3	4	5
(d) History topics	1	2	3	4	5
(e) Topics related to Principles of social studies	1	2	3	4	5

Methods

(a) Inquiry or Discovery	1	2	3	4	5
(b) Problem - Solving	1	2	3	4	5
(c) Team Teaching	1	2	3	4	5
(d) Fieldwork	1	2	3	4	5
(e) Topics related to Principles of Social studies	1	2	3	4	5
(f) Use of Resource Persons	1	2	3	4	5
(g) Role Play	1	2	3	4	5
(h) Simulation	1	2	3	4	5
(I) Lecture	1	2	3	4	5

G. ATTITUDE TOWARDS SOCIAL STUDIES

17. To what extent do you <u>agree</u> or <u>disagree</u> with each of the following statements? Mark each answer with a tick [√] in the appropriate column. Circle 1. for <u>Strongly Disagree</u>, 2. for <u>Disagree</u>, 3. for <u>Uncertain</u>, 4. for <u>Agree</u> and 5. for <u>Strongly Agree</u>

(a) Social studies is the most useful approach to
the teaching of the social science subjects.   1 2 3 4 5

(b) Social studies broadens the scope of the learner
and makes him/her understand issues better.   1 2 3 4 5

(c) Social studies makes it possible for the student
to identify and appreciate the relationship among the
various social science subjects.   1 2 3 4 5

(d)Social studies makes the learner see his/her
learning programme as an interrelated whole.   1 2 3 4 5

(e) Social studies develops in students
better attitudes and values.   1 2 3 4 5

(f) Social studies has the potential to produce
good citizens better than the individual social
science subjects taught in isolation.   1 2 3 4 5

(g) Social studies develops the total personality
of the learning.   1 2 3 4 5

(h) Teaching economics, geography, government,
history, etc. as separate subjects is better than
teaching them as one subject (social studies).   1 2 3 4 5

(I) Learning social studies makes one a "jack of
all trades and master of none".   1 2 3 4 5

(j) Student-teachers should be made to study
economics, geography, government, history as
separate subjects so that they get a firm foundation

to enable them pursue those subjects at higher
levels (eg. university) if they want to.   1 2 3 4 5

_____

(k) Social studies is only good for basic education
pupils.   1 2 3 4 5

_____

(l) Students appear to learn better if they are
taught in separate subjects instead of the social
studies approach.   1 2 3 4 5

_____

(m) I am always happy when the period for
social studies is over.   1 2 3 4 5

_____

(n) Social studies should be discontinued
in the teacher training colleges.   1 2 3 4 5

_____

18.   In comparing the social studies approach to the separate subject
approach, tick [√] the appropriate column in respect of the following
statements.

	Social Studies	Separate Subject
(a) More relevant to the needs of the individual student		
(b) More relevant to the present basic education programme in Ghana.		
(c) Better Objectives		
(d) Better content		
(e) Better Methodology		
(f) Better assessment procedures		

19.   From the point of view of objectives, content, teaching methods,
assessment procedures and relevance to the needs of the individual student

and the present basic education programme in Ghana, the social studies programme is (tick one)

Excellent [ ] Very Good [ ] Acceptable [ ] Somehow Acceptable [ ] Unacceptable [ ]

H. FACTORS AFFECTING TEACHING AND LEARNING OF SOCIAL STUDIES

20. What do you think are the problems facing the teaching and learning of social studies in your college?

....

21. What factors do you think promote the effective teaching and learning of social studies in your college?

....

22. What is your overall assessment of the implementation of the social studies programme in your college?

....

23. What do you suggest, should be done to improve the teaching and learning of social studies in your college?

....

....

APPENDIX C

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR PRINCIPALS

IMPLEMENTATION OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAMME IN TEACHER TRAINING COLLEGE IN GHANA: AN EVALUATION

A. BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

1. Sex: Male [ ]   Female [ ]

2. Age: Under 40 years [ ] 40 - 49 years [ ] 50 - 59 years [ ]
   60 years and over [ ]

3. Overall teaching experience (in years)....................................

4. Rank in the Ghana Education Service (G.E.S.)

   [ ] Principal Superintendent
   [ ] Assistant Director
   [ ] Director
   [ ] Other, Specify:...

5. Highest educational qualification

   [ ] Bachelor's Degree (B.Ed., B.A. B.Sc., etc.)
   [ ] Master's Degree (M.Ed., M.A. M.Sc., M.Phil, etc)
   [ ] Doctorate Degree (Ph.D., Ed.D D.Phil, etc.)
   [ ] Other please specify:...

   (probe for subject area of specialization)

   ....

6. Since when have you been head of this institution?

   ....

B.   PROVISIONS MADE FOR START OF PROGRAMME

7.   When did your institution start offering social studies?

19...........

(a) How did it all start?

....

(Probe for provisions made for the start of the programme before it took off in the college)

....

C.   STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS

8.   What background characteristics do you require of students who want to pursue social studies in your institution?

(I) Academic qualification

   [ ] Senior Secondary School Certificate
   [ ] G.C.E. '0' Level
   [ ] G.C.E. 'A' level

(Probe for subject area requirements):

....

(ii) Other skills attitudes, values, experiences etc.:

....

(a) How do you get to know the characteristics specified above?

(I) Through screening of application forms?

....

(ii) Through interviews (written/oral)?

....

(iii) Any other selection procedure (Specify):

....

(b) What has been the general performance of your students in the Final Parts I and II Social Studies Examinations?

....

(Probe for reasons for the performance)

....

D. TUTOR CHARACTERISTICS

9. What calibre of tutors do you accept to teach social studies in your institution?

I) Professional and Academic qualification

Diploma/Specialist Certificate

Bachelor's Degree (B.Ed., B.A. B.Sc., etc.)

Master's Degree (M.Ed., M.A., M.Sc., M.Phil, etc)

Other, please specify:..

(a) What selection procedure do you adopt to get such tutors?

I) Through screening of application forms?...............................
ii) Through interviews (written/oral)?......................................
iii) Other selection procedure
     (Specify)...

E. ATTITUDE OF TUTORS AND STUDENTS TOWARD SOCIAL STUDIES

10. What is the attitude toward social studies of your:

I) Students who take it?...

ii) Tutors who teach the subject?...

iii) Other students?...

iv) Other tutors?...

F.   STATUS OF SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE COLLEGE

11.   What has been the status of social studies in this college since its introduction (whether all students or only some students take it)?
....

(a) Would you rank social studies among the four most important subjects in your institution?
....

(Probe for those subjects and their relative ranking)
....

FACTORS AFFECTING IMPLEMENTATION

12.   What factors do you think impede the effective teaching and learning of social studies in your institution?
....
(Probe for whether these factors are peculiar to social studies or common to all other subjects)...

(a) What do you suggest should be done to improve the situation (in terms of facilities, materials/equipment and institutional arrangements)?

....

....

APPENDIX D

OBSERVATION GUIDE

I.   VERIFICATION OF AVAILABLE TEACHING-LEARNING RESOURCES AND FACILITIES.

A.   <u>PARTICULARS OF SCHOOL</u>

1.   Name ....

2.   Location (Town/Village and Region)..

3.   Year of starting Social Studies...

B. TEACHING-LEARNING RESOURCES

Materials/Facilities	Not Available	Available but Not Adequate	Available and Adequate
Teachers' Guide to Textbook			
Primary School social Studies Syllabus			
J.S.S. Social Studies Syllabus			
Training College Social Studies Syllabus			
Wall Map of Ghana			
Wall Map of West Africa			
Wall Map of the World			
Topographical Maps			
Globe			
Atlases			
Printed charts			
Newspapers, Magazines, etc.			
Bulletin Boards			
Models			
Specimens			
Projectors			
Social Studies Room			
Library			

II. OBSERVATION OF LESSON

C. PERSONAL DATA OF THE TEACHER

4. Sex: Male [ ] Female [ ]

5. Age (in years):...

6. Number of years of teaching social studies in the training college

....

7. Highest Profession (teaching) qualification:

....

8. Highest academic qualification:...
D. OTHER DETAILS

9. Class:...

10. Number of Students:...

11. Topic:...

12. Date:...Time:..

E. CLASSROOM INTERACTION

Description of Teacher-student Interaction	Dominant Method Suggested by Teacher-Student Interaction	Assessment/Comments of Observer

249

OBJECTIVES OF SOCIAL STUDIES IN GHANA

In Ghana social studies is taught at the Basic Education, Senior Secondary and Post-Secondary Teacher Training levels of the pre-tertiary education system. At each of the levels the subject seeks to achieve particular kinds of aims and objectives.

BASIC EDUCATION

Cognitive Objectives:

Pupils should

1. Have opportunity to learn about their social and physical environment without inhibitions of subject area restrictions.

2. Know the harmonising and disharmonising elements at local national and international levels.

Affective Objectives:

Pupils should

1. Acquire the habit of and an interest in discovery knowledge through inquiry, self-involvement and practical activity.

2. Grow conscious of their capabilities, become development conscious, and eager to contribute towards the survival of themselves and the society.

3. Acquire attitudes and skills to identify their personality as Ghanaians, and an African with a heritage worthy of pride, preservation and improvement.

4. Relate effectively with others in the community the country and others in Africa and the world as a whole.

5. Acquire the habit of withholding judgement to on internal and external issues until all related facts are known and analysed, and develop an appreciation for the need for cooperation, tolerance and interdependence of people of different nations and cultures.

Psychomotor Objectives

Pupils should

1. Acquire some basic skills necessary for the solution of social and environmental problems

2. Develop their creative talents.

3. Acquire the skills of collecting and representing data in graphs, charts and maps.

SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL

The syllabus for social studies at the senior secondary school level is designed to help students to -

1. Be aware of the components of society and the roles and responsibilities of each component

2. Understand the effects of social problems on individuals.

3. Develop enquiry and problem - solving skills for solving personal and societal problems

4. Develop critical and analytical skills for assessing social issues.

5. Develop positive attitudes and values towards individual and societal issues

6. Be aware of the interdependence of society and the environment

7. **Acquire** knowledge about their roles and responsibilities in protecting and improving upon society and the environment.

8. Appreciate the necessity for positive self - concept and good interpersonal relationship.

9. Develop the ability to adapt to the developing and ever-changing Ghanaian society.

10. Acquire skills that will help them develop their full potential.

11. Develop the ability and skills to function as good citizens in society.

TEACHER TRAINING COLLEGE

The social studies programme at the post-secondary teacher training level seeks to provide a framework within which students will be able basically to:

1. Acquire basic knowledge in the social science subjects of geography, history, economic and other related subjects with a view to teaching social studies effectively in the First Cycle Institutions.

2. Develop an awareness of the nature of the immediate and wider environment.

3. Know how man has been able to adapt to the environment or change it to suit his needs.

4. Acquire appropriate skills with which to interpret and develop the environment.

5. Appreciate what the environment provides for man and the need to conserve or improve upon it.
    Develop the right attitudes and values that weld a nation/state together and create understanding among different peoples of the world.

7. Understand thoroughly the concept of social studies.

8. Appreciate the importance of the primary and junior secondary school social studies programmes to the future lives of pupils and the future of society.

9. Acquire the skills and knowledge of methodology to handle the social studies programme in the First Cycle Institutions effectively

APPENDIX F

3-YEAR POST-SECONDARY SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAMME

INTRODUCTION:

A. **AIMS AND OBJECTIVES**

This syllabus should help the teacher trainees to be equipped with both the subject content, the professional knowledge and skills that will enable them to handle confidently the Social Studies Programme at the basic level of education. Hence, our goal in teaching Social Studies in the Teacher Training College should be to help students to acquire knowledge and to effect a change in their attitudes and values in their society and the environment. It is also to equip them with the skills to teach for changes in the values and attitudes of pupils.

B. The syllabus is divided into two sections namely, CONTENT MATERIAL AND PRINCIPLES AND METHODS in line with the examination scheme produced by the examining body, the Institute of Education, University of Cape Coast.

In each section, the syllabus is divided into years, First Year, Second Year and Third Year.

It has not been possible for the committee Panel to divide the syllabus into terms. It is expected that each college will make the necessary division of the syllabus according to its convenience and needs.

It is important that the staff teaching Social Studies should plan, teach and evaluate the various aspects of the syllabus as a team working on the single subject.

As much as possible, emphasis should be laid on problem-solving and the Inquiry or Discovery approaches to learning. To give the student a wider scope and involvement, both the Content Material and the Principles and Methods should be integrated. It is expected that tutors will keep this in mind.

It should be noted carefully that the focus of Social Studies should always be on a People in a Societal setting.

Assessment of students' work should be done not only by written examination but also by Continuous Assessment of the general course work and individual project work. In using continuous assessment, it is essential that all the conditions and requirements of continuous assessment should be met. The final written examination should be a reflection of the integrated approach.

CONTENT MATERIAL
SECTION A: MAP WORK
OBJECTIVES:

At the end of the study of Introduction to Map Reading, Map Interpretation and Statistical Mapping, the learner should be able to:

1. acquire the basic skills in map reading;

2. apply the basic skills to actual map reading;
3. identify features represented on maps in the field;
4. represent data diagrammatically.

FIRST YEAR
INTRODUCTION TO MAP READING

1. Types of maps - What they are, Types.

2. Scales - Different ways of stating the of a map

3. Measurement of distance and areas.

4. Representation of direction and position - True North and Magnetic North; Compass/Cardinal Points, Latitude and Longitude; Position.

5. Conventional signs used on Ghana Maps eg. Are liable to flood, marshy are, settlements etc.

6. Methods of showing relief. Eg. Pictorial, Hachures, Hill Shading etc.

7. Contours and their numbering - Vertical Interval (V.I.) and Horizontal Equivalent (H.E.)

8. Slopes - Steep, Gentle, Concave, Convex etc.

9. Inter-visibility and Section drawing including the drawing of sectional profiles.

10. Gradients.

11. Contour forms of relief features - Using contours to show relief features such as valleys, spurs etc.

YEAR TWO
SECTION A:
MAP INTERPRETATION:

1. Relief Features:

    a) Types of land and surface features, eg. Low and high lands; lagoons, rivers etc.

    b) Location, extent and boundaries.

    c) Trend of hills and valleys eg. Sloping from North East to South West.

    d) Heights and Slopes.

    e) Drainage features.

2. Features of Human Occupation:

    - Description and explanation of

    a) Communications.

    b) Population and settlements.

    c) Occupations.

STATISTICAL MAPPING:

Distribution Maps (quantitative Areal Maps) -

a)   Isopleths.

b)   Choropleths - density maps, dot maps, proportional maps, symbols. etc.

c)   Flow - line maps.

YEAR THREE:

STATISTICAL MAPPING (Contd.)

GRAPHS AND DIAGRAMS

a)   Line Graphs - Simple and Compound.

b)   Bar Graphs (columnar diagrams) - Simple, divergent, compound, percentage etc.

c)   Wind rose diagrams - simple line rose, simple line and circle rose, ribbon or strip rose, composite rose etc.

d)   Divided rectangles and divided circles (Pie Graphs/Pie Charts - Simple and Compound)

e)   Flow diagrams:

     NB: To show climate and weather, production and trade, population etc.

SECTION B:

FIRST YEAR (GHANA)

A.   THE NATURE OF THE LAND OF GHANA

     OBJECTIVES

     At the end of the study, the learner should be able to:

1.   Identify and locate the main physical features of Ghana.
2.   State how these features have been formed and transformed.
3.   Identify and appreciate the inter-relationship of the features and human activities.

     CONTENT:

1.   RELIEF:

     An introduction to the study of the relief features of Ghana, the structure of the underlying rocks and factors accounting for the different relief regions. eg. The Coastal Plains, the Akan dissected plateau, Voltasian sand stone basin, the Savannah high plains and the ridges and escarpments bordering the basin. etc.

2.   DRAINAGE:

     Rivers, lakes and lagoons - their characteristics and importance.

3.   COASTLINE:

     - Features, their characteristics and importance.

4. **THE WEATHER, CLIMATE AND VEGETATION:**

a) **THE WEATHER**
   i) The main elements of weather and their controls.
   ii) Measuring and recording the elements.

b) **CLIMATIC ELEMENTS AND THEIR CONTROLS**
   - eg. temperature, rainfall, humidity, pressure and winds.

c) **VEGETATION**
   Identification of the main vegetation zones eg. Coastal thicket, grassland, the savannah woodland, the tropical rain forest and semi-deciduous forest and factors responsible for these zones.

B. **PEOPLES AND STATES OF GHANA - NATIONAL COMMUNITY**

1. **THE EARLY STATES OF GHANA BY 1800**
   a) The various ethnic groups in Ghana - The Guan, the Akan (Denkyira, Adanse, Asante, Fante, Akyem etc). The Ga-Adangbe, the Ewe, the Gonja, the Mole-Dagbani (Mamprusi, Dagomba etc).

   i) The political and social institutions of these ethnic groups: eg. Ways of life, housing, dancing etc.

   ii) Their origins, rise, growth and expansion, decline and fall.

2. **POLITICAL DEVELOPMENT IN GHANA SINCE 1946**
   a) The Burns Constitution of 1946.
   b) The Coussey Constitution of 1951.
   c) Internal Self-Government of 1951.
   d) The Plebiscite of 1956.
   e) The Independence Constitution of 1957.
   f) The Republican Constitution of 1960; The First Republic (C. P. P.)
   g) The Referendum of 1964.
   h) The First Military Rule (N. L. C.) of 1966 - 69.
   i) The Second Republic (P. P.) of 1969 - 72.
   j) The Second Military Rule (N.R.C. S.M.C.I.S.M.C.II) - from 1972 to June 4, 1979.
   k) The Third Military Rule (A.F.R.C.), from June 4, 1979 to September, 1979.
   l) The Third Republic (P.N.P.) from 1979 to 1981.
   m) The Fourth Military Rule (P.N.D.C.) from 1981 to January 6, 1993.
   n) Other developments - eg. The Fourth Republic - January 7, 1993 to . . . . .

C. **HUMAN RESPONSES TO THE ENVIRONMENT**
1. **ECONOMIC ACTIVITIES:**
   a) Primary Sector of the economy, eg. farming, fishing, lumbering, quarrying, mining etc.
   b) Secondary sector of the economy, eg. processing and manufacturing.
   c) Tertiary Sector of the economy - rendering services like teaching, nursing etc.

2. <u>MONEY AND BANKING AND PUBLIC FINANCE</u>
   a) Money - forms and functions.
   b) Banks - types and functions.
   c) Central Bank and Financial Institutions.
   d) Public Finance - Government revenue and expenditure, budget and development plans.

3. <u>INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL TRADE</u>
   a) Internal trade - Commodities involved, market and marketing problems, functions of distribution agencies eg. middlemen etc.
   b) External trade - Commodities involved (Imports and Exports), trading partners, terms of trade, exchange rates, balance of payment, control of balance of payment problems.

4. <u>INFLATION</u>
   a) Types - Demand pull, Cost push, Imported Inflation etc., and their effects.
   b) Control of inflation in Ghana.
   <u>NOTE</u>: Explain the concepts of demand and supply.

SECTIONS C

SECOND YEAR (WEST AFRICA)

A. <u>THE NATURE OF THE LAND OF WEST AFRICA</u>

   <u>OBJECTIVES</u>:

   At the end year of the study, the learner should be able to:
   1. identify and locate the main physical features of West Africa.
   2. explain how these physical features have been formed and transformed.
   3. classify these features.
   4. identify and appreciate the inter-relationship of these features and human activities.

   <u>CONTENT</u>
   1. <u>RELIEF</u>:
      a) Lowlands - coastal lowlands, river valley etc.
         (Note their formation and general characteristics)
      b) Highlands:
         i) West Africa and part of the Great African Plateau..
            (Note average height, trend and surface features).
         ii) Isolated highlands standing above the general level as a result of folding, faulting, vulcanicity and subaerial erosion.
            (Note the main highland features, eg. Futa Jalon, Guinea Highlands, Adamawa, Jos, etc; their heights and their formation)

   2. <u>DRAINAGE</u>:
      a) Drainage characteristics eg. Rapids, falls, marches, seasonal variations in river flow etc.
      b) Direction of flow.

i) Those flowing directly into the Atlantic Ocean.
ii) Those with no outlet to the sea.
c) The main watersheds separating the river system.
d) Lakes.
    i) Natural - Bosomtwi, Chad, Debo, Faquibine etc.
    ii) Man-made eg. Volta, Kanji etc.
    (Note their formation, characteristics and importance)

3. ## CLIMATE

i) CLIMATE - An Introduction.
    a) The elements of the climate of West Africa.
    b) The main controls of the elements - the movement of the I.T.C.Z. and the resultant prevailing winds, direction from the sea, relief etc.
    c) Ocean currents - the Canary and the Guinea Currents and their importance.

ii) RAINFALL AND HUMIDITY
    a) The distribution of rainfall and humidity (Seasonal and Regional).
    b) Factors controlling the seasonal distribution - movement of the I.T.C.Z. and the resultant prevailing winds.
    c) Factors controlling the regional distribution - distance from the sea, relief and ocean currents.
    d) Types of rainfall - same as in Ghana; refer to Ghana types.

iii) TEMPERATURE
    a) Distribution of temperature - regional and seasonal.
    b) Factors controlling - eg. Distance from the sea.
    c) Rainfall and Clouds, relief and ocean currents.

iv) AIR MASSES, PRESSURE AND WINDS
    a) Difference in the distribution of pressure - vertical and horizontal.
    b) Types of air masses - as in Ghana.

B. ## PEOPLES AND STATES OF WEST AFRICA
1. ## POPULATION AND DISTRIBUTION
    a) MAJOR GROUPS - Identification and location.
        I) The forest peoples - the Ibo, the Yoruba, the Akan, the Mandigo, the Ewe, the Creole etc.
        ii) The Savanna peoples - the Hausa, the Fulani, the Mossi, the Wolof, the Dagomba etc.

NOTE: For (I) and (ii), consider their location, social structure, economic life and culture. A detailed comparative study should be made of two of the ethnic groups selecting one from each of the vegetation zones.

    b) Distribution of Population
    Density and regional distribution pattern. (Note: Migration - Rural-

Urban, Inter-regional, Inter-State etc. Role of ECOWAS in inter-regional migration of population.)

   c)   Settlements
-    i)   Sample study of two settlements - one in the forest zone and the other in the savannah zone.
-    ii)   Urbanization and its problems - Case study of a large town/city compared to a village.
-    iii)   Population control - Note Institutions involved eg. P.P.A.G., G.S.M.P. etc.

2.   **EARLY STATES AND EMPIRES OF WEST AFRICA (1000 AD TO 1800 AD**
-    a)   Western Sudanese States and Empires
  -    - Terkrur, Ghana, Mali, Songhai, Kanem-Bornu, Hausa etc.
-    b)   Forest/Guinea States and Empires
  -    - Dahomey, Oyo, Benin etc.
-    c)   Islam in West Africa.
-    d)   Christianity in West Africa.

3.   **SOME BASIC ELEMENTS OF GOVERNMENT**
-    a)   The theory of state and nation.
-    b)   The organs of government - the Legislature, the Executive and the Judiciary.
-    c)   The Rule of Law - rights, duties and obligations of citizens. (See the Fourth Republican Constitution of Ghana.
-    d)   Forms of government - Unitary, Federal and Con-federal, Military and Civilian, Monarchical and Republican.
-    e)   The electoral system and franchise.
-    f)   The role of the military in West African Politics.

YEAR THREE
SECTION D: (AFRICA AND THE WORLD)

At the end of the study of the unit, the learner should be able to:
1. Name and locate the main physical features of Africa on an African map.
2. Explain how each of these features has been formed and transformed.
3. Classify these features.
4. Describe the physical features of the earth, the distribution and characteristics of the continents and oceans.
5. Discuss the major social, economic and political issues of the world.

1.   **THE NATURE OF THE LAND**
RELIEF: (a) The African plateau.
-    i)   Its nature and formation.
-    ii)   Comparison of the higher southern half and the lower northern half.
-    iii)   The edge of the plateau.
-    iv)   Surface of the plateau - Note: the presence of block mountains,

rift valleys, volcanic mountains, depressions etc and their formations.

b) The fold mountains - Atlas in the north, Drakensberg, Landeberg in the south.
c) The African Coast:
   i) The Coastline - smooth or indented, emergent or submergent, accordant or discordant.
   ii) The Coastal plain.
   iii) African islands - types and formation. (Note: Using the Sahara and the Namib desert, treat wind erosion and resultant landforms.)
d) Glaciation and its resultant landforms.
e) Limestone topography (underground water erosion)

DRAINAGE

a) The main characteristics of the drainage system - the presence of interior basins, interception of river courses by rapid, waterfalls etc, river regimes, river capture, deltas and estuaries. (Note the influence of the plateau.)

b) Lakes:- Those which have outlets to the sea. Eg. Lake Tangayika, Lake Victoria, Lake Tana. Those without outlets to the sea forming basins of inland drainage. Eg. Lake Chad, Lake Rudolf.
(Treat formation of the lakes in general).

2. ## HUMAN RESPONSE TO THE ENVIRONMENT
SOCIAL, ECONOMIC AND POLITICAL ISSUES:
   a) Population data in the tropical world.
   b) Population growth.
   c) Population problems in the tropical world - diet and nutritional diseases.
   d) Racial and ethnic composition.
   e) Some social and institutional practices - customs, taboos, extended family system. etc.
   f) European imperialism and its effect on Africa.
   g) African nationalism - (Note the contributions of Kwame Nkrumah, Sekou Toure, Jomo Kenyata, Julius Nyerere, etc).
   h) The Independent African States and major linguistic groupings - Arab States, Commonwealth Countries, Organization of Countries in Africa and Malagasy (OCAM), Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) etc.
   Note:- Their membership, objectives, achievements and problems of these groupings.
   i) The Organization of African Unity (OAU)
   - Its origin, aims charter, achievements and problems.
   j) Africa and the United Nations Organization.
   k) Racial discrimination in Africa - eg. South Africa and South West Africa (Namibia).
   l) The Middle East Crises and their impact on Africa and the rest of the world.
   m) The Cold War and Africa.
   n) Current topics.

PAPER 2

PRINCIPLES AND METHODS

YEAR ONE

SECTION A: PRINCIPLES

1) **MEANING, SCOPE AND IMPORTANCE OF SOCIAL STUDIES**

   a) **MEANING**
   - Social Studies as an approach to the teaching and learning of the Social Science subjects in an integrated form.

   b) **SCOPE**
   - Social Studies integrates History, Geography, Economics, Civics, elements of Government and Sociology etc.

   c) **IMPORTANCE** to the
   i) learner
   ii) teacher
   iii) society.

2) **AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF SOCIAL STUDIES**
   a) Cognitive domain.
   b) Affective domain.
   c) Psycho-motor domain.

SECTION B: METHODS

1) **LOCAL STUDIES**
   These should include
   a) The school of the learners.
   b) The community in which the school is situated.
   c) The neighbourhood in which the community is located.

2) **FIELD WORK**
   i) **What field work involves.**
   a) The meaning of field work.
   b) Types of field work.
   c) Purpose of field work.

   ii) **Organization**
   a) Preparation before field work eg. teacher's own preparation.
   b) Actual field work - observation, investigation, collection of data etc.
   c) Post field work - reporting and recording.
   d) Exhibition and Evaluation:
   - Arrangements for the exhibition.
   - Evaluation.
   - Preservation of exhibits.

3) THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER AND THE LEARNER

A: THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER
    i)   As an organizer.
    ii) As a learner.
    iii) As a consultant, adviser, guide and stimulator to the learner.

B: THE ROLE OF THE LEARNER
    The learner
    i)   Suggests approaches to the topic.
    ii) Learns to work as part of a small group.
    iii) Is enabled to see the relevance of his work to that of the group and of the class.
    iv) Engages in experimental work - he observes, investigates and discovers information for himself.

YEAR TWO

SECTION A: PRINCIPLES

1. THE INTEGRATED APPROACH
    a) Meaning of the Integrated Approach.
    b) Advantages of the Integrated Approach.
    c) Problems associated with the use of the Integrated Approach.
    d) Suggested solutions to the problems.

2. HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIAL STUDIES
    a) In Ghana.
    b) In Africa.

SECTION B: METHODS

1. STRATEGIES/MODES FOR THE TEACHING AND LEARNING OF SOCIAL STUDIES
    a) Inquiry Approach
    b) Team Teaching
    c) Use of Resource Persons
    d) Case Studies
    e) Sample Studies
    f) Thematic Approach
    g) Simulation Games
    h) Role playing
    i) Co-operative learning.

2. TEACHING AND LEARNING AIDS
    a) Types and examples
    b) Use in the teaching - learning process
    c) Importance

d)   Limitations/Problems and suggested solutions.

3.   **RESOURCES AND MATERIALS**
   a)   Meaning of resources and materials
   b)   Types of resources
   c)   Materials may include books, original documents (written or typed), maps, diagrams, pictures etc.

4.   **LESSON NOTES PREPARATION BASED ON THE FIRST CYCLE TEXTBOOKS AND SYLLABUSES**

YEAR THREE

SECTION A: PRINCIPLES

1.   **PERSONALITY TRAITS AND THEIR DEVELOPMENT**
   a)   Values
   b)   Interests
   c)   Attitudes (Attributes)

SECTION B: METHODS

1   **ASSESSMENT/EVALUATION OF SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAMMES**
   a)   Types of evaluation
   b)   Purpose of evaluation
   c)   Levels of evaluation
   d)   Methods of evaluation.

2.   **THE ART OF QUESTIONING AND ANSWERING**
   a)   Types of questions
   b)   Characteristics/Criteria of a good question
   c)   How to question.

3.   **INDIVIDUAL PROJECT WORK/LONG ESSAY**

PROPOSED RECOMMENDATIONS:
1.   More workshops, seminars etc. should be organized regularly to upgrade Social Studies tutors' knowledge and skills in the teaching and learning of the subject. The H.O.Ds should be called for a workshop on the discussed/written syllabus at the most convinient time.

2.   **Time Table Allocation**:-

First Year - 5 Periods of 40 mins. duration each per week.

Second Year - 5 Periods of 40 mins. duration each per week.

Third Year - 12 Periods of 40 mins. duration each per week.

3. Realising that Geography is the basis of Social Studies, a larger part of the time allocated to the subject should be devoted to it

4. Taking note of the guidlines to the syllabus, it is hareby recommended that every training college offering Social Studies should have a geography-bias tutor in order to cope with the syllabus

5. In view of the fact that the trend in Social Studies is practical - oriented, it is recommended that heads of Institutions offering Social Studies should make it possible for the Social Studies department to embark on field work

6. Students should be guided to study and become familiar with the syllabus and textbooks in use at the basic education level at appropriate times during the course of their training.

7. There is the need for the provision of Social Studies Resource Room where among other things, exhibits, and other materials are displayed and preserved

8. In view of lack of textbooks and other teaching-learning materials relevant to the teaching and learning of Social Studies, it is recommended that the G.E.S. should do well to produce/procure relevant books and materials for use

9. To ensure continuity and unity of the Social Studies programme under the New Educational Reforms, it is suggested that the S.S.S. should adopt the integration of the Social Science subjects as obtains in the J.S.S. and the Post-Secondary.