

AN INVESTIGATION OF A CURRICULUM CHANGE
IN AMERICAN HISTORY IN SELECTED PUBLIC
HIGH SCHOOLS IN MISSOURI

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Submitted to the Faculty of the
Graduate College of the
Oklahoma State University
in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for
the Degree of
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION
1975

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The writer wishes to express his thanks to the people who helped make this study possible.

Appreciation is gratefully extended to Dr. Daniel Selakovich, Chairman, for his work and guidance during the preparation of this study. Special appreciation is given to Dr. Willard North, Central Missouri State University, whose help was indispensable to the study.

The writer expresses gratitude to his wife, Rosalie, and his children, Lisa, Ellen, Barry, and Darin, for their patience, cooperation, and understanding.

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CHAPTER I

NATURE OF THE PROBLEM

Theoretical Basis of the New Curriculum

In Missouri, as in most states, American history is required by law to be taught in the public schools. Therefore, all public schools in the state must decide how the course will be designed and implemented. Ultimately, daily decisions concerning what to teach rests with the teacher.

Trying to teach so many years of American history in a course during one school year prompted some changes in the secondary schools in Missouri. Traditionally, the teachers would come to the last month of school without completing the course. Some complained that they were left with just a few days to teach the period from World War I to the present.

To meet this problem, in 1969, the Missouri State Department of Education recommended major changes in the social studies curriculum for the secondary schools in the state. The traditional ninth grade course "Citizenship" or "Civics" was deleted from the curriculum. "American History" was taken from the eleventh grade and placed in an earlier sequence, grades 7, 8, and 9. Each grade covered

a distinct era of American history without repeating any of the subject content.

Unit Structure of the 1969 Course

The curriculum guide for American history divided the study into three courses: in grade 7, "Background for American History," (European background to 1770), in grade 8, "Early American History," (1770 to 1870); in grade 9, "Modern American History," (1865 to present).

The State Department of Education did not produce study guides for the seventh and eighth grades. The Ninth Grade Social Studies Committee wrote the guide for the third part of the sequence and divided the one year course into four units.

In Unit I, "The Beginning of Modern America," the emphasis is on the political, economic, and social aspects of reconstruction following the Civil War. The major topics emphasized in this unit are:

1. The development of technology
2. The industrial growth in transportation and communication
3. The western expansion of the United States
4. Big businesses organize (83, pp. 16-19).

"Reformation and Progress," Unit II, focuses on the dissatisfaction with the conditions in industrial America. The chronological period covered in this unit is from 1867 to the present. The major topics emphasized in this unit

are:

1. The dissatisfaction of the farmers, laborers, and small businessmen
2. The reforms of the Progressive Era
3. A new society emerges from the changes (83, pp. 20-22).

Unit III is titled "Modern America Experiences World Affairs." The unit includes the events during and after the First World War, from prosperity to depression, from isolation to complete involvement in world affairs. This unit is organized chronologically from 1914 to 1945. The major topics treated in the unit are:

1. World War I
2. The prosperity of the twenties and the depression of the thirties
3. Franklin D. Roosevelt and the New Deal
4. The involvement in world affairs and World War II (83, pp. 23-27).

Unit IV is titled "Postwar America." The major topics emphasized in the unit are:

1. President Truman the Cold War
2. The Korean and Vietnam Wars
3. The administrations of Kennedy and Johnson
4. The violence in the 1960's (83, pp. 28-30).

While the content is not too different in the two courses, there are many new suggestions for teaching the subject. The methodology in teaching the new American history course reflects the influence of the recent ferment in the social studies. The curriculum changes and teaching

innovations promoted by Project Social Studies, the National Defense Education Act, and many privately funded projects are directly responsible for the recommendations in Missouri. Jerome Bruner and Edwin Fenton are the principal leaders who stimulated the changes.

The new ideas in methods emphasize inquiry learning. Students are taught to see relationships and conceptual learning is emphasized.

In the curriculum booklet, "A Guide for Teachers-- Grade Nine" (hereafter referred to as the 1969 Guide), suggestions were made to help students understand relationships. For example, the 1969 Guide suggested studying the reconstruction of society as a continuing process since the Civil War (83, p. 16).

The Learning Process

Being in the center of the learning process, the students are taught how to learn. The teacher becomes more of a director of learning, not a dispenser of information. Students are taught to recognize a learning problem as well as procedures for gathering, analyzing, and evaluating data.

The teacher, for example, tries to get the students personally involved in a problem to be investigated. The students are then provided with a variety of useful information to be analyzed, particularly primary sources. In the sample unit for World War I, the 1969 Guide recommended a

book of readings, The Coming of War 1917, edited by Ernest May.

The new methodology utilizes the multi-media approach in the classroom to reinforce learning. The media then compliments and strengthens the textbook-teacher-student method. For example, in the sample unit on World War I, the 1969 Guide listed

Spectra U.S. History Transparencies Ke 65 (2 overlays), Modern Learning aids Critical Thinking Filmstrips, America Becomes a World Power (1890-1917) MLA 100 World War I, Documentary Photo Aids, American Heritage Records, and a series of 8 film loops on the First World War (83, pp. 13-14).

The multi-media resources have been helpful in providing for more individualized instruction. Film loops, filmstrips, and records are used in several units by students as many times as necessary for learning a single concept or something more comprehensive. Remedial and accelerated work are also helped by multi-media. All of the media resources help the teacher present a more complete system of instruction in the new methodology.

Motivation in the 1969 Guide is stimulated by the student-directed learning process through inquiry and inductive reasoning. The typical question-answer method dominated by the teacher is replaced by divergent questions. Students solving problems after studying alternative solutions are encouraged to be more responsible for their learning because of the active participation in the learning process. Many times the "what if" question leads to an

explosion of potential answers and learning activities. The "spin-off value" leads students to more fully explore a subject.

The recommendations made in the 1969 Guide for the new course, "American History--1865-Present," have emphasized the unit of the teaching-learning process. The content and the methods of teaching are not separate entities but highly integrated in the student-centered classroom. This, more than anything else, makes the new course different in methods of teaching.

Objectives of the New Course

Following the recent trend, the objectives for the new history course are stated as "desirable behavioral outcomes." Instead of a long, detailed list of objectives, the Committee writing the curriculum guide suggested only eleven which deal primarily with attitudes, not specific skills. The teachers or schools are expected to improvise and write their own objectives, using the curriculum guide as a precursory base. The desired outcomes are:

1. An attitude of self-confidence and a sense of belonging in a group.
2. An attitude of curiosity and pursuit of interests.
3. An attitude that all human beings, regardless of race, color or creed, are entitled to equal rights and liberties.
4. A respect for regulations, laws, and all constituted authority.
5. An attitude of willingness to face social problems and work toward their solution.

6. An attitude consistent with democratic ideals, such as cooperation, open-mindedness, social concern, and creativeness.
7. An attitude of interest in other peoples and places, and their contribution to society.
8. An attitude of persistence and a sense of responsibility in carrying out an activity.
9. A respect for the opinions of other group members when they differ from one's own.
10. An attitude of willingness to accept responsibility for leadership in group activities and to accept leadership of others when they are more qualified.
11. An attitude of belief and respect for the process of scientific thinking as applied to social problems (83, p. 7).

In addition, the Ninth Grade Social Studies Committee listed the following objectives for the new course:

1. The ability to make value judgments for effective living in a changing world
2. Compassion and sensitivity for the needs, feelings, and aspirations of all other human beings
3. Help the student develop inquiry skills with which he can separate truth from falsehood
4. To better understand events of the present by relating them to other historical periods (83, p. 1).

Since the public schools in Missouri are not required by state law to adopt the recommendations of the State Department of Education, all of the schools have not accepted the proposed changes. However, many schools have either made the changes or are in the transition process.

The new course outlined by the Missouri State Department of Education is very different from the traditional

eleventh grade American history course. Teaching American history in a two year sequence is the most obvious change.

Other recommended changes in the curriculum are:

1. World Geography in the tenth grade
2. Modern World History in the eleventh grade
3. International and Intercultural Relations in the twelfth grade
4. Electives included Economics, Sociology, Human Relations, Psychology, Anthropology, and Negro History (84).

Unit Structure of the Traditional Course

The previous curriculum guide for the social studies, published in 1964, included a three-cycle plan for American history. The course was taught from the colonial period to the present in grades five or six, eight, and eleven.

The earlier senior high social studies curriculum was outlined in "A Guide for Social Studies--Grades Ten, Eleven, and Twelve" (hereafter referred to as the 1964 Guide).

The eleventh grade course objectives, instead of being behaviorally stated, offered students the opportunities during the year to develop several general "understandings" of the American system and way of life. Each of the eight units was accompanied by an understanding to be gained from studying the unit. They were:

- Unit 1 Understanding that colonial life influences our American way of living
- Unit 2 Understanding the forces which brought about the establishment of a new independent nation

- Unit 3 Understanding the problems of an expanding nation
- Unit 4 Understanding how our nation was preserved
- Unit 5 Understanding how our government reacted to the problems of a new industrial age
- Unit 6 Understanding how events involved us in world affairs
- Unit 7 Understanding how the United States has met the problems of prosperity and depression
- Unit 8 America's contributions in times of war and peace (82, pp. 74-111).

In the 1964 Guide a general outline was provided for each unit with a suggested study time for the unit.

Preceding the unit outline was a brief summary, suggested approaches in teaching, and concepts to be understood from the study of the unit. The summary contained a few of the main events and ideas in the unit.

The 1964 State-Wide Secondary Curriculum Committee suggested four questions which must be answered in discussing the teaching-learning process. "What should be taught? When should it be taught? Why should it be taught? How should it be taught?" Too often, the Committee noted, there are "too many social studies classes throughout the state" using only "the question and answer (recitation) method or the lecture method" (82, p. 22).

Comparison of Methods of the 1964-1969 Courses

No one method was recommended as the best method for all teachers. However, since the content in the early 1964

Guide was organized through the "unit-problem method" the Committee recommended this method to be used with the "laboratory method, cooperative group method, socialized recitation method, and group discussion method" (82, p. 22).

The Committee writing the 1964 Guide believed that these methods offered more flexibility in dealing with individual differences as well as being more "adaptable to the practice of grouping pupils for effective learning" (82, p. 22).

There were certain details in teaching that were common to most methods. They were:

1. Identifying the over-all problem
2. Developing readiness for study
3. Defining sub-topics or questions related to the problem
4. Assigning and motivating
5. Reviewing and compiling resource materials
6. Arriving at solution to the problem
7. Evaluating (82, p. 22).

The 1964 Guide stressed the importance of the teaching-learning process based on the "scientific method of solving problems." Therefore, the content in the unit organization centered around a "central problem and related sub-topics" to help students "see the total scope and relatedness of the subject matter to be studied." The title of the unit became the central problem in the structure (82, p. 22).

In applying the recommended methods the teacher, after

identifying the unit or problem, asks the following questions:

1. Why do we need to study this problem?
2. What do we already know about this problem?
3. What do we need to find out about this problem?
4. Where can we find what we need to know?
5. This step is when individuals or groups may be assigned questions for study with suggested activity related to the problem (82, pp. 23-24).

The suggested approach to the teaching of a unit consisted of approximately three to five questions about the content. For example, in Unit 2, the following questions were asked:

1. How did the spirit of independence give way to the recognition of the demands for interdependence among the states?
2. What experiences and preparation did the leaders have which prepared them for the task?
3. How was the Constitution made flexible enough to serve its people to the present day?
4. Why has our Constitution been called a marvelous achievement?
5. How will the student's knowledge of the Constitution aid him in his own group activities? (82, p. 77)

Comparison of Content in the 1964-1969 Courses

Content in the traditional course outlined in the 1964 Guide was essentially the same as in the 1969 Guide. However, in the recent change to a two year sequence, teachers

will have more time for in-depth studies without the previous rushing to finish the book or omitting contemporary history. This was true because teachers tried to teach the complete history of the United States and when hurrying through the course some of the material had to be omitted or briefly mentioned. The two year study of American history gives the teacher more time to teach the content previously taught in the survey course. This means that more time can be spent studying selected eras and topics in American history or on skills and related learning activities.

The 1964 Guide stressed more details while "American History--1965-Present" emphasized more general concepts. The 1964 Guide suggested eight "concepts which students should understand after studying" Unit 5. Among them were:

1. Modern America began with the Industrial Revolution in America
2. Natural resources, inventions, and increase in population helped to speed growth and expansion
3. In America under democratic principles, agriculture, industry, capital, labor, and political reforms developed together (82, p. 92).

The comparable unit in the 1969 Guide had one concept with five parts. The suggested single concept was "America changes its way of living." The five parts were:

1. from agricultural to industrial
2. from the domestic system to mass production
3. from single proprietorship to corporation
4. from servitude to opportunities

5. from untapped natural resources to industrial use of resources (83, p. 19).

The 1964 Guide emphasized more facts, while the new course in the 1969 Guide emphasized concepts. The traditional course was more rigid and teacher oriented in contrast to the more flexible, student oriented new course.

Statement of the Problem

Has the new approach made any difference in the learning outcomes of the students in Missouri? Does it make any difference whether the students learn American history in the eleventh grade or in junior high? In Missouri, the State Department of Education obviously believes it does. Its recommendation for change was predicated on the fact that students will learn more effectively in the three year sequence without the repetitive eleventh grade course.

The purpose of this study, broadly stated, is to investigate the effectiveness of the curriculum change in American history in the state of Missouri.

More specifically, the objective is to determine whether content taught in certain Missouri high school history classes can best be learned by selected students as determined by an identical written objective test given to two groups representing the old and the new curriculum plans.

The basic hypothesis is: There will be no significant difference in test performances between students who complete a one year American history course in the eleventh

grade and ninth grade students who have completed a three year sequence in American history.

Scope and Limitations of the Study

This study differs in some respects from the usual two-group design in that the subjects are not equated in terms of age and the length of time spent in the study of the subject. The students in the new program have two years to learn American history as opposed to one year in the other group. However, the students in the traditional course are two or three years older which may increase the amount of knowledge and understanding which could be attributed to maturation and experience (94, p. 141).

A limitation of the study is the lack of a pretest. Usually when pretests are given it is for the purpose of adjusting posttest scores for initial subject differences. In this study it was impossible to give pretests because of the time factor involved in testing two groups of students with different ages, grade levels, and maturity.

The control factor or variable is based on the IQ scores of the students and not a pretest. The IQ generally increases with age to about 15 so being tested at different times is not a problem because of the stabilizing trend by this age. Stanley and Hopkins (81, p. 337) reported that "most studies show a marked tendency for performance on intelligence tests to begin to level off at about age 13 and 14." Bloom (9, p. 81), Engle and Snellgrove (25, p. 171),

Speeth (80, pp. 2-8), and Noll (68, p. 290) reported similar findings. After the scores were tabulated the students were divided into high and low ability groups at the 60th percentile level.

Significance of the Study

The writer recognizes those limitations and unmanageable variables in the study but believes the research very worthwhile. The results should be helpful to such groups as teachers, administrators, students, curriculum planners, and interested laymen. They would be given an indication of how the students' performances compare with the students' abilities in the two different groups.

There has not been, and the writer knows of no plans for, an evaluation of this curriculum change in Missouri. An analysis of the study should answer many questions about the relative merits of the curriculum recommendations of the State Department of Education for American history taught in public schools in Missouri. Some of the questions would be:

1. Is there a significant difference in test performance between high and low ability groups of students on an American history achievement test?
2. Does it make any difference on the test scores whether students are taught American history in the eleventh grade or in the eighth and ninth grades?

3. Is there a greater difference between the performance of ability levels at one grade level than the other?

Summary

In this chapter a general description and purpose of the study is given, as well as the significance of the study.

Few changes or recommendations in the social studies curriculum are ever made on a statewide basis in Missouri. This chapter describes one of the infrequent changes in the American history course. The tradition had been to teach American history in a cycle of three grades—five, eight, and eleven. The 1969 revision eliminated the eleventh grade course and recommended a seventh and eighth grade, two-year course.

Chapter I compares the traditional course with the course recommended by the Missouri State Department of Education. Comparisons include unit structure, methodology, and objectives.

The problem presented by the recommended curriculum change is defined and delimited in the initial chapter. From the problem the basic hypothesis used in the study is developed and stated.

The following chapter will contain a selected review of literature and the historical development of American history courses in the public school curriculum.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The social studies curriculum has been slow in adopting changes in the course offerings and in the content of the courses. Even though courses in the social studies are commonly required by law to be taught in the public schools, it is a slow process in making changes from the initial curriculum arrangement or structure (79, p. 3). Many educators interested in this educational area argue that there has been relatively little variation in basic organization in the 20th century (75, p. 1).

American History Course in

Early America

American history was taught in the schools soon after independence was gained. In the colonial period no attention was given subjects resembling contemporary social studies. However, early in our nation's history the value of history and its contribution to American society was realized. In an effort to aid the teaching of the subject, an American history textbook for use in the schools was published in 1787, the year the Constitution was written. Stimulated by the patriotism of the War of 1812 at least

six American history textbooks were published by 1815 according to Fraser and West (33, p. 367).

Evidence indicates American history was first introduced into the curriculum in the upper elementary grades. Later, a cycle plan was developed which included the middle grades of the elementary school and the senior high school. The cycle or spiral plan is the way schools arrange the sequence of courses in the social studies. The idea is to teach a subject, topic, skill, or attitude in the lower grades and expand them in later grades. For example, teach American history in the middle grades and repeat it in the junior and senior high school. More specifically, teach the course in the 5th, 8th, and 11th grades.

In the decades prior to the Civil War the number of schools offering a course on the history of the United States continued to grow; but was not universally adopted as part of the curriculum.

Carr (14, pp. 3-5) reported that by the time of the Civil War only five states, by law, required American history to be taught. It became more widely accepted in the secondary schools, usually grades 7 and 8. By 1900, almost all states required the teaching of American history.

The social studies curriculum had now expanded to generally include history in the secondary and upper elementary grades. Fraser and West (33, p. 369) found that "in 1895-96 over 70 per cent of the 432 colleges and

universities included United States history in their entrance requirements."

History was being accepted more in the schools but there was no uniformity as to grade placement or time spent in the course. By the 1890's this began to change

Era of National Curriculum Committees

In the 1890's there began the formation of a series of committees and commissions that were to develop permanent patterns of curriculum design. The Madison Conference had great influence on the social studies curriculum. It produced the Committee of Ten of Secondary Schools studies established by the National Education Association in 1892. This Conference, dominated by university social scientists, recommended American history to be taught in grades 7 and 11 (33, pp. 372-373).

The curriculum pattern for history during the next twenty or thirty years was dominated by the Committee of Seven, appointed by the American Historical Association in 1898. This Committee, similar in composition to the earlier one, had only one member from the secondary schools (33, p. 373).

The Committee of Seven made recommendations on methods as well as grade placement of courses. The Committee, in 1899, made "the most influential report ever prepared in the field of social studies curriculum" according to Wesley and Wronski (91, p. 44). The sequence the Committee recommended

was generally followed for more than twenty years. It suggested the teaching of American history in two cycles during the junior high and senior high school years. The sequence of courses recommended by the Committee of Seven for the senior high grades was the following:

- Grade 9 Ancient history
- Grade 10 Medieval and modern European history
- Grade 11 English history
- Grade 12 American history and civil government
(33, pp. 372-374)

The influence of the American Historical Association remained strong. Its Committee of Eight, reporting in 1909, recommended that the social studies courses to be taught in the lower grades, usually four and five, followed by the European background of American history in grade six. Social studies was finding wider acceptance in the lower and middle grades. However, after 1920, Carr (14, p. 4) noted that the social studies courses decreased in the elementary grades while its content was replaced by more general social studies concepts. The more formal and systematic teaching of history was left to the intermediate and upper grades.

As a result of the First World War, citizenship became an important goal in the social studies curriculum with less emphasis on history as a discipline. This came primarily through the recommendations of the Committee on Social Studies of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, created by the National Education Association in 1916. This Commission recommended that American history be

taught in grade eight and again in grade eleven (14, pp. 4-5).

It is interesting to note a significant difference in the Committee on Social Studies from previous committees. Its membership included only two historians out of twenty-one. Most of the members were teachers or administrators from secondary schools (33, p. 374).

Earlier, the Committee of Seven had recommended a cycle of courses because of the tendency of students to quit school when reaching the maximum compulsory attendance age or completion of grade 8 or 9. The repetition of courses was also considered important to learning. Smith and Cox (79, pp. 2-3) attributed this rationale to the "assumption that continued and frequent exposure to information would lead to the mastery of the information."

This curriculum sequence became the standard for many schools. Since 1916, the year the Committee on Social Studies reported, few changes have been made. The typical social studies curriculum established at that time was:

- Grade 7 European history or geography
- Grade 8 American history
- Grade 9 Civics
- Grade 10 European history
- Grade 11 American history
- Grade 12 Government or Problems of Democracy
(79, pp. 2-3).

In 1967, Cox and Massialas (22, p. 293) reported similar results following a national probability sample of high

school seniors rather than school offerings. The social studies curriculum in grades ten through twelve was very similar to the pattern established by the Committee on Social Studies in 1916. The sequential arrangement had varied only slightly.

Several studies have supported the critics' charge that the social studies lacked innovation in the grade placement of content. Typical of these are studies made by Masia and Jones (59), and Haggerson and Weber (79, pp. 2-4). In addition, Moreland (65) studied 500 school curricula, following the cross-section pattern of the 1916 study, and found very little change. However, Smith and Cox (79, p. 4) reported in 1969, a study showing a majority of the 800 school districts surveyed were either in the process of, or anticipating, a revision of their curriculum.

In partially defending the cycle plan, McLendon (62, pp. 218-220) asserted its wide acceptance can be traced to its being "comprehensible to teachers, high school students, and to the public." The cycle or spiral plan was a "convenient means for arranging subjects, topics, and skills" to be presented in the elementary, intermediate, and secondary grades. The spiraling effect should begin at the lower level with elementary skills and concepts with progressively more difficulty in the advanced grades. A frequent weakness, McLendon believed, was the lack of difficulty in the advanced grades. Combined with this weakness was the fact that many teachers in the upper grades do not know what was taught in

the lower grades. Nevertheless, it was possible to gain through the cycle plan at the higher grade levels because of the added age and experience. An additional argument made by McLendon for the cycle plan was the increased retention of content. However, he presented no research to support this claim.

There were others who supported the cycle plan for different reasons. Teachers oriented toward textbooks had encouraged uniformity and related pattern of scope and sequence which tended to establish a pattern of grade placement for history courses. This was helpful to the mobile students who changed schools frequently (41, pp. 37-38).

The trend toward uniformity of curriculum was strengthened when it became common practice to write courses of study and syllabi. Once a program was written its permanence increased with years and use. Teachers, administrators, curriculum groups, and publishers became reluctant to change traditional patterns. The curriculum guides may be modified or influenced by the efforts of other schools or states, but they continued to be a major factor in maintaining the cycle of American history, usually in grades five, eight, and eleven (41, pp. 37-38).

The cycle of courses, however, had a harmful influence according to many educators. It was the conclusion of Richard E. Gross (41, pp. 38-39) that this repetition in the social studies, particularly the eighth grade United States history course, was the "single greatest bottleneck

in the evolution of a timely and comprehensive program that gives necessary attention to contributions from all of the social sciences...." But he gave no supporting research as evidence.

Among the writers agreeing with Gross on the problem of repetition was James Quillen (71, p. 346). While Quillen acknowledged the repetitive fault, he varied the point of emphasis. He believed the problem was more acute in the high school, not in the eighth grade. The eighth grade and the middle grades American history courses were better delineated than in the eleventh grade when compared to the eighth grade course. The courses in the latter grades repeated the chronological account of the same content; frequently neither course completed the material on the United States history after World War I.

The traditional curriculum, nevertheless, will continue in many schools for a number of years. What is taught in the curriculum has been considered a local and state prerogative symbolizing local control over the schools. It is also another way of meeting community needs.

Influence of the Krey Commission

While the repetitive structure of the curriculum remained through the decades following World War I, there were indications of future changes. National committees studying the social studies began to vary from the past sequential arrangement of courses. In the 1960's, the Commission on

the Social Studies of the American Historical Association directed by A. C. Krey (2) was the outstanding national group working on social studies revision.

This Commission, which included historians, psychologists, social scientists, and other educators began its work in January, 1929 and ended in December, 1933. The eighteen members on the Commission represented a variety of educational backgrounds but all were administrators or college professors. Professor Krey of the University of Minnesota served as chairman during the three years of preliminary planning as well as chairman during the work of the Commission.

Although the Commission decided not to recommend a sequence of courses for the social studies, it was the first national group to take a broad perspective of the social studies and education in American society. The early attention of the Commission was given to "philosophy, purpose, and objectives" in education so that its later work would reflect this defined position. The philosophic "frame of reference" showed the importance of the preparation for life of the individual and the coming generation in a democratic America (2, p. 156).

To achieve the goal of preparing students, the Krey Commission recommended that the schools include in their curriculum the necessary materials to prepare the students for the changes in the future. The selected materials and accompanying activities must be within the capabilities of

the learners (2, p. 47).

The Krey Commission recommended that the content for the social studies come primarily from these areas: physical and cultural geography, economics, cultural sociology, political science, and history. When arranged for teaching, they should give a broad, comprehensive view of civilization. The organization and selection of content materials from these areas should be done by the teaching staff in cooperation with social scientists (2, p. 49).

The Krey Commission suggested that the social studies be closely integrated with the rest of the curriculum to provide a more complete and unified plan of education. The courses, especially American and world history, should be coherently organized from the kindergarten through the junior college (2, p. 48).

Organization of the social studies instruction, the Krey Commission believed, should begin in the earliest grades. It should be determined by the experience and ability of the learner and relate to real life, the people and institutions of the community, not a remote place elsewhere in the world (2, p. 55).

Many times the Krey Commission recommended using actual participation in activities of the school and community. The school can help coordinate its work with the useful activities in the community. For example, the governing of the school correlated with the local political structure and operation. The idea would further be implemented by teaching

about the development of the neighborhood in a world society. The geography, social progress, and institutions of the community would be studied and contrasted with other societies (2, pp. 58-59).

Furthermore, the Krey Commission suggested, the secondary level would emphasize the development of man and his culture through the centuries. As this concept progressed through the grades it would be continually referred to contemporary America. Examples of the present institutions of man would be examined along with ideas of economics, government, sociology, and the forces and influences of regional geography. Reading of historical literature and documents would be emphasized to help develop the skills of analysis, verification, inquiry, and criticism (2, p. 61).

In 1934, the Krey Commission gave a summary of its policy on page 66 of its Report and Conclusions. The four statements were:

1. The Commission refused to endorse any curriculum organization as best for accomplishing its recommendations and to be used in all schools throughout the nation.
2. The Commission believed the general principles it outlined permitted the schools to adapt to its own local conditions. The specific suggestions for change should come from able teachers in the system.
3. It was impossible to have a single educational frame of reference applicable to all subjects in the selection and organization of materials.
4. The most important job of the social studies teacher was to identify and clarify his purposes and adapt the 'substance of his instruction to those purposes' (2, p. 66).

The Krey Commission departed from procedures established by the previous committees. Before it issued any reports the Commission would thoroughly investigate its expanded views of the social studies. It conducted its own surveys and tests before discussing and writing its reports. Between 1932 and 1937 the Commission published fifteen volumes and the Conclusions (91, pp. 45-46).

Reaction to the National Committees

Edgar B. Wesley (89, pp. 448-449) thought the work of the Commission was very controversial because of the national unrest during the time of the Great Depression and the method of expressing its philosophy in the report. The reports of the earlier committees, with limited perspectives and viewpoints, were more readily accepted by educators and the public. Many critics complained, Wesley said, of the Commission being "radical," "socialistic," or "communistic." The use of the word "collectivism" was particularly confusing and misunderstood.

The trend of the national committees was continued in the 1940's by the Committee on the Function of the Social Studies in General Education. This Committee was part of the Commission on the Secondary School Curriculum of the Progressive Education Association. Like the previous committee, it did not recommend any specific program for the secondary schools. It proposed that programs be devised

which considered the needs and experiences of the students (33, pp. 378-379).

Another study which was influential but brought no drastic changes in the sequences of courses was conducted by the Committee on American History in Schools and Colleges. It was jointly sponsored by the National Council for the Social Studies, the American Historical Association, and the Mississippi Valley Historical Association. The Committee's main action was to respond to the charges of the New York Times that students were not well prepared in American history. Under the directorship of Edgar B. Wesley (91, p. 49), the Committee repeated earlier findings that United States history was taught to practically every high school graduate for three years. It also concluded that any deficiencies in teaching history were due to the quality of teaching, not in the quantity.

The Wesley Committee made specific suggestions for course content in the grades where American history was taught. The content was stressed in chronological periods for each grade level. The intermediate grades would emphasize the colonial period, junior high would study the period from 1776 to 1876, and the senior high students would study the period from 1865 to the present (90, p. 71).

New Directions in the 1950's and 1960's

A definite change of direction for curriculum planning took place in the late 1950's. The National Council for the

Social Studies appointed a Committee on Concepts and Values in the Social Studies. The Committee strongly condemned the outmoded grade-placement arrangement of content and instead prescribed fourteen basic concept areas to serve as nuclei for teaching content. There was no attempt to plug them in to a specific grade level or organizational design. The conceptual plan of broad generalizations was a definite harbinger of things to come in the 1960's (69).

In the decade of the sixties several ideas and plans for the history courses began to appear. Early in this period a cry for change was made by a former history professor Charles Keller (53) in his article, "Needed: Revolution in the Social Studies." To correct certain deficiencies in the social studies he suggested a more formal study of American history and European background in grades 7 and 8 followed by world history in grade 9, and American history in grade 11. Keller's innovation was the stress on the "post-holed" method of teaching history. This meant that the course would concentrate on selected areas or eras to be taught more in depth. His plan eliminated the age-old problem of trying to repeat the survey courses.

While admitting the post-hold method may be beneficial when studying certain historical epochs, John Gibson (37, pp. 68-69) believed it also had definite disadvantages. He thought postholing "may do serious injury to the sense of continuity and chronology that would appear to be essential

to explaining how and why civilization is where it is today."

The Curriculum Handbook for School Administrators repeated a recommendation similar to that of Professor Keller.

In the handbook, Conner and Ellena (20, p. 280) recognized the fault of comprehensive, sequential planning of curriculum to be the reliance of grade placement for specific content. The cycle of United States history courses being taught in a repetitive survey must be replaced by more depth studies. The grade placement of content must be delimited so that topics "may be studied more intensively."

Massialas and Smith (61, pp. 41-42) learned that the Indiana Department of Public Instruction was asking questions similar in nature about courses being repeated. In 1963, the Committee for Revising the Social Studies Curriculum recommended American history be taught in grades 8 and 9. It provoked heated discussion. The following questions were typical:

Upon what basis does one assume that the teaching of American history is more appropriate to grade 11 than to grades 8 or 9? Does the assignment of this course to the intermediate grades imply that the content of the course is less important or will be taught less well than in the junior year of high school? Does this imply that American history is being de-emphasized?

No definitive answers were found for these questions in all the schools, but they were common inquiries when considering major changes in the curriculum organization.

One plan by Ralph W. Cordier (21) in 1962, utilized the

most frequently used grades for United States history in a three-year packaged course in American Studies. Students in grade 8 would study United States history to 1876; grade 9 included state and local history for one-third of the year, and national, state, and local government for the rest of the year; and United States history since 1876 in grade 11. The emphasis again was on course sequence but without the repetition found in the survey courses.

The research into the problem of making the social studies more viable and dynamic was growing and producing alternatives which held great promise for curriculum building. The early 1960's saw many diverse groups and individuals trying to make the content more teachable, interesting, and with the utilization of more varied methods of learning. How students learned was being stressed along with greater emphasis on content. From school boards to research in the universities; from state departments of education to government financed NDEA projects came the quest and response to the demand that the social studies curriculum be overhauled.

Some of the suggested improvements for the curriculum were:

1. instead of the curriculum cycle there should be a sequential or vertical design of content, methods, discussion skills
2. disciplines of the social sciences would be emphasized in the new courses offered, such as sociology, anthropology, and introduction to the social sciences
3. teachers in colleges, high schools, and junior high and elementary schools would be better informed on what the others were doing (5, p. 306).

In June, 1962, the Division of Curriculum Development of the Board of Education of the City of New York (5, p. 307) took action in acknowledging the ferment in the social studies. The Board issued a tentative guideline for its K-12 social studies curriculum. Included in the guideline was the admonition that "repetition of content in the K-12 program should be carefully planned for educational purposes; all other repetition should be eliminated."

The University of Minnesota's Project Social Studies Curriculum Center focused its attention on developing a list of criteria for areas to be studied. James Becker (7, pp. 69-70) described the work in the 39th Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies:

In closely tying content to grade placement the Center asked: Is the topic suited to the maturity level and abilities of pupils at each grade level? Can it be taught better and more quickly at another level? Are there other important topics which can be understood more easily at that level? Since the difficulty of topics at each grade level is related to the previous experience of pupils at that level, can some experiences needed as background for this topic be included at earlier grade levels?

The Curriculum Center also investigated the interests of the students.

Can the topic be related to the interests of pupils at that level? Does the topic fit together with other topics at a grade level to form some kind of coherent theme of study so that pupils will find it easier to organize information into meaningful structures than they would if the topics remained isolated in their minds?

These criteria challenged the traditional placement of content in specific grades. The guidelines incorporated

several innovations of the schools in the social studies curriculum and encouraged the trend to continue. There was also more concern shown for understanding the tools of the discipline and not just learning content.

Another productive NDEA project was the Carnegie Social Studies Curriculum Development Center established in 1963. It was supported by funds from the United States Office of Education and directed by Edwin Fenton, Professor of History at Carnegie-Mellon University in Pittsburgh. The course materials developed at the Carnegie Center for grades 9 through 12 could be used separately and in different grade levels. However, the complete program was "sequential and cumulative so that what has been taught in one course is used, expanded, and reinforced in succeeding courses," as explained by Frances Haley in Social Education (43, pp. 735-736).

Based on the idea that more difficult concepts can be taught at an earlier age than previously thought, Fenton worked on producing methods and materials that would enable children to move more rapidly through certain stages of their development. Fenton and other curriculum researchers were taking seriously the theory in Jerome Bruner's (11, p. 33) book The Process of Education that "any subject can be taught effectively in some intellectually honest form to any child at any stage of development." But Fenton (29, pp. 9-10) added, students without special preparation seem to develop certain abilities in several "identifiable

stages" which should influence the type of work teachers expected from the students. Moreover, he noted, developmental sequence was important in the affective domain as well as in the cognitive skills but the values of the students changed more slowly in the secondary grades (29, p. 19).

If Bruner was correct in hypothesizing that any subject can be taught in any developmental stage if the appropriate language and structure were used, then does it make any difference whether American history or any subject is better taught in grades 8 and 9, or in grade 11? From the work of Piaget and others, Bruner suggested three stages of learning. The first stage was the pre-school, "preoperational" stage, up to age five or six. The child was more concerned with learning the language and the external world. The child was unable to deal with concepts and abstractions (11, p. 34).

In Bruner's second stage, "concrete operations," the manipulation of objects and symbols was learned. Between the ages of six and ten the student learned to do many of these manipulations internally. The use of symbols increased so that they represented things and relationships. These operations became more complex in the intellectual development (11, p. 35).

The third stage was called "formal operations." Somewhere between the age of ten and fourteen the child moved from the use of concrete terms to a higher level of development with the ability to use hypothetical situations. The student can use logical reasoning in the mental process to

suggest alternative solutions and relationships which can be tested later for verification. The limited concrete operations were now manifested by abstract thinking in the process of solving problems. Conceptualization was now taking place during this stage of "formal operations" (11, p. 38).

The latter part of the third stage occurred when students were usually in grades 8 and 9 and studying American history in the revised curriculum in Missouri. It was possible that some students will not have advanced sufficiently in the "formal operations" stage to deal with concepts and abstractions that should be included in a high school history course. Furthermore, for some students, the junior high course will be the only time they will be studying the history of the United States.

If the students delayed taking American history until the eleventh grade, or two more years, virtually all will be operating on Bruner's highest developmental stage of learning. American history taught in the eleventh grade can then be taught on a higher plane of instruction than if taught in the ninth grade. Concrete operations of the instructional materials can be replaced by the "formal operations" of learning. Both inductive and deductive relationships now have greater potential as methods to be used by the teacher. At this stage some students bring into the classroom a more diverse and enriched background of personal and educational experiences upon which the course content will have more meaning and impact.

Somewhat similar to Fenton's work in stressing the inquiry method was the Amherst Project of the Committee on the Study of History. This Project prepared separate units which could be used in various social studies or humanities courses, but intended for eleventh grade students. While the teaching units cut across course lines, they made no special provisions for different backgrounds, abilities, and earlier courses (67).

Other programs were not as rigid in grade placement. Instead, emphasis was on a more conceptual approach in the preparation of teaching materials to be used in a wide range of grades.

Writing for the Science Research Associates, Bruce Joyce (51, p. 28) suggested three curriculum plans based on the conceptual approach. They were based on personal development, citizenship education, and the teaching of the social sciences.

The plans of Joyce seem to stress a conceptual orientation similar to the program described by John P. Lunstrum (58, p. 46) in the California Report of the State Central Committee, and the ideas of Lawrence Senesh (76, pp. 23-24) at Purdue University. Curriculum proposals of Lunstrum and Senesh had a spiraling effect with the structure of knowledge taught in successive grades.

In the California Report an "expanding environment" theme from home and neighborhood to the world was used in grades K-12. Generalizations from the social sciences and

history were the foundations for content material in an interdisciplinary organization.

If all fundamental ideas of the social studies were taught in the first grade, the same structure of knowledge in increasing depth and complexity would be taught in the second grade, according to the ideas of Senesh in organizing a curriculum. The process continued in its progressive difficulty through grade 12.

The spiral or concentric circle theory of curriculum organization was rejected by Leonard Kenworthy (54, pp. 72-76). His curriculum proposals replaced the spiral effect with a dual track system which emphasized the United States and the world, usually in alternate years. He believed the earlier structure was obsolete and repetitive. A major proposal of Kenworthy was to teach United States history from three different approaches. He wanted the present history to be taught in grade 5, decisions in American history in grade 8, and chronological history in grade 11. He employed other social sciences in his curriculum like anthropology and sociology, even in the early school years.

After all of these studies many of the old problems and questions of sequence and content remain. Today, there is still no generally accepted curriculum plan or design for teaching American history in grade 11, 8 and 9, or in the repetitive cycle of grades 5, 8, and 11. Even the past several years of extensive and intensive research have not produced a different recognizable pattern of national

acceptance for teaching junior and senior high history. Each state and local district has a social studies curriculum which may or may not reflect the modern viewpoints and recommendations. Philosophical and structural alternatives in curriculum building have undoubtedly had an impact on the social studies but what extent is uncertain (14, pp. 30-31).

The problem of grade placement of content, therefore, still exists in the United States. The American history courses have been altered in both content, methods, and media but much dissatisfaction continues in these areas. A major problem is when to teach the course after the content has been selected. The history course might be better taught in the junior high without repeating it. Others prefer history taught in a cycle. Some educators like the course taught with other disciplines used to supplement American history. Many of these problems of organizing the social studies curriculum were reviewed by William H. Cartwright (15). With the length of the typical class period remaining about the same, fifty or fifty-five minutes, the biggest shift in emphasis has been in the arrangement and content of courses.

In the social studies a particularly difficult problem for the teacher is to decide what to teach within approximately thirty-six weeks of the school year. The body of knowledge expands continuously; the time in class does not.

Changes in grade placement of American history courses have been slow and infrequent in the public schools in the

United States. Various studies of curricula show that when a particular course is included in the sequence it soon becomes an established part of the curriculum.

The recent recommendations for American history in the curriculum reflected a general ferment in the schools. This was demonstrated in Missouri when the need was recognized to change the American history course to include newer ideas on learning and curriculum innovations.

Summary

The review of the literature indicated that American history was taught in the schools early in the nation's history. Not only was the course quickly added to the curriculum but in the 19th century several contemporary aspects of the course were adopted. For example, the American history course was being required by state law and taught in a three-year cycle plan. In addition, more and more colleges were including American history in their entrance requirements.

Early in the 20th century more serious attention was given to the American history course in the curriculum sequence and its contents. National committees investigated the course and their recommendations had a great impact on the social studies curriculum. National organizations and college professors were the leaders in this era of national committees.

The literature indicated that the research and interest

in the American history course in the last twenty years focused on teaching the concepts and structure of the subject and eliminating repetition. New plans were organized and written to implement these curriculum ideas.

The literature indicated that changes in the social studies curriculum in Missouri and throughout the United States were very slow and infrequent. When a course like American history was taught at a particular grade level it soon became a permanent part of the curriculum.

The next chapter gives a description of the basic research design for this study.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN

Basic Design of the Study

The basic research design is to determine the relative efficiency of two curriculums plans for teaching American History in Missouri. The research data were based on the results of a test given to students in selected schools using different course sequences. The test consisted of forty multiple choice items selected by the writer from a test booklet prepared by the National Council for the Social Studies (Appendix A). The booklet of test items is widely accepted and used by high school teachers of American history. Written permission by the NCSS was given to use the test questions for this purpose.

The research population for this study was schools in the non-metropolitan areas in the twenty-one counties served by Central Missouri State University in Warrensburg, Missouri. The schools had an enrollment range of 300 to 1,000 students. The case samples for the study were from clusters of students rather than random selections. The number of cases was 181 students from the traditional method of teaching American history and 259 students from the new two year course.

The subjects were given the objective history test at the end of the school year following the completion of the American history course. The students in the eleventh grade took the test at the end of the traditional one year survey course. The ninth grade students were completing the new sequence in American history.

Research Model

A 2 x 2 analysis-of-variance model was chosen as a method for data analysis. The two classification variables are type of curriculum (two-year and one-year curricula) and academic ability level (high and low ability). This model was chosen because it not only allows for a test of significant differences between the two curriculum treatment groups on achievement but also provides a basis for testing whether an ability by curriculum interaction exists.

Analysis of the interaction is considered to be important because intuitively it would seem that for high-ability students either method might be equally effective while there may be substantial differences between the two methods for lower ability students.

The subjects were divided into high and low ability groups using the most recent available intelligence test scores. It is recognized that the use of intelligence tests presented two problems in this study. First, there were two different age groups in the study. To overcome this problem the IQ test scores were transferred to a common standard

percentile score based on national norms for each test.

The second problem was that of classification of the students into ability groups with IQ measures obtained at different points in time. However, a number of studies had established that IQ scores tended to stabilize in the teens so that no serious error was anticipated by obtaining IQ measures earlier on one group than the other. In 1974, Alastair McLeod, General Adviser and Contributor, noted in Understanding Psychology (63, p. 363) that "...mental age stops increasing at about age seventeen...." Earlier, Engle and Snellgrove (25, pp. 204-205) reported that "the IQ of an individual tends to remain approximately constant" and "that mental maturity or intellectual maturity is reached as early as sixteen or even thirteen...."

An analysis of variance with an unweighted means was used to analyze the data for differences and interactions. Trying to take out variations due to learning ability increased the power of the statistical test. The effort was made to detect differences between the two curricula using IQ scores to determine any differences in learning abilities.

The experimental or independent variable was the time spent by the two groups studying American history in the different curricula. This variable was measured for differences between the old and new courses.

The dependent variable was scores obtained from the comprehensive objective test. This test was constructed to

yield several content area scores. A correlation matrix was prepared to examine the possibility that these scores were highly intercorrelated. The matrix suggested that area scores were highly interrelated so only a total score (the sum of the area scores) was used as the dependent variable. A 2 x 2 model described earlier was used.

A model of the results would be:

Achievement test scores		Ability according to IQ scores		
		low	high	
Grade 9		\bar{X}	\bar{X}	\bar{X}
		\bar{X}	\bar{X}	\bar{X}
Grade 11		\bar{X}	\bar{X}	\bar{X}
		\bar{X}	\bar{X}	

The test was divided into twelve units or topics commonly found in a high school survey course in American history. The content of the questions was arranged chronologically like most high school history courses with two to five questions selected for each unit.

The following is a list of units and the number of the questions for each unit:

I.	Colonial America	1-3
II.	Revolution and the Constitution	4-6
III.	Early National Period	7-9
IV.	Western Movement and Expansion	10-12
V.	Sectionalism	13-15
VI.	Civil War and Reconstruction	16-19
VII.	Closing of the Frontier	20-21
VIII.	Rise of Big Business	22-25
IX.	The Progressive Era	26-27
X.	World War I and the Twenties	28-31
XI.	The Great Depression	32-35
XII.	World War II and the Postwar Years	36-40

Summary

This chapter gave a general description of the research design and a model for analyzing the data.

The basic design for the research in the study was explained. The design was selected to measure the relative efficiency of the traditional and the recommended courses in American history by testing students in each course. A forty-question multiple choice test was administered to each group of students in high schools selected from the Central Missouri State University district.

Part of the research design was to analyze the data to determine if certain students achieved more in the first or second part of the survey history course as arranged by the test questions. This interaction between the curriculum and the high and low ability students used an analysis-of-variance model.

A 2×2 model used in the research study was described and illustrated in Chapter III. The model indicated how the data would be arranged for analysis and presentation.

A list of typical units from a high school American history course was given with the corresponding numbers of the questions on the achievement test.

The next chapter presents and analyzes the data gathered from the research study.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

This chapter will present a description of the findings of the investigation of a change in the grade level for teaching American history in the public schools in Missouri. The description deals with questions posed in Chapter I. These questions are:

1. Is there a significant difference in test performance between high and low ability groups of students?
2. Does it make any difference on the test scores whether students are taught the course in the eleventh grade or in the eighth and ninth grades?
3. Is there a significant interaction between grade level and ability? In other words, is there a greater difference between the performance of ability levels at one grade level than the other?

The basic purpose of this study was to determine whether students learn American history better in the traditional eleventh grade course or in the newer two year sequence in the eighth and ninth grades.

After excluding Jackson County, the metropolitan area of the Central Missouri State University district, the Missouri School Directory was used to determine the enrollment of schools for use in the study. The history exam, as the testing instrument, had to be administered at approximately the same time at the close of the school year.

However, some schools closed earlier and other schools had exam schedules to follow so both groups had to be excluded.

Another difficulty encountered in making the selection of schools was the use of student IQ scores which were essential to the study. Administrators were willing to cooperate but were understandably cautious and hesitant to permit the use of IQ scores. Some schools could not be included in the study because of school policy or the discretion of the administrator that prohibited the use of the IQ scores. One school principal requested a notarized statement from each student before such information could be released. In all requests the assurance of student anonymity in the study was guaranteed.

After conversations with administrators from several area schools for approval and arranging the details four schools were selected for sampling, two schools from each curriculum plan. There were 259 ninth grade students tested from Clinton and Odessa; 181 eleventh grade students were tested from Eldon and Rolla. The schools were widely distributed within the geographic limits of the study. The dates for giving the test in 1974 were: Odessa, May 21;

Rolla, May 27; Eldon, May 29; and Clinton, June 3.

The answers to the forty-question multiple choice history test were marked on IBM answer sheets to be machine scored. All of the necessary materials were provided by the examiner.

The independent variable for control was the IQ scores of the students in the sample. Because the schools did not use the same intelligence tests the scores were converted to percentile equivalents as the common base by the use of a Chart of Percentile Equivalents for IQ's provided by the Testing Service of Central Missouri State University. The tests used were Lorge-Thorndike, Iowa Tests of Basic Skills, California Test of Mental Maturity, and Kuhlman Anderson IQ Test. The students were divided into high and low ability groups at the 60th percentile level.

Since the IQ scores, which tend to stabilize about this age, were used as the control factor the independent or experimental variable was the difference in curriculum. One group studied history in the traditional eleventh grade course, the other group had a two year course in the eighth and ninth grades. The most important observation of the data was for any change in learning that might be attributable to the difference in curriculum.

Any difference in learning was indicated by significant differences in the mean scores on a history achievement test given to all students in the sampling.

The history test was given to see how the two curriculum

groups compared in learning the subject matter. A wide difference in the test scores would indicate that either the ninth or eleventh grade course produced higher scores or better results.

There were other aspects of the test and curriculum to be examined. Some students can do better in one part of a course if the particular content was interesting to them. The possibility of this phenomenon was checked in examining the test results. This was done by studying the test means to compare the scores of the high and low ability students in each grade level. Each group was expected to perform commensurate with its ability. For example, it was not anticipated that a low ability group would out perform the high ability group in the same grade. Nevertheless, this possibility was looked for in examining the test results. The test results were divided into two parts with twenty questions in each part. Each part of the test corresponded to half of the survey course. Since the usual high school American history survey course tries to end the first semester with a unit on the Civil War and Reconstruction the first twenty questions ended with this content. Questions in the second half of the forty-item test came from content studied after the Civil War and Reconstruction unit. Therefore, each half of the test corresponded to half of the survey course. Comparisons were made in the test results in each sub-test of twenty questions and the means of the total score for each curriculum group.

A 2×2 factorial design, permitting the study of the affects of two treatments or curricula, was selected as a model to analyze the data. This design made it possible to study the affects of the two curriculum plans, the traditional and the new.

Stephen Isaac and William B. Michael (46, pp. 50-51) discusses this design in Handbook in Research and Evaluation.

They claim it has these advantages:

1. It permits the testing of several hypotheses simultaneously, rather than having to conduct a series of single experiments to study the effects of different unknowns on, for example, learning.
2. The design permits the conduct of only one experiment to answer several complex questions at once.
3. Where interaction between two or more variables simultaneously makes a difference, the design reveals this difference.
4. Where the classical experimental control of all variables but one is impractical or impossible.

The basic 2×2 design or model looks like this:

Model I

Grade Levels	Ability Groups		Mean	Difference in Means
	Low	High		
9	\bar{X}	\bar{X}		
11	\bar{X}	\bar{X}		

Mean Difference

The data to supply the various answers are added to the models.

For the examination of data on the first twenty questions of the test the model provided a comparison of mean

scores. Again, the first set of twenty questions were taken from content usually taught in the first half of the history survey course in high school.

Model II

First Twenty Questions

	Low	High	Mean	Difference in Mean
9	$\bar{X} = 6.22$ N = 139 S.D. = 2.55	$\bar{X} = 8.15$ N = 120 S.D. = 2.71	7.11	1.92
11	$\bar{X} = 7.05$ N = 54 S.D. = 2.62	$\bar{X} = 9.19$ N = 127 S.D. = 2.76	8.56	2.14
Mean	6.45	8.69		
Difference	.83	1.04	1.45	

Additional statistical data for Model II was:

	SS	SS \times N _h	df	MS	F
Curriculum	.885	84.500	1	84.500	11.84
Ability	4.143	395.343	1	395.343	55.38
Curriculum and Ability Interaction	.011	1.068	1	1.068	
Within	3112.306		436	7.138	

A 2×2 analysis of variance was chosen for analyses of these data within ability level and grade level as the independent variables and test scores as the dependent variable. Model I shows the paradigm used. A 2×2 analysis of variance allows the testing of three null hypotheses. (1) There is no difference between test performance resulting from the type of curriculum received. (2) There is no difference in test performance resulting from differences in ability levels. (3) The relative effectiveness of the two curricula

is not affected by ability level.

In the analysis of variance in this study there were unequal numbers of subjects within each of the four cells. It was decided that the unequal number of subjects per cell was not a consequence of the experimental treatment and that an unweighted means solution was the appropriate form of analysis. This type of solution allows each cell to have equal weight in the overall analysis.

In an unweighted means solution each cell is treated as though there were only one subject having a score equal to the mean of all subjects within that cell. The sum of squares from those mean values are reported in the tables for Models II and III.

In order to make the analyses of variance comparable to an analysis that had used all the subjects it is necessary to multiply each of the obtained sum of squares (SS) by the harmonic mean of the cell frequencies (N_h). The products appear in the second column of the tables and provide a sum of squares to compute mean squares (MS) used in the F test for each of the three hypotheses.

The analysis of variance technique in this study was used to determine the amount of total variability of scores that could be attributable to differences between the means of the two curriculum groups, the two ability groups, and the interaction of curriculum and ability. The F-test provided a means of determining whether the variability attributable to each of these sources was larger than would be

expected by chance.

The ratios of 11.84 and 55.38 in Model II showed statistically significant differences in the curriculum plans and ability groups. The eleventh grade students did significantly better on the achievement test than the ninth grade students. By ability, the students in the high ability groups, as expected, continued to perform better.

The interaction mean square of 1.068 in Model II was not high enough to indicate that any differences in the scores on the first twenty questions were due to the differences in curriculum or grade placement of the American history course in Missouri.

The first twenty questions are from content usually taught in the first half of the American history course. It is common in a high school history course to end the first half with the Civil War and Reconstruction Era. In the new curriculum plan in Missouri this part of the course is taught in the eighth grade. The second set of twenty questions were taken from content taught in the second half of the course. This is the content now taught in the ninth grade in the new curriculum.

The results in Model II were not surprising. Comparing the mean scores on the first twenty questions shows the eleventh graders doing better in both the high and low ability groups. The high ninth graders in the new course did, however, outscore the low eleventh graders in the old history course. When the total scores of the two grade

levels were compared the eleventh graders scored higher than the ninth graders with a mean score of 8.56 to 7.11. A slight advantage of 1.45 for the students from the traditional curriculum.

The investigator recognizes the fact that the eleventh grade students were older and more mature than the ninth grade students and consequently were expected to do better. Nevertheless, when the recommendation was made to replace the eleventh grade American History course with the two year sequence it was believed the change would produce better results in learning.

Model III provides the scores on the achievement test for the second twenty questions.

Model III

Second Twenty Questions

	Low	High	Mean	Difference in Means
9	$\bar{X}= 7.23$ N= 139 S.D.= 2.61	$\bar{X}= 9.60$ N= 120 S.D.= 2.93	8.33	2.37
11	$\bar{X}= 9.25$ N= 54 S.D.= 3.05	$\bar{X}= 10.79$ N= 127 S.D.= 3.05	10.34	1.53
Mean	7.80	10.22		
Difference	2.02	1.18	2.01	

Additional statistical data for Model III was:

	SS	SS \times N _h	df	MS	F
Curriculum	2.585	246.720	1	246.720	29.68
Ability	3.830	365.466	1	365.466	43.97
Curriculum and Ability Interaction	.017	1.691	1	1.691	
Within	3624.281		436	8.312	

The results on the second half of the achievement test were very similar to those on the first half. The mean score of the eleventh grade students was higher than the mean of the ninth grade students by 2.01. In comparing the differences within each curriculum group the spread was the greatest between the low and high ability groups of the ninth grade with 2.37. The difference between the high and low ability groups in the eleventh grade on the second part of the test was 1.53. Again the high ability ninth graders did better than the low ability eleventh graders on the achievement test. However, the difference was not as great, .34 to 1.09 on the first set of twenty questions.

Like the first half results, the interaction mean square 1.691 for the second part was not a significant difference in scores between the groups.

The scores for the complete test of the high and low ability groups in both curricula are in Model IV.

Model IV

Results of the Complete Test

	Low	High	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Difference in Means</u>
9	$\bar{X}= 13.16$ N= 130 S.D.= 3.94	$\bar{X}= 17.74$ N= 129 S.D.=5.07	15.47	4.58
11	$\bar{X}= 16.97$ N= 91 S.D.= 4.45	$\bar{X}= 20.88$ N= 90 S.D.= 5.10	18.71	3.91
Mean	14.73	19.03		
Difference	3.81	3.14	3.23	

The eleventh grade students in the traditional history course were 3.23 higher on the mean score than the students

in the two year sequence of American history.

In reviewing the results of the three sets of mean scores, questions 1-20, 21-40, and 1-40, the students from the eleventh grade did progressively better on the achievement test. The mean score differences respectively were 1.45, 2.01, and 3.23.

The interaction possibilities and relationships were vividly illustrated when the data were transferred to schematic graphs. After a group's mean scores were plotted on the graph, relationships were easily and quickly observed. When the lines were parallel there was no interaction. For an interaction to be significant the lines must significantly depart from a parallel relation.

The graph shows the relationships between the two curriculum groups according to mean scores of the low and high ability students.

Figure 1 is a graph of mean scores of ninth and eleventh grade students of low and high ability, Questions 1-20.

The mean score comparison for the last half of the achievement test is illustrated in Figure 2.

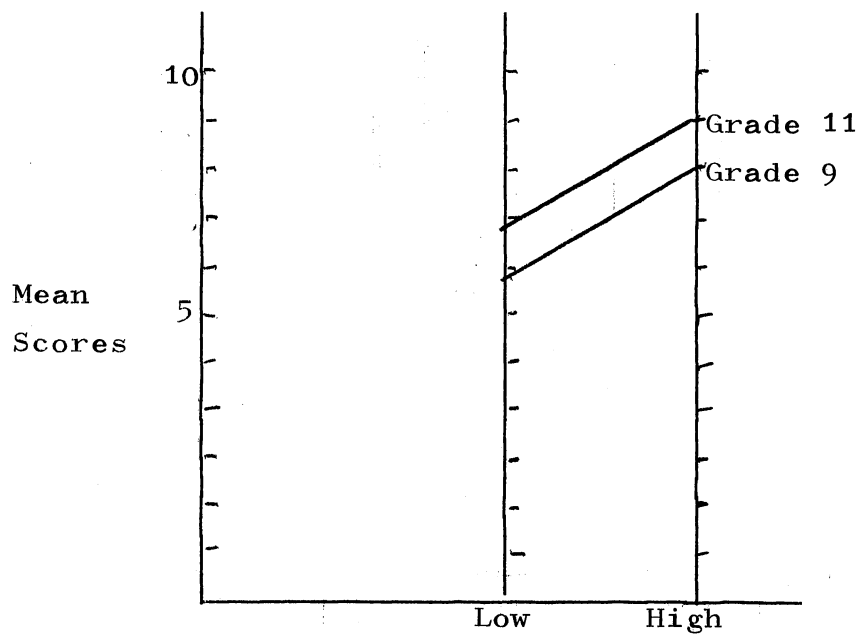


Figure 1. Mean Scores of Ninth and Eleventh Grade Students of Low and High Ability, Questions 1-20

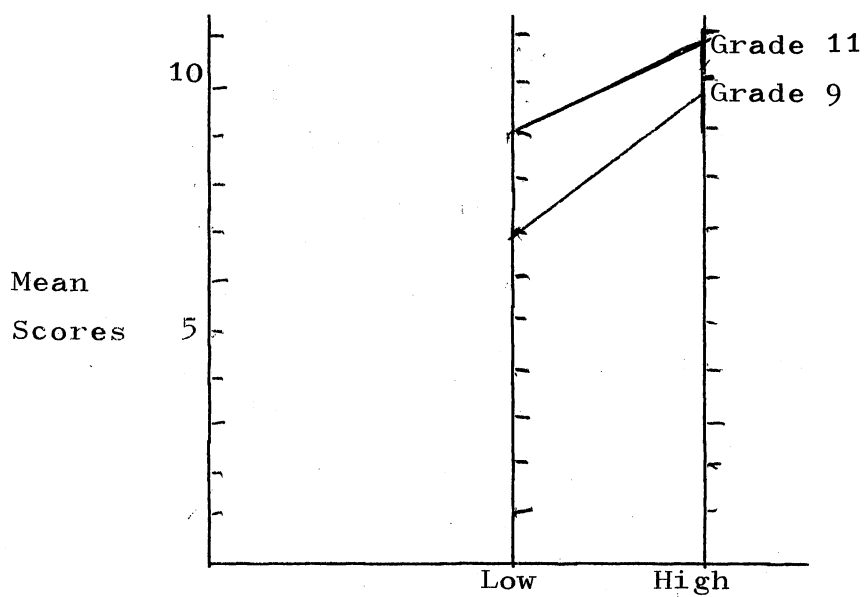


Figure 2. Mean Scores of Ninth and Eleventh Grade Students of Low and High Ability, Questions 21-40

The mean score comparison for the entire forty question achievement test is given in the next graph, Figure 3.

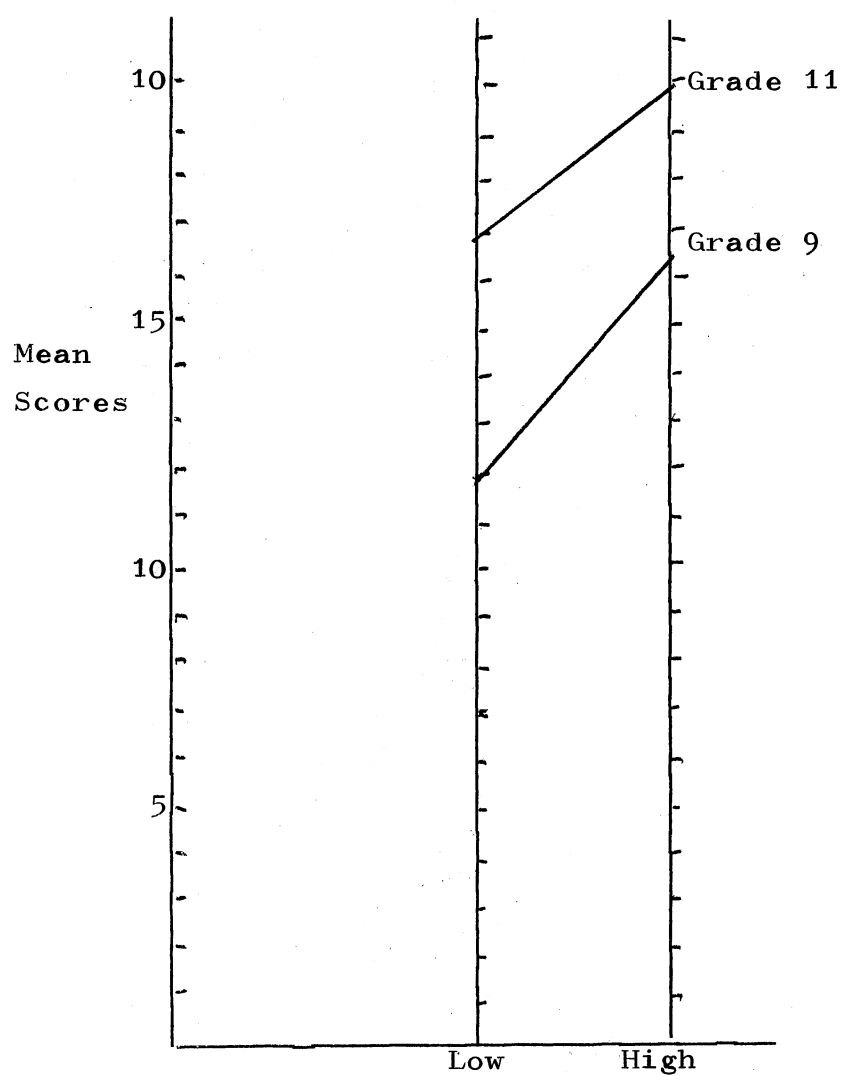


Figure 3. Mean Scores of Ninth and Eleventh Grade Students of Low and High Ability, Questions 1-40

The parallelism in the lines of comparison showed no important or significant differences or interaction between the curriculum and the results. It was concluded from the graphs, therefore, that teaching American history in the new curriculum plan did not produce better results than teaching the course in the traditional eleventh grade curriculum plan.

From the evidence presented, the questions posed at the beginning of this chapter can be answered.

1. There were significant differences between high and low ability groups on the achievement test. The eleventh grade high and low groups scored higher than the ninth grade students on each of the two parts of the test and the total score. Neither the high or low ability students in the new curriculum outscored their counterparts from the eleventh grade.

2. Does it make any difference on the test scores whether students are taught the course in the eleventh grade or in grades eight and nine? This study found that it does. Because the students in the new curriculum did not score as high on the achievement test as the students in the traditional curriculum it was concluded that it does make a difference where the American history course is taught. The mean score for the ninth grade students was 15.47, for the eleventh grade students it was 18.71.

3. Was there a greater difference between the performance of ability levels at one grade level than the other?

A greater difference was not found. The difference in mean scores between the eleventh and ninth grade students of low ability on the complete test was 3.81 (16.97-13.16). The difference in mean scores between the eleventh and ninth grade students of high ability was 3.14 (20.88-17.75).

Summary

This chapter presented a description of the findings concerning the analysis of a study of a recommended curriculum change for the public schools in Missouri. The findings dealt with the presentation of the statistical data collected in administering an American history achievement test and treating the results.

A basic premise of the curriculum change was that the new course would produce better results. Based on the evidence in this chapter this change did not produce the expected results.

The three questions basic to the study which were asked in Chapter I are answered and expanded upon.

This chapter also included information about the schools selected and the number of students examined in the study.

The collected data was illustrated by models and graphs for clarity and easier comparisons.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

General Summary of the Study

This study investigated a recommended curriculum change for public schools in Missouri. The Missouri State Department of Education recommended a two year sequence in the eighth and ninth grades to replace the traditional eleventh grade United States history course. This study compared the two curriculum plans by the results of an achievement test given to students after completing their respective courses. Briefly, did one plan produce better results than the other?

The investigator gave the forty question test in American history to 440 students. Each ninth and eleventh grade was divided into low and high ability groups according to their IQ scores.

An analysis was made of the two 20-question parts as well as the complete test. The mean scores of the various groups were studied for comparative relationships. The test results were computer processed for the needed data.

An F-test was used to segregate the variations so that any significant differences had a chance to emerge and to indicate which source to attribute any significant differences found. Along with the two possible sources of

variations, ability and curriculum, there was also a possibility of what is called interaction variance. As a result, the determination was made whether differences among means owed their divergencies to one variation or both.

Illustrations of the data from test results were presented in 2×2 models for comparisons. The comparative mean scores were also presented in three schematic graphs showing lines of parallel. The lines were all in parallel indicating no significant interaction or differences between the curriculum and the results. Converging of the lines would have indicated interaction. The models and graphs were used not only to give information but to provide a clearer interpretation of the data.

The mean scores of the eleventh grade students were higher than the mean scores of the ninth grade students when compared in the low ability groups, the high ability groups, and the total scores.

The data were analyzed for the general purpose of answering the following questions:

1. Is there a significant difference in test performance between high and low ability groups of students?
2. Does it make any difference on the test scores whether students are taught the course in the eleventh grade or in the eighth and ninth grades?
3. Is there a significant interaction between grade

level and ability? In other words, is there a greater difference between the performance of ability levels at one grade level than the other?

Conclusions and Recommendations

The general conclusion after interpreting the data was that it did make a difference where the history course was taught in the curriculum. There were significant differences in the outcomes. The results from the students in the new course were not as good as those from the traditional eleventh grade course.

This conclusion was based on the results of the achievement test given to students from both curriculum plans. The mean scores of the students from the two year sequence were not as high as the means of the students from the traditional curriculum.

Based on the results of the achievement test, it did make a difference whether the students were taught history in grade eleven or in the two year sequence in grades eight and nine.

It was concluded that there was no significant interaction between the curricula and the different student groups. For example, the high ability ninth grade students did not show any significant difference on either the first twenty questions or the second set of twenty questions. Each set of twenty questions was taken from content from

half the survey history course.

With the two year sequence recommendation came the elimination of the traditional eleventh grade American history course. The traditional cycle of teaching history in the fifth, eighth, and eleventh grades was broken. For some schools it was a positive change. Not repeating the course in the senior high school curriculum permitted more flexibility for adding new courses. This study indicates the change did not produce better results.

A study similar to this one should be made as a pilot study before a statewide curriculum change is recommended. Recommendations could then be made based on empirical evidence of performance as well as benefits for the school curriculum.

Recommended changes in the curriculum should be immediately evaluated in a follow-up study. This could be done by the State Department of Education or by participating schools adopting the changes.

Teachers in the new curriculum should be polled for evaluating the results. Particularly useful would be the opinion and advise of experienced teachers who have taught both the traditional and the new history courses.

Data should be collected and studied from other states and schools where similar changes were made in the curriculum. The goals, objectives, and results of these programs could be studied for the purpose of adapting them to the state and local needs. The State Department of Education in

Missouri could then better serve as a clearinghouse for gathering, assimilating, and distributing curriculum information.

A disadvantage of the recommended curriculum for American history in the eighth and ninth grades is the early completion of the subject in the high school curriculum. Many will have their last formal class in American history at age 14 or 15. This is too young to end the study of American history, especially for those not attending college. For some students it is the last social studies class in high school. It is more desirable to have the last high school American history or social studies class to be near the end of the high school career. The additional maturity of the 16, 17, or 18 years old students enable them to better relate to the history of their country. The older students are closer to fuller participation as citizens. They are paying more taxes, driving and owning automobiles, voting, and even considering establishing their own household. The older high school students are more able to relate their experiences to the local and national communities. The eleventh and twelfth graders are becoming more independent and ready to assume a position in society based on a broader perspective of events and problems.

If American History is the only required social studies course in the curriculum it carries a special burden of teaching the most important concepts and skills associated with the field of social studies. Deciding what to teach is

a responsibility the teacher and curriculum maker finds increasingly more difficult in correlating American history with educational goals.

Any continuation or revision of the three-cycle plan in teaching American history must eliminate the unnecessary and wasteful repetition. It is possible to have the modified cycle without duplication. For example, the content can be arranged and taught according to expected ability in the grade level. The content increases in difficulty with each grade level. Other plans arrange content according to chronology and topics. All school plans for the social studies curriculum must also carefully integrate the required and elective courses into a balanced, comprehensive program consistent with educational objectives.

In this study the scores of the students in the eleventh grade curriculum were higher than the scores of the ninth grade students. The older students in the traditional eleventh grade course had more maturity and experience. These combined qualities intuitively increased their expected superiority over the younger students. Future curriculum recommendations should more fully consider these differences in maturity.

One curriculum plan would be to offer the second half of the American History course in the eleventh or twelfth grade. The course would review the first half quickly and spend more time teaching the most recent history. If the last century of American history was offered in the eleventh

grade the next year could be expanded into a regional study of North America, the hemisphere, or a course similar to American Problems or Contemporary Issues.

The organization of the American History course could have more of an interdisciplinary or multi-disciplinary base. Instead of limiting recommendations to a curriculum sequence based on specific courses, the Missouri State Department of Education could make suggestions with a thematic or conceptual arrangement. For example, in grade nine a theme of independence and interdependence in American history or the development of democracy in the United States. In grades eleven or twelve the theme could be built around the evolution of federalism, pluralism, and the individual. Various subjects from the social studies like political science, sociology, and geography could be used to provide a comprehensive approach to learning.

In Missouri, the change of the American History course from the eleventh grade to the ninth grade was made without the commensurate recommendations of achievement goals and objectives for younger students. The goals of the new course make an inadequate distinction of grade and ability levels. The younger students are expected to achieve as much in the new curriculum as the older students in the traditional course. The evidence from this study indicates the students in the new curriculum do not achieve as much as the students in the traditional American history course.

In addition, the learning experiences planned for ninth

graders cannot be as comprehensive or as difficult as those prepared for the more mature eleventh grade students. The study skills and exercises for the ninth grade American history course must be consistent with that particular age and maturity level.

Changes should be made in the curriculum guide for the American History course in Missouri. More detailed guides are not necessarily needed by the teachers, just better sequential planning for continuity in the social studies. For the American History course in the eighth and ninth grades a curriculum guide for only the latter year was written. It would help if a guide for the eighth grade half of the history course was also available. Course guides for the social studies should be written beginning no later than grade six and continuing through grade twelve. American history could be the central subject or core of the social studies curriculum with the other disciplines built around it.

For any social studies curriculum revision the social and philosophical objectives of the school must be translated into a concrete, operational plan for American history in the social studies. This plan should have both horizontal and vertical structure. The vertical structure will permit the teachers to have an idea of what is taught in other classes and see how each class fits into the curriculum. A clearer understanding of content organization for

each class is also provided by the horizontal dimension of planning.

If a school is considering a curriculum revision in the social studies the important question must be how and who is devising the changes. A total acceptance of a social studies program prepared outside of the school system should not be made without a thorough examination in view of the local needs. Any change in a school's social studies curriculum must consider the local educational objectives of the system. If the school system does not have a curriculum director or coordinator to plan the social studies program the responsibility must be given to a committee of teachers and administrators or a knowledgeable individual. Logically, the chairman of a social studies department would manage the change or provide the greatest input from the teachers' point of view. All of the social studies teachers should be given the opportunity to either serve on the curriculum committee or provide some assistance in the planning.

It is highly probable that most high schools in Missouri either accept or reject the recommendations of the Missouri State Department of Education without sufficient consideration for adaptation to their specific needs and circumstances. More than likely, if a change in the social studies curriculum is contemplated, such as the American History course, the complete new program will be added without first evaluating the effectiveness of the revision.

This study shows that the same results cannot be

anticipated from American history students in the new curriculum when the performance expectations remain the same as for the traditional curriculum. The revision of the curriculum must be done only after considering the desired outcomes of the course. This includes achievement of content, methodology, affective learning, and personal growth of the students.

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APPENDIX A

AMERICAN HISTORY TEST

1. Which of the following countries was not a major colonizing force in the new world in the sixteenth century,
 - a. Spain
 - b. Portugal
 - c. Italy
 - d. Great Britain

2. Which of the following was not a source of trouble leading to the French and Indian War?
 - a. Conflicting claims to territory
 - b. Conflicting ideas of colonial government
 - c. Conflicting trade interests
 - d. A long-standing competition between great European nations

3. During colonial times, laws governing personal behavior were strictest in:
 - a. New England
 - b. Virginia
 - c. The frontier communities
 - d. The newly settled cotton-raising areas of the South

4. Why did the colonies object so much more strenuously to the Sugar and Molasses Act of 1764 than to that of 1733?
 - a. Duties on sugar and molasses were greatly increased by the act of 1764
 - b. The consumption of sugar and molasses had greatly increased by 1764
 - c. The act of 1764 was passed by Parliament while that of 1733 had been passed by the colonial legislatures
 - d. A more determined attempt was made to enforce the act of 1764

5. The English government justified its taxation of American colonists on the ground that it spent a great deal of money on:
 - a. Aid to American agriculture
 - b. Aid to American industry
 - c. Maintaining an army for the protection of the colonies(See following page for d.)

5. d. The support of educational and religious institutions in the colonies
6. The American colonists protested against the Stamp Act because they:
 - a. Felt that Parliament had no right to regulate their trade
 - b. Resented the ruinous financial burden to their trade
 - c. Denied the right of Parliament to levy internal taxes
 - d. Feared the establishment of a more rigorous press censorship
7. Which of these favored the centralization of authority and mistrusted the division of authority between the federal and state governments?
 - a. John C. Calhoun
 - b. Thomas Jefferson
 - c. Alexander Hamilton
 - d. Daniel Webster
8. Which of the following characteristics of our country today may be considered a fulfillment of one of Jefferson's ideals?
 - a. An industrialized society
 - b. Participation of the common man in politics
 - c. A large national income and a large public debt
 - d. A liberal interpretation of the Constitution
9. In 1812 the Republicans were ready to go to war with England because:
 - a. The terms of the old alliance with France influenced them
 - b. Such a war might afford a good opportunity to annex Canada
 - c. Jefferson had always opposed Washington's policy of neutrality
 - d. The commercial interests favored war
10. Which of these describes the Indian policy adopted during the second quarter of the nineteenth century and looked upon as the permanent solution to the Indian problem?
 - a. To establish reservations for Indians in various sections of the country
 - b. To remove Indians to lands west of the Mississippi
 - c. To force Indians to migrate to territory owned by Mexico
 - d. To assimilate the Indian by breaking up the tribe and granting American citizenship to individuals

11. Which river carried the settlers into the West immediately following the War of 1812?
 - a. Colorado
 - b. Illinois
 - c. Missouri
 - d. Ohio

12. Mexico's chief grievance in the controversy which led to war with the United States was the:
 - a. Occupation of California by American marines
 - b. Refusal of the United States to return runaway slaves
 - c. Annexation of Texas
 - d. Demand by Polk that Mexico accept \$25,000,000 in payment for the land north of the Rio Grande

13. The status of Negroes was determined for each of the following places by the Missouri Compromise. In which did the anti-slavery forces score the greatest victory at the time?
 - a. Louisiana Territory north of $36^{\circ} 30'$
 - b. Maine
 - c. Missouri
 - d. Louisiana Territory south of $36^{\circ} 30'$

14. Which of the following problems concerning slavery was most constantly before Congress prior to 1860?
 - a. Stopping the importation of Negroes
 - b. The status of Negroes in the territories
 - c. The complete abolition of slavery
 - d. The status of Negroes in the Northern states

15. Which was a basic cause of the Civil War?
 - a. Lincoln's avowed determination to abolish slavery
 - b. The tariff question
 - c. Hostility of the North to the institution of slavery
 - d. Admission of California into the Union as a free state

16. During the Civil War perhaps the principal advantage of the South lay in:
 - a. Her large supply of cotton
 - b. Her better trained army
 - c. Her slave labor
 - d. The fact that she was fighting on her own soil

17. Why was the Emancipation Proclamation not issued immediately after the outbreak of the Civil War?
 - a. Such action was unconstitutional prior to the ratification of the Thirteenth Amendment
 - b. Such action might have caused the border states to secede

(See the following page for choices c. and d.)

17.
 - c. Such action was opposed by labor unions, which feared the competition of free Negro labor
 - d. Such action would have resulted in the recognition of the South by France and England

18. A common aim of the carpetbaggers and the scalawags was to:
 - a. Restore Southern institutions of the prewar period
 - b. Maintain white social supremacy
 - c. Enrich themselves through the misfortunes of the South
 - d. Further their own careers in national politics

19. Which of these was instrumental in the rapid "filling in" of the West?
 - a. Embargo Act
 - b. Freeport Doctrine
 - c. Homestead Act
 - d. Specie Circular

20. The Ku Klux Klan, the literacy test, and the "Grandfather clause" had as one common purpose:
 - a. Ridding the South of the carpetbaggers
 - b. Preventing the Negro from voting
 - c. Keeping the poor whites under control
 - d. Preventing trade unions from becoming powerful in the South

21. Which of the following groups of states was last to enter the Union?
 - a. Mississippi, Alabama, and Georgia
 - b. Iowa, Minnesota, and Wisconsin
 - c. Louisiana and Texas
 - d. Oklahoma, Arizona, and New Mexico

22. In the latter half of the nineteenth century, the Republican party tended to favor:
 - a. A high tariff
 - b. Inflation
 - c. Restrictions on immigration
 - d. Government aid to agriculture

23. Which was not an underlying factor in bringing the United States into war with Spain in 1898?
 - a. The rights of the United States under the Monroe Doctrine
 - b. The imperialistic ambitions of certain statesmen and industrialists
 - c. The demand of newspapers for sensational news
 - d. Sympathy among the mass of the people for the oppressed Cubans

24. A factor in the early dynamic rise of the oil industry in the United States was the:
- Subsidy given this industry by the government
 - High protective tariff
 - Fact that no oil had yet been discovered in other countries
 - Monopolistic control of transporting and refining facilities
25. What new technique did W. R. Hearst adopt in the latter part of the nineteenth century to increase the circulation of his newspaper?
- Drastically reducing the price per copy
 - Printing exaggerated and sensational news accounts
 - Consolidating many smaller papers into one large system
 - Changing from a weekly to a daily edition
26. Which of the following rights was Susan B. Anthony most actively concerned with in gaining for women?
- Vote
 - Ownership of property
 - Education
 - Admission to professions
27. Most of the outstanding legislation passed during the period 1900 to 1914 was designed to protect the interests of which of the following?
- Business
 - Organized labor
 - Agriculture
 - The consuming public
28. The purpose of "dollar diplomacy" was to:
- Improve diplomatic relations between the United States and Latin America
 - Use political influence to aid American economic interests abroad
 - Bring the countries of the Western Hemisphere into closer economic cooperation with Europe
 - Encourage the countries of the Western Hemisphere to adopt a uniform currency system
29. The United States entered World War I on the side of the Allies because:
- It was a foregone conclusion that the Allies would win
 - Germany was the only power interfering with our oceanic shipping
 - The German blockade unfairly jeopardized the lives of Americans
 - The Allies promised territorial compensation in the Far East

30. Woodrow Wilson's Fourteen Points had to do with:
- A proposed basis for peace
 - Suggested revisions of the Constitution
 - Social reform within the United States
 - The fourteen elements of German war guilt
31. Which is most commonly associated with the administrations of both Grant and Harding?
- Economic depression
 - Humanitarian reforms
 - Political corruption
 - Territorial expansion
32. Which was the most important factor accounting for the first election of Franklin D. Roosevelt?
- The Hoover administration seemed unable to cope with the economic depression
 - The nation is normally Democratic
 - Strong third parties were made up chiefly of Republican voters
 - There was widespread dissatisfaction with Hoover's foreign policy
33. Throughout the 1930's, the main disagreement between the Republican and Democratic parties was in regard to:
- The policy to be followed toward Europe and Asia
 - The use of the tariff for purposes other than revenue
 - The extent to which the federal government was responsible for the welfare of the individual
 - Rearmament
34. At the end of the 1930's labor emerged from a major depression stronger in numbers rather than weaker because:
- For the first time efforts were made to organize unskilled workers
 - The sitdown strike had proved highly effective
 - Industry encouraged the formation of company unions
 - Labor unions were given some protection in organizing
35. Three of these characterized the 1930's in the United States. Which did not?
- Enactment of social security legislation
 - Establishment of better and closer relations with other nations of the Western Hemisphere
 - Increased conflict between labor and capital
 - Great economic prosperity

36. What was the purpose of the Truman Doctrine?
- To counteract Russian expansion into southeast Asia
 - To keep the eastern Mediterranean area from falling under Russian control
 - To provide aid for the rebuilding of industry in Western Europe
 - To aid our Asian allies in developing their industries
37. Which is the best statement of the principle underlying the Marshall Plan?
- Military alliances form a sound basis for fighting communism
 - Communism could be fought effectively by solving economic difficulties
 - Moral support was more important than financial aid to democratic countries
 - The United States would supply military equipment to any government which would oppose communism
38. The fighting in Korea was considered to be a "police action" rather than a war in the usual sense because:
- The U. N. goal was the protection of South Korea rather than the defeat of North Korea
 - U. N. forces were being used, not the forces of specific nations
 - The fighting front was stabilized near the 38th parallel
 - Few lives were lost
39. The recall of General Douglas MacArthur from the Korean command by President Truman:
- Was based on the Constitutional provision that an elected official should control military policy
 - Indicated official dissatisfaction with the failure of a military campaign
 - Showed the difficulty of maintaining United Nations forces under a unified command
 - Proved that the United States planned a gradual withdrawal from the Far East
40. In the decade following World War II the Supreme Court made the most far-reaching decisions in which of the following areas?
- States' rights versus federal rights
 - The jurisdiction of the courts in determining war guilt
 - The power of the national government to tax
 - The rights of minority groups

APPENDIX B

RESULTS OF THE HISTORY TEST BY SCHOOLS

	Clinton	Odessa	Rolla	Eldon	
Grade	9	9	11	11	
Number of Students	122	146	111	27	69
Standard Deviation	5.13	4.72	4.85	5.14	5.25
Semi-interquartile range	3.51	2.88	3.40	2.57	3.52
Mean	16.07	14.97	18.08	21.96	18.46
Median	15.27	15.05	17.55	21.00	18.33
Standard Error of Measurement	2.86	2.94	2.80	2.73	2.81
Kudor Richardson 20	0.69	0.64	0.67	0.72	0.71

VITA²

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