EFFECTS OF USING CHILDREN'S HISTORICAL FICTION AND NONFICTION ON STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT AND ATTITUDES TOWARD AMERICAN INDIANS AND SOCIAL STUDIES

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A primary goal of educators is to make students independent thinkers and lifelong learners. According to Cullinan (1981), our goal as educators should be to teach children to think instead of teaching them to memorize facts. Even though many educators agree with Cullinan, traditional teaching methods which rely heavily on fact acquisition continue to dominate elementary classrooms (Naylor & Diem, 1987, pp. 194-195). Some subjects, such as reading, have received much attention in past years and a number of studies exist that identify alternative methods of effective instruction. However, in social studies, instructional methods continue to revolve around the textbook and traditional teacher-centered lecture and discussion approaches. According to Davis and Palmer (1992), "Today's social studies classrooms are hardly different from those twenty years ago. A large gap still exists between the theoretical conception of the goals of social studies and the realization of those goals in day-to-day school practices" (p. 125). In addition, few studies exist that examine alternative social studies instructional methods leaving educators with few instructional choices (McGowan & Sutton, 1988).

Since traditional social studies teaching methods are widely practiced and studies show that social studies is a least

favorite subject, it is important to look at the connection between the two. Schug, Todd and Beery (1984), reported that several factors contributed to students' ill feelings toward the subject of social studies. These factors include lack of connection between material and student, lack of activity in social studies, difficulty of concepts, predictable teaching methods, and emphasis on learning trivial details and memorizing facts. "Typical responses about routine methods were, `We just take notes, take tests, and watch the news' or `It was just read the chapter, do a worksheet, take the test'" (p. 386). These authors concluded that students feel that both social studies subject matter and teaching methods are simply boring. Student responses clearly suggest that more active learning experiences and greater variety in teaching methods could greatly improve social studies instruction.

Other studies have found problems not only with teaching methods but also with textbooks as well. Larkins, Hawkins, and Gilmore (1987) discovered many textbooks filled with trivial and noninformative information, and concluded that, "They would rather abandon social studies than to use these teaching materials" (p. 300). In addition, the cost of the textbook and accompanying consumable products have become increasing difficult for school districts to manage (Jachym, Allington, & Broikou, 1989). This forces school districts to either cut areas to finance the purchasing of textbooks or to continue to use outdated texts. The problems associated with textbooks clearly nullify the justification for this tremendous expense.

Because of the traditional use of textbooks, social studies teachers have relied upon textbook companies to determine the social studies curriculum. But, as Larkins, Hawkins, and Gilmore (1987) found, many of the textbooks lack structure and any sense of clear, long range goals. According to Naylor and Diem (1987) citizenship development is the primary goal of social studies and "social studies education provides the only structured school or community focus for the preparation of citizens" (p. 10). The educational objectives used to achieve this goal are learning from the past, understanding social issues, recognizing the concerns of others and respecting cultural differences. Consequently, there may be more effective ways of meeting the goals of social studies education determined not by textbook companies but by knowledgable, concerned teachers.

One alternative approach to traditional textbook usage identified by Naylor and Diem (1987) is the "adopt-adapt" approach. This approach utilizes the textbook as well as additional outside resources such as videos, films, and children's literature to enhance the program. Naylor and Diem (1987) also identify another approach which they label as the "innovative" approach. This approach requires the educator to develop his/her own units without use of a textbook guide. Since teachers will be responsible for collecting the necessary resources, they must be aware of the resources available that could enhance as well as guide a social studies program. Children's literature is one such resource.

Other authors have also suggested that social studies teachers

use children's literature. For example, Corbin (1991) identified three reasons for incorporating historical fiction in social studies instruction:

1. Some researchers conclude that children begin their process of studying social phenomena through narratives; therefore, building on that beginning by continuing to present social data through story improves its communication for young people.

2. Historical fiction, because of its inherently dramatic qualities, encourages children to invest emotion, take sides, and ask questions.

3. Fiction books can help counter the influence exerted by special interest groups that have made textbook editors fearful of offending. Books can be sources for information not available in, or even at odds with, what cautiously edited textbooks offer (p. 23).

Teachers who use children's literature in the classroom have found that student interest increases, that students are more engaged, and that they are able to relate to the characters. According to Common (1986):

> Stories provide the readers with opportunities to develop personal understanding through their absorption in a literary experience and reflection upon what they have read and felt. This may ultimately help our social studies students to form positions about the things in life they value and to choose the actions they perform (p. 246).

Other researchers conclude that by using children's literature in the classroom a teacher is creating an environment where students are not only encouraged to think independently but critically as well (Toore & Kione, 1955).

In order for teachers to achieve the affective goals of social studies as well as the cognitive, they must look beyond the textbook. According to the National Council for the Social Studies Task Force on Scope and Sequence (1983), a major goal of social studies is to prepare young children to identify, understand, and work to solve the problems that face our diverse nation and interdependent world. Since textbooks fail to successfully address affective goals of social studies, Larkins and Hawkins (1990) feel that textbooks should be abandoned for more effective methods. Many authors feel that children's literature is a considerate, effective way of meeting these affective goals (Garcia, Hadaway, & Beal, 1988; McCann, 1988; Common, 1986; Freeman & Levstik, 1988).

McGowan and Guzzetti (1991) recognize a change in social studies direction. "Social studies seems to be in transition, moving from isolation, rote learning, basic skills, and values neutrality toward integration, reflection, conceptual understanding, and democratic ideals" (p. 16). In an attempt to meet these goals many writers, as mentioned before, advocate the use of children's literature. However, children's literature is comprised of both fiction and nonfiction making it essential for teachers to determine how to use each type of literature effectively in the classroom. Since our goal as educators is to make students lifelong learners and thinkers (Cullinan, 1981) and to make learning a meaningful experience, it is important to examine the teaching materials used and the appropriateness of each for identified purposes. Advocates of children's literature encourage its use to achieve affective

goals of social studies and to enhance personal meaning through narrative writing (Garcia, Hadaway, & Beal, 1988; Freeman & Levstik, 1988). But, as Beck and McKeown (1991) observe, "The enthusiasm for `real books' and for `real writing' has often been limited to narrative text" (p. 482). However, Beck and McKeown (1991) also recognize the limitations of textbooks as sources of exposition. "When teachers have an understanding of barriers created by many content area textbooks selections, they can facilitate the process through alternative reading activities . . ." (p. 482).

In order to teach children to read different texts in different ways for different purposes, students must be given opportunities to read different types of books. Woolsey and Burton (1986) suggest:

> One way to do that is to give them opportunities and reasons to read materials which are widely divergent in style, tone, and function. We must support students as they read, helping them to discover various strategies which are useful in each instance, whether it be to scan quickly, to probe deeply or to lose oneself in the shape and feel of a poetic text (p. 273).

Dalke (1973) suggests that nonfiction children's books be used in place of textbooks to achieve a more divergent experience with children's literature. "Informational trade books for children are an important and basic source of instructional material in the elementary school, as well as an important area of exploratory and recreatory reading" (p. 1).

The literature available on the use of nonfiction trade books in the social studies curriculum is rare. If teachers are to abandon traditional social studies teaching practices which include textbook instruction, research must be made available which supports

viable alternatives. The purpose of this study is to look at alternative materials for social studies instruction and to determine which material--fiction, nonfiction, or a combination of both--is most effective in meeting both affective and cognitive social studies goals.

Statement of the Problem

There has been very little research conducted on alternative social studies teaching methods (McGowan & Sutton, 1988). Even though many articles exist that delineate the problems with social studies textbooks and traditional teaching methods, they continue to be the primary tools used for teaching social studies (Patrick & Hawke, 1982; Woodward, Elliott, & Nagal, 1986). Authors continue to encourage the use of children's literature in the social studies classroom; however, few studies exist to substantiate claims of improvement in both cognitive and affective areas of social studies goals (McGowan & Sutton, 1988; James & Zarrillo, 1989; Davis & Palmer, 1992; Freeman & Levstik, 1988).

The questions addressed in this study are:

1. Will fifth grade students who are taught a unit on American Indian removal with children's nonfiction books score significantly higher on a teacher-made test than students taught the same unit using fiction, or children taught using a combination of fiction and nonfiction?

2. Will there be significant differences between the groups' attitudes toward American Indians after the unit?

3. Will the three groups differ in their attitudes toward social studies?

Hypotheses

H1: Children taught using both fiction and nonfiction will score significantly higher on a teacher-made, knowledge test than students who are taught with only fiction, and students taught with only nonfiction.

H2: Children taught with only nonfiction will score significantly higher on a teacher-made, knowledge test than students who are taught with only fiction.

H3: Children taught using both fiction and nonfiction will score significantly higher on a survey which measures attitudes toward American Indians than children who are taught with only fiction, and students who are taught with only nonfiction.

H4: Children taught with only fiction will score significantly higher on a survey which measures attitudes toward American Indians than children who are taught with nonfiction only.

H5: Children taught using both fiction and nonfiction will score significantly higher on a survey which measures attitudes toward social studies than children who are taught with only fiction, and students taught with only nonfiction.

H6: Children taught using fiction will score significantly higher on a survey which measures attitudes toward social studies than children who are taught with only nonfiction.

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study, the following definitions were used:

Achievement is defined in this study as scores on a 30-item teacher-made multiple choice test which was divided into three subtests.

Attitudes are feelings or emotions toward a fact or state. They are defined in this study as responses made to researcher developed questions related to social studies and responses made on the Gough, Harris, Martin, and Edwards Prejudice Index (1955).

Children's literature refers to any nontextbook which includes fiction, nonfiction, poetry, and biographies written for children.

Fiction refers to literature invented by the imagination.

Knowledge refers to something that is learned and kept in the mind. This includes facts, concepts, and generalizations.

Nonfiction refers to literature based on facts.

Opinion Literature refers to articles and books which express the author's opinion rather than research findings.

Trade books refer to books written for the library or market rather than for pedagogical use.

Delimitations

1. Findings from this study are limited to the three classrooms who will participate in this study.

2. The sample was limited to those students whose parents had given permission for them to participate in the study.

Assumptions

The subjects who participated in the study were a representative sample of the population of the selected school.

Overview of the Study

The statement of the problem, hypotheses, and definitions were discussed in Chapter I. A review of relevant literature will be discussed in Chapter II. The methodology used will be discussed in Chapter III. Findings are presented in Chapter IV. Summary, conclusions, and recommendations for further study will be presented in Chapter V.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

For many years there has been a call among social studies theorists for reform in the social studies curriculum. However, actual reform has been slow to materialize. According to McGowan and Sutton (1988), "Social studies has defied major instructional and curricular reform for most of the twentieth century" (p. 12). Many problems exist with current social studies instruction and materials making the need for reform essential: instructional methods in social studies classrooms are hardly different from those 20 years ago (Davis & Palmer, 1992); textbooks lack structure and any sense of clear, long-range goals (Larkins, Hawkins, & Gilmore, 1987); concept laden textbooks used for exposition create learning barriers for students (Beck & McKeown, 1991); the cost of textbooks and accompanying materials continues to increase (Jachym, Allington & Broikou, 1989); textbooks oftentimes trivialize minority subjects and create cardboard heroes instead of setting issues involving minorities in a historical context (Gilbert & Sewell, 1987); textbooks often gloss over the vital personal aspect of history making history meaningless for students (McCann, 1988); and finally, most elementary children rank social studies dead last on the favorite-subject list (Corbin, 1991). It is clear that changes need to be made in the social studies curriculum and because of this,

many educators in the field of curriculum and instruction call for increased use of children's literature to enhance the social studies curriculum (Freeman & Levstik, 1988; McGowan & Sutton, 1988; James & Zarrillo, 1989; Davis & Palmer; 1992). They generally maintain that, "Literary works could augment traditional social studies materials, aid in individualizing instruction, serve as resources for curriculum development, and generate activities that teach social studies content" (McGowan, 1988, p. 10).

However, the implementation of children's literature in the social studies curriculum has not increased significantly despite 60 years of advocation by social studies theorists (McGowan, 1988). One reason for this lag in trade book use is lack of evidence of its effectiveness. As McGowan (1988) observes, "Without proof of its value in preparing future citizens, teachers might well resist a teaching aid as apparently whimisical as a picture book. Trade book enthusiasts offered little hard evidence" (p. 10). Even though little "hard evidence" exists, the body of literature supporting trade book use continues to grow.

This study has been designed to evaluate the effects of trade book use in the social studies classroom. This study examined alternatives to textbook instruction by looking at the effectiveness of children's literature in the classroom. In order to determine which form of children's literature is most effective, three groups were developed; one using fiction only, one using nonfiction only, and one using a combination of fiction and nonfiction. At the

conclusion of the treatment the data were examined to determine which group showed the greatest gain in achievement, in attitudes toward American Indians, and in attitudes toward social studies.

The purpose of this chapter is to provide the reader with the following:

1. A review of opinion literature concerning the use of textbooks in the teaching of social studies to young children.

2. A selected review of representative opinion literature which examined the use of trade books in the teaching of social studies.

3. A selected review of representative opinion literature which examines the use of nonfiction children's literature to teach exposition.

4. A selected review of representative opinion literature on the depiction of American Indians in textbooks.

5. A review of research studies which have investigated the effects of using children's literature upon achievement.

6. A review of research studies which have investigated the effects of using nonfiction children's literature in the social studies curriculum.

7. A review of research studies which have investigated the effects of using children's literature upon attitude change toward social studies.

8. A review of research studies which have investigated the effects of using children's literature upon attitude change toward American Indians.

Opinion Literature

Textbooks

Textbooks remain the primary tool around which social studies programs are built despite evidence that textbook use is often ineffective (Schug, Todd & Beery, 1984; Davis & Palmer, 1992; Larkins & Hawkins, 1990). Not only do textbooks dominate social studies programs but they also contribute to the continued use of traditional lecture-test method of teaching. As Risinger (1991) found in his research on instructional methods used in social studies, "Lecture ranked fifth in frequency of use (second among social studies teachers) and is fifteenth--dead last--in student achievement and comprehension" (p. 4). In addition, the cognitive and affective goals of social studies cannot be adequately met using textbooks as the primary educational tool. According to research by Elliott, Nagel, and Woodward (1986), even though the technical quality of recent social studies textbooks is high . . . the content, presentation, and scope and sequence of these materials are seriously problematic, belying claims that social studies can be adequately taught through textbooks alone. Larkins and Hawkins (1990) go so far to say that, "We would rather abandon social studies than to use these teaching materials" (p. 27).

Three National Science Foundation supported studies reported similar findings:

1. The dominant instructional tool continues to be the conventional textbook, and longtime bigsellers continue to dominate the market.

2. There is little interdisciplinary teaching, and little attention to societal issues.

3. The dominate modes of instruction continue to be large group, teacher-controlled recitation and lecture based primarily on the textbook.

4. The knowing expected of students is largely information-oriented.

5. Students generally find social studies content and modes of instruction uninteresting.

6. Affective objectives are rarely an explicit part of the curriculum (Billig, 1979, p. 151).

There are many problems with textbooks and traditional lecture modes of teaching, and many articles are available that examine these inadequacies. Jachym, Allington, and Broikou (1989), found that the cost of seatwork that accompanies basal series and the educational value is inconsistent. They contend:

> If the total seatwork costs across schools were cut in half and the residual money spent on trade books, these schools would be able to purchase between 8 and 30 paperbacks per child. By doing so, each school would be providing valuable materials to be used as independent or teacher-directed activities for developing reading abilities in children (p. 34).

In addition to the seatwork cost, the basal textbook is also expensive. Successful textbooks generate large amounts of money for publishers. This is incentive to create a product that will appeal to the mass market. Consequently as Sewell (1987) states:

> Removing voice, simplifying language, mentioning, testing for concept response, and tarting up the package in order to sell it all result in a slick product--of diminished substance, perhaps, but one that may provide the publisher with a steady stream of earnings for a decade or more (p. 558).

This tremendous expense associated with basals and accompanying materials makes it increasingly difficult to justify textbook use when the effectiveness is suspect.

Another problem identified by textbook critics is the writing. In order to make the text appropriate for each grade level, readability formulas were developed. However, the original purpose of the formulas was to provide an approximate, informal method for readability analysis to be used in conjunction with other types of analysis, not as the solitary means for textbook analysis. Many states, however, began to mandate certain scores on the readability formula as a pre-condition for adoption. This has resulted in an over-utilization of the readability formulas by publishers. Publishers will not take the chance that a book will be eliminated from consideration because a readability check indicates a score too high or too low (Tyson, Bernstein, & Woodward, 1986). Woodward, Elliott, and Nagal (1986) contend that the result has been textbooks that have "inconsiderate content presentations involving short sentences, simple vocabulary and the exclusion of connectors and referents that help make text easier for youngsters to comprehend" (p. 52).

Another problem with textbook writing involves political influences. Lawrence (1988) suggests that, "Political considerations increasingly determine the content of textbooks. For two decades publishers have danced uneasily among the contradictory demands of book buyers and adoption authorities" (p. 425). Increasingly, there is pressure put on publishing companies to represent all groups misrepresented or omitted in the past, to walk a thin line on religious issues and to appease organizations that want their views included. Textbook writers then

distort or evade key elements in American history in order to avoid offending any group. Sewell (1987) suggests that:

> The casualty is evocative historiography. The writing grows discursive, wandering from subject to subject, piling event upon event. As prose becomes flat and voiceless, the content of textbooks becomes encyclopedic, serving mainly as reference material. Names and episodes dart past the reader as swiftly and memorably as telephone poles from the window of a fast moving train (p. 556).

Other problems with textbooks have been identified as well. Larkins and Hawkins' (1990) review of four basal textbooks revealed many flaws, "Much of the content in current texts is redundant, superfluous, vacuous, and needlessly superficial" (p. 25). Other writers have observed similar problems when analyzing social studies textbooks. Beyond the cost, writing, and political influences, textbooks oftentimes stress factual information instead of critical thinking, they usually lack depth of information, they lack prose and exercises that stress affective types of learning, they lack points of view, and textbooks are uninteresting (Shaver, Davis, & Helburn, 1979; Schug, Todd, & Beery, 1984; Woodward, Elliott, & Nagel, 1986; Holmes & Ammon, 1985). Herber (1981) alleges that content area textbooks may contribute to student frustration in comprehending because they emphasize delivering, collecting, and replicating information, which makes it difficult for students to perceive overarching ideas and the significance of the information they have collected or its usefulness. Since no learning can take place unless it is connected to a student's personal schemata, covering an abundance of information without building background is a futile exercise. Since

textbooks are concept laden it is imperative that students understand the concepts or frustration will result. Schug et al. findings support this.

In their article "Why Kids Don't Like Social Studies" (1984) the researchers found that students do not like social studies for a variety of reasons, "The content is uninteresting because the information is too far removed from their own experiences, too detailed for clear understanding, or repeats information learned earlier." Many students complained that social studies content was too complicated or hard while others felt that they spent too much time learning trivial details or memorizing facts. What is evident from their study is that students were unable to find a connection between themselves and social studies content thus, rendering their experience with social studies classes boring and meaningless.

Attitudes Toward American Indians in Textbooks. Concern about the development of children's racial attitudes has led many to look at the portrayals of minorities in textbooks. According to Allport (1951), "Young children are wholly free from racial bias and easily adjust to one another if brought together in the elementary grades. By the time they reach high school . . . they have taken on the prejudices of their elders." Because textbooks are so heavily relied upon, if they are inaccurate or biased, this misinformation or bias will likely be transmitted to students.

An abundance of information exists about the portrayal of minorities in textbooks. However, few comprehensive studies exist that do not have conflicting results concerning the portrayal of

American Indians in textbooks. Reyhner (1986) concluded that the greatest weakness with the American Indian content of basal readers was the lack of American Indian content in first grade textbooks. He writes:

> The lack of first grade Native American content in basal readers is especially critical since the early school years not only give students the basics they need for later school achievement, but are also the period in which they form their attitudes towards school (p. 20).

This is significant for development of cultural identity as well as positive racial attitudes. O'Neill's (1987) review of studies on the portrayal of American Indians in textbooks, revealed that early textbooks were scandalous. He asserts that:

> The textbook portrayal of the North American Indian was distorted, denigrative, inaccurate, and incomplete. In particular, textbooks contemptuously dismissed Indian religious beliefs, paid attention to Indian faults but not to Indian values, glossed over negative aspects of the white man's impact, discussed missionary endeavors among the Indian from only one point of view and represented drinking, gambling, and fighting as specifically Indian habits (p. 22).

After examining more recent studies of Indian portrayals, O'Neill (1987) found that improvements were made but insisted that, "The authors and publishers of future works can still do better. Certainly, they need to rethink their portrayal of the North American Indian if the eradication of racism and double standards is to be achieved." Reyhner (1986) suggests that to compensate for the inadequacies of textbooks, teachers need to supplement their textbooks with trade books that provide accurate, historical portrayals of American Indians.

Summary. It is evident from the number of articles written about textbooks that significant flaws exist that need to be corrected before social studies programs will be effective. Some writers contend that textbook publishers would be forced to develop better textbooks if educators demanded them (Sewell, 1987). Others believe that traditional lecture methods utilized in conjunction with textbooks should be abandoned for more innovative approaches (Schug, Todd, & Beery, 1984). Others contend that textbooks should be enhanced by using a variety of other material (Risinger, 1990). Still others discourage the use of some textbooks all together (Larkins & Hawkins, 1990).

It is imperative that educators and theorists define their social studies goals and create materials that effectively meet those goals. As Larkins and Hawkins (1990), succinctly state:

> If we continue to claim that social studies is essentially citizenship education, we must become clear about what that implies for the education of young children. Surely, it implies more than obedience, myth-making about community helpers and sanitized content about any topic that has the remotest chance of offending anyone. At the very least, we should abandon impotent approaches to affective goals (p. 32).

One method for improving social studies programs includes the use of trade books to overcome the deficiencies of textbooks. Much literature exists that supports the claims that trade books bring history to life and accomplishes affective as well as cognitive goals.

Trade Books

Many articles have been written that encourage the use of

children's literature to enhance the social studies curriculum, particularly the use of historical fiction. This idea, however, is not new. For several decades authors have advocated the use of trade books in the social studies classroom. McGowan and Guzzetti (1991) found that the early-nineteenth century educational philosopher Johann Friedrich Herbart urged teachers to correlate history with literature to instill desirable social attitudes. Then, in 1925, Henry Johnson maintained in his Teaching of History in the Elementary and Secondary Schools, "Literary sources encourage children's greater understanding of ages past" (McGowan & Guzzetti, 1991, p. 115).

Even though the focus for trade book use has shifted over the years, the main purpose has remained intact, "The use of literary works somehow make young readers more aware, open-minded, and knowledgable" (McGowan & Sutton, 1988, p. 10). Before 1949 authors encouraged trade book use to promote positive personal qualities (Gray, 1947; Jackson, 1931; Lyons, 1941; Ramsey, 1936). In a summary of pre 1949 literature, McGowan and Sutton concluded that advocates of trade book use saw the function of trade books as a means to

> . . . promote goodwill, further world mindedness, engender sympathetic understanding of other cultures, extend students' awareness beyond immediate experiences, capture the tenor of another era, illustrate various social studies concepts, and provide background information regarding world events (p. 10).

Changes in focus were made during the 1950's and 1960's towards a more utilitarian view of trade books. They were seen as a way to supplement textbook instruction in order to achieve particular

instructional goals. According to McGowan and Sutton (1988),

> Children's literature became a means to supplement textbook instruction with more readable materials, enrich social studies lessons with important detail, support key concepts with factual information, liven instruction, and add an emotional dimension to social studies (p. 10).

Increasingly, advocates of children's literature in the social studies have assigned a more practical, functional use of trade books. During the 1970's and 1980's proponents saw trade book use as central to solid social studies programs. "Some reformers nominated children's literature as the cornerstone of future social studies curricula" (McGowan & Sutton, 1988, p. 10).

McGowan and Sutton (1988) contend that one sign of a relationship's maturity is the sizeable body of literature that supports it. Since 1929 a literature search of journals and unpublished materials yielded over 160 sources that explicate the ways in which trade books can enrich social studies teaching. From the existing literature little variance is shown concerning the definitions of trade books and children's literature. Trade books are books written for the library or commercial book store market rather than for pedagogical use. Children's literature is characterized as any nontextbook which includes fiction, nonfiction, poetry, and biography (McGowan & Sutton, 1988). These definitions have remained fairly constant since 1928 which helps alleviate discrepancy in the authors' intent.

There are many ways to use children's literature to promote understanding of important social studies concepts but the majority of the articles center primarily around the use of historical

fiction in the social studies curriculum. However, many teachers have difficulty creating a meaningful unit of study out of seemingly unrelated curricula. According to James and Zarrillo (1989), "Often what is missed from these curricular efforts is a unifying strand that provides a sense of clarity and cohesion" (p. 153). This has led educators like Hilda Taba and behavioral scientists like Jerome Bruner and Robert Gagne to identify important concepts around which units of study could be built. These concepts were intended, "to provide a means by which students could reduce the complexity of the ever-changing social environment" (Bruner, Goodnow, & Austin, 1956, p. 154). James and Zarrillo suggest that these concepts should be the instrumental key for educators to develop a unified, meaningful curriculum. This is significant since states such as Arizona, California, New York, and Wisconsin call for curriculum guidelines to improve concept acquisition in social studies. These states' guidelines direct teachers to "improve concept acquisition by incorporating trade books in social studies instruction" (Guzzetti, Kowalinski, & McGowan, 1992, p. 115).

Not only is there a call for more emphasis on concept development but there is also a national movement that advocates a history based social studies program. For instance, in California's new History-Social Science Framework (1988) other social science disciplines are de-emphasized as history becomes the primary focus. The argrument is made that elementary children should have a sound knowledge of the past for two reasons; "This information provides a sort of cultural glue, offering a shared American heritage and

national identity; and historical knowledge becomes an essential foundation upon which greater and deeper understandings can be built" (James & Zarrillo, 1989, p. 153).

Because of the importance of concept development and the national movement toward a historical focus in the social studies, many writers support the use of historical fiction in the social studies to help meet these demands. Corbin (1991) developed a rationale for using children's historical fiction in the classroom:

1. Some researchers conclude that children begin their process of studying social phenomena through narrative; therefore building on that beginning by continuing to present social data through story improves its communication for young people.

2. Historical fiction, because of its inherently dramatic qualities, encourages children to invest emotion, take sides, and ask questions.

3. Books can be sources for information not available in, or even at odds with, what cautiously edited textbooks offer (p. 23).

In addition, Calfee (1987) argued that trade books, in contrast to textbooks, can provide causal relationships between concepts allowing the reader a better opportunity to answer their own questions through the reading process. Since students are actively engaged in their reading, critical thinking skills can also be developed. According to Brown (1986), "Children's literature abounds with relevant examples of situations requiring thinking skills. Stories about how people solve problems can be found in both fiction and nonfiction for all ages" (p. 106).

Beyond the rationale for using children's historical fiction and the connection between books and concept development lies an

even more important function of historical fiction, its motivational ability. Studies show that students do not enjoy and retain information about the past because they are involved in day-to-day experiences. According to Cianciolo (1981):

> So many experiences happen to them (children) each day, or each hour for that matter, that they are not free to allow the future to stretch more than a day ahead. And as for the past, everything that has taken place before their birthday is comparable to the academician's prehistoric times and is not considered important (p. 452).

Because the past is viewed as peculiar and alien to their present reality, comprehending historical events is complicated and challenging. Historical fiction provides a means of bridging the gap between the past and present. "A historical story can enable the reader to view the past as a reality, experience it vicariously but personally thus giving it significance and relevance" (Cianciolo, 1981, p. 452). Textbooks lack the human element that historical fiction offers. Also, the seemingly unrelated facts and concepts offered by textbooks are connected by historical fiction. "Social studies concepts placed within a historical setting can provide a unifying structure that is both developmentally appropriate and intellectually invigorating" (James & Zarrillo, 1989, p. 154).

Freeman and Levstik (1988) discuss the effectiveness of historical fiction in connecting historical events with personal experiences. They write:

> Through historical fiction, students learn that people in all times have faced change and crises, that people in all times have basic needs in common, and that these needs remain in our time. Students can discover some of the myriad ways in which humans depend on each other. They

> will also discover the consequences of human failure in relationships, both personal and historical (p. 330).

Historical fiction used in a social studies program can meet many of the specific goals of the social studies. Freeman and Levstik (1988) identify the goals and skills that historical fiction support. They write:

> Learning about the world, its people, and their cultures; learning about the settlement, growth, history, and development of the United States; detecting author bias; distinguishing between fact and opinion; sensing cause and effect relationships; comparing and contrasting differing points of view; and recognizing the value components in decision making (p. 330).

One important goal of the social studies that is neglected in textbooks is attention to affective goals that help foster understanding of different cultural groups (Reyner, 1986; O'Neill, 1987). According to the Task Force on Scope and Sequence (1983), a major goal of social studies is to prepare young children to identify, understand, and work to solve the problems that face our diverse nation and interdependent world. Many authors advocate the use of trade books to satisfy the affective goals of social studies (Garcia, Hadaway, & Beal, 1988; McCann, 1988; Common, 1986; Freeman & Levstik, 1988). Guzzetti, Kowalinski, and McGowan (1992) suggest that by using real books in the social studies curriculum a teacher is providing a relevant, interesting, and intellectually provocative way for students to acquire new attitudes toward and understanding of the world around them. Students must understand the different cultures that make up our pluralistic society in order to participate effectively. Consequently, "social studies intructional

goals must emphasize and teach social participation and decision making in order to preserve our democratic society" (Lemlech, 1983, p. 183). Historical fiction appears to be a considerate, effective way to meet these affective goals.

Nonfiction as Exposition

It is important to recognize the goals of instruction in the elementary classroom and choose the materials that are most appropriate to meet those goals. Lemlech (1983) identifies the goals that elementary classrooms try to achieve: (a) acquisition of information and basic skills, (b) development of social attitudes, (c) development of self, and (d) development of information-processing and problem solving skills (p. 182). Many of these goals can be met through the use of historical fiction which is motivating and relevant to the students. But, the enthusiasm for "real books" and for "real writing" has overshadowed the need to teach exposition in some classrooms.

Beck and McKeown observed that in one project where 100 hours of literacy periods in second and sixth grade literature based classrooms were observed, not a single instance occurred during which teachers modeled strategies with expository text or read from expository text. Since an understanding of expository content and structure will be encountered by individuals in their daily lives, it is necessary to give students tools with which to access this information. Beck and McGowan (1991) state that, "Teaching the content and structure of exposition is necessary for individuals to participate fully in society because they must interpret and apply

information from magazine articles, newspapers, travel guides, ballots and a multitude of forms and memos" (p. 482).

One way to utilize both historical fiction and nonfiction in the classroom is through of variety of reading exercises. Woolsey and Burton (1986) write:

> Children can learn how to read different texts in different ways for different purposes. One way to do that is to give them opportunities and reasons to read materials which are widely divergent in style, tone and function. We must support students as they read, helping them to discover various strategies which are useful in each instance (p. 273).

However, Beck and McKeown acknowledged that the content and structures of exposition found in textbooks rarely draw on the background knowledge of the students. In addition, social studies textbooks often contain ideas and events beyond a young student's grasp because the texts assume an unrealistic level of knowledge. Because of this and other problems with textbooks, the use of nonfiction children's literature in conjunction with fiction should give the students practice with exposition as well as opportunities to interact with and evaluate people and events.

Even though most of the literature advocates the use of historical fiction to enhance social studies programs centered around textbooks, there are many nonfiction books and articles available that can supplement historical fiction to create teaching units that meet the goals of the social studies without subjecting children to impotent textbooks (Dalke, 1973).

Research Related To Achievement

Historical Fiction

Despite the literature available that advocates the use of children's literature in the social studies curriculum, little hard evidence exists that substantiates the claims of trade book enthusiasts. As McGowan and Sutton (1988) conclude, "Without proof of its value in preparing future citizens, teachers might well resist a teaching aid as apparently whimsical as a picture book. Trade book enthusiasts offered little hard evidence" (p. 11). The studies that have been done do not provide a clear understanding of the effects of children's literature in the classroom. A search for relevant historical fiction research that examined the effects of using children's literature to improve knowledge acquisition yielded few studies. The results from those studies were far from conclusive.

Kingdon (1957) conducted one of the first studies related to the use of literature in the social studies. He examined the achievement of fourth grade students who were taught with factual and story forms of social studies material. Kingdon sought to find out if the form of presentation, exposition or narration, affected student achievement in factual recall of social studies material. He found that there was no significant difference between the two groups on the same test. He concluded that even though fifty-eight percent of the pupils preferred the story form, no evidence existed that one form of presentation was more advantageous for the learning of facts than the other.

Brandhorst (1973) examined the use of historical fiction. He researched the effects of reading historical fiction on attitudes of high school students toward certain social studies concepts. He also examined the achievement of students reading historical fiction as well as the implications of possible emotional involvement of students with characters. He found that there was no evidence that reading historical fiction produced gains in achievement on selected concepts. He also concluded that the study failed to produce any evidence that reading historical fiction influenced attitudes or biased subsequent retention of information.

Finally, Kovalcik (1979) conducted a study to determine whether children's literature affected attitude change towards social studies or information gain after a unit on the American Revolution. He concluded that the inclusion of 14 trade books into a traditional method of social studies instruction did not influence students' information gain. He also reported that students in the control group who used the regular textbook scored significantly higher on an achievement test.

The results of these studies indicate that historical fiction does not significantly affect the achievement of students in the elementary or high school. Consequently, the implication for teachers is that traditional textbook instruction is as effective as a social studies curriculum which utilizes a variety of materials. However, more recent studies contradict the findings of these early ones.

Howe (1990) reported in her study "Children's Literature and its Effects on Cognitive and Non Cognitive Behaviors in Elementary

Social Studies" that students who were read selections in historical fiction to supplement the textbook did significantly better than the control group on one measure of social studies achievement. She also found that students with below average reading ability are at a distinct disadvantage in social studies classrooms because of the difficulty of the texts. The implication of her study is that the use of a variety of children's literature written at a wide range of reading levels as a supplement to the social studies textbook can help lower ability students understand social studies content. In summary, Howe (1990) stated, "The use of children's literature is an easy, readily available, comparably inexpensive, and valuable source for teaching social studies concepts to fifth grade students."

Guzzetti, Kowalinski, and McGowan (1992) also conducted a study to determine the effectiveness of a literature-based social studies program. They designed a unit on China for upper elementary students to determine if a literature based unit would yield more positive scores on both attitudes towards reading and social studies and on achievement. They concluded, "Students can acquire more concepts and a greater understanding of those concepts through literature and literature-based instruction than through a traditional approach" (p. 66).

Smith (1993) examined the potential for enhancing students' content area learning by using historical novels. Seven fifth-grade teachers participated in the study. Four groups were supplied with historical novels to teach specific social studies concepts while

three groups used basal readers and social studies texts. Smith found that the students in the experimental classrooms were able to recall about 60% more information about United States history than the students in the control classrooms. He concluded,

> The data from this study support the idea that classroom instruction time may be made more productive by the use of content-rich picture books and novels for reading instruction. And by combining the two disciplines, (reading and social studies) students can more effectively learn to appreciate our historical and literary heritages (p. 10).

In summary, early studies show that there is little advantage to using literature in the social studies classroom. This could be due to the lack of information available on how to implement fiction in the classroom or to teacher inexperience (Kingdon, 1957; Brandhorst, 1973; Kovalcik, 1979).

The later studies show that there is evidence that children's literature improves knowledge acquisition in social studies classrooms (Howe, 1990; Guzzetti, Kowalinski, & McGowan, 1992; McKinney & Jones, 1992; Jones & McKinney, 1993; Smith, 1993). The results of previous studies are contradictory and fail to provide evidence either for or against the effectiveness of children's literature in the social studies curriculum.

Nonfiction

The research that looks specifically at nonfiction children's literature in the social studies classroom is limited. A literature search turned up two related research projects. A study by Cunningham and Gall (1990) entitled, "The Effects of Exposition and

Narrative Prose on Student Achievement and Attitudes Toward Textbooks" attempted to provide evidence that narrative text structure would be more interesting than expository text structure and would therefore motivate more learning. Contrary to their predictions, the two groups did not differ significantly on the achievement posttest. They suggested that further research needs to be conducted before they could support the recommendation that textbooks written in the narrative genre would be better selections than those written in expository genres.

Dalke (1973) investigated the limited use of children's informational trade books in the elementary classrooms. He suggested that this limited use is caused by the following reasons:

1. Many teachers are unaware of their (informational trade books) existence.

2. Many teachers consider them too expensive or too difficult to obtain.

3. Use of money for informational trade books must compete constantly with other demands on the library budget, especially those for current fiction (p. 3).

After an extensive review of informational trade books Dalke concluded that "Informational trade books for children are available in sufficient quantity and diversity to provide a rich source of social studies and science content available for instruction of elementary school children" (p. 210).

McKinney and Jones (1992) reported similar results in their study which examined the role of a children's book and a regular

textbook on fifth grade students' knowledge acquisition and attitudes toward social studies. Their results showed that students undoubtedly learned more social studies content when taught with a children's book than with a traditional textbook. They attributed this gain in content acquisition to the fact that children's books include more content than regular textbooks. In this study the children's book used was 153 pages while the textbook gave only 20 pages to the topic of the American Revolution.

A second study conducted by Jones and McKinney (1993) compared three approaches which utilized children's trade books to teach a social studies unit on Thanksgiving. They examined the effects of a themed literature approach, a directed reading approach, and a silent reading approach on student achievement.

The results of this study showed that the teacher-directed approach yielded the most significant gains in achievement even though all three groups showed an increase from pre-test to post-test. The researchers concluded that, "the study provided evidence that children can learn from children's books when no formal instruction is used or when other than traditional methods are used" (p. 13).

Research Related to Social Studies Attitudes

An area of educational research that is harder to determine than cognitive achievement is attitudinal change. Since most educational research deals with cognitive behaviors, there are few

studies that exist that look at the effects of attitudes toward achievement in the social studies classroom. According to Howe (1990), attitudes are important to consider when studying learning because attitudes may be causally related to achievement. Students with positive attitudes toward a subject are more likely to excel in that area.

Since attitudes are thought to affect achievement, the implications for social studies educators are discouraging. Corbin (1991) found that, "most children ranked social studies dead last on the favorite subject list" (p. 22). This information was compiled from a list of surveys and studies conducted throughout the 1980's. Schug, Todd, and Beery (1984) also found that students do not like social studies because young people perceived it as not being valuable. Even though attitudes are hard to measure and research has yielded inconclusive results, Haladyna and Shaughnessy (1982) report that, "despite the paucity of studies, there is uncontestable evidence that social studies is one of the least liked subject matters in our schools" (p. 1).

Research studies have looked at the possibility of changing attitudes toward social studies by using children's literature as an intervention tool. Kimmel (1973) conducted a study to see whether literature used in a social studies program would affect the attitudes of students toward the countries they were studying. He found that minor changes in attitude toward the different countries appeared but that the change could not be clearly attributed to the books and related materials. He concluded that books alone can

change children's values and attitudes according to predictable patterns appears to be unjustified. However, Kimmel identified some weaknesses in his study that were significant and should warrant more consideration before such a conclusion could be drawn. The weaknesses were (a) the exposure period may have been too short, (b) the students may not have read enough books,
(c) there may have been to many countries which could prove distracting, and (d) the books themselves may not have been suitable to convey positive attitudes toward the countries.

Brandhorst (1973) in the study cited earlier reported that his findings also failed to provide evidence that historical fiction may be a means for influencing attitudes. The researcher's results seemed unsatisfactory and he concluded by stating, "Given the advantages associated with the use of historical fiction, more definitive research seems to be warranted" (p. 93).

Kovalcik (1979) examined the use of children's literature to change fifth grade student's attitudes toward social studies. He reported that, "The inclusion of an identified collection of fourteen trade books into a traditional method of social studies instruction did not influence students' attitudes towards social studies as an area of instruction" (p. 69). An implication of his study is that merely inserting literature into a traditional social studies program is not effective. However, the treatment data revealed that very little change in traditional instruction occurred in the experimental groups. One teacher made the trade books available only. One teacher had students read one book and write a

report, and the third teacher provided some classroom time for reading the trade books and for developing reporting activities. However, the teacher believed that the time given to classroom reading detracted from more traditional instructional time. Clearly, the way teachers use children's literature and their attitudes about using it is going to affect the results of the study.

Howe (1990) examined the connection between students' achievement in social studies and their attitude toward social studies. She reported that there was a small but positive correlation between students' achievement in social studies and students' attitudes toward social studies. In addition, Howe found that reading ability was a strong predictor of student attitudes toward reading and social studies and student achievement in social studies. These findings are significant because of the disadvantage students with below average reading ability have in classrooms dominated by textbooks that are concept laden and difficult to read. Even though a positive correlation was found between reading achievement and attitude, Howe's study also revealed that there were no significant differences in student attitudes toward the relevance of social studies in their lives nor in student attitudes toward the social studies textbook, regardless of reading level. However, she did add that a three month intervention was a relatively short time to influence and change attitudes.

Guzzetti, Kowalinski, and McGowan (1992) also examined both knowledge acquisition and attitudinal change. As stated earlier,

they found gains in knowledge acquisition of social studies concepts when using children's literature but no differential gains in attitudes toward reading and social studies. Because they were dissatisfied with the attitudinal results, they interviewed participants. Students revealed in the interviews that they did not see the China unit as social studies since a text was not used; therefore, their attitudes toward the subject did not change.

McKinney and Jones (1992) reported that all groups taught a unit on the American Revolution with children's literature or a combination of textbook and literature showed improved attitude towards social studies. However, the control group that used only the textbook showed the most dramatic improvement in attitude toward social studies. The researchers concluded however that, "Attitude may have been related more to the instructional activities than the textbook itself" (p. 14).

Jones and McKinney (1993) conducted another study to determine which of three teaching methods that used children's literature would yield the greatest increase in knowledge acquisition and attitudinal change. The three methods were: (a) silent reading of a single book, (b) a directed reading lesson, and (c) a themed literature approach. The results indicated that the groups taught with the book only and the directed reading lesson showed only minor changes on any of the attitude items. The group taught with the themed literature unit showed a slightly more negative attitude toward social studies. This indicates that students' familiarity with a teaching method may also influence their attitudes toward a subject.

In summary, the studies which examined the ability of children's literature to influence or change attitudes toward social studies is far from conclusive. Because of the difficulty in measuring attitudes and the limitations of the existing studies, more research needs to be done in order to substantiate the claims of literature enthusiasts who contend that attitudes can be affected by integrating trade books in the social studies classroom.

Research on Attitudes Toward American Indians

The research available on the ability of children's literature to effect a change in attitudes toward American Indians is limited. What research does exist on American Indians is primarily analyses of books and characterizations of Indians (Napier, 1970; Troy, 1972; Brown, 1977; Sasse, 1979; Barron, 1981). However, two studies have been conducted that examined specifically ways children's literature influenced attitudes toward American Indians.

Fisher (1965) designed a study to examine the effects of reading and discussing literature on attitudes toward American Indians. Group 1 read six stories or articles about American Indians. Group 2 read and discussed the stories and articles. Group 3 neither read nor discussed the printed material. Fisher found that reading literature about American Indians caused a positive attitude change toward American Indians that was significantly greater than the change in the group that did no reading. The group that both read and discussed material rendered the greatest attitude change in a positive direction toward American Indians.

Tauran (1967) conducted a study entitled "The Influences of Reading on the Attitudes of Third Graders Toward Eskimos." He found that independent reading of favorable material from children's literature about Eskimos was associated with a change of attitude in a direction favorable to Eskimos. Independent reading of unfavorable material about Eskimos was associated with a change of attitude in a direction unfavorable to the Eskimos. These findings are significant for two reasons. First, teachers must work in conjunction with other informed media specialists to choose material that is authentic and appropriate. Secondly, the study shows how easily children can be influenced by favorable or unfavorable material. According to Tauran, "The racial ideas of children are less rigid, more easily changed, than the racial ideas of adults . . . The direction these attitudes will take, their intensity and form of expression, will be determined by the types of experiences that the child is permitted to have" (p. 12).

Derbaum (1981) examined the effects of multi-ethnic children's literature on the attitudes of white children. Her findings also revealed that there was evidence that multi-ethnic literature can positively affect the attitudes of young children. In addition, she found that significant positive results can be achieved in a short time span in regard to attitudinal change.

In summary, the need exists for studies that examine the effects of trade books on attitudes toward both social studies and American Indians. Until substantial evidence is available that reifies the ability of trade books to effect a change in attitudes,

this claim will continue to be ignored and positive affective goals of social studies unachieved.

Summary

There are many articles written that encourage the use of children's literature in the social studies curriculum. The amount of material encouraging the use of children's literature continues to grow (Billig, 1979; Brown, 1986; Cianciolo, 1981; Common, 1986; Corbin, 1991; Freeman, & Levstik, 1988; Holmes, 1985; James & Zarrillo, 1989; McGowan, & Sutton, 1988; Shaver, Davis, & Helburn, 1979; Woodward, Elliott, & Nagel, 1986). However, there is little "hard evidence" available to support the claims of literature enthusiasts. The research that is available is contradictory. Some researchers found no evidence of achievement gain or attitude change while other researchers found significant gains (Brandhorst, 1973; Brown, 1977; Dalke, 1973; Derbaum, 1981; Fisher, 1965; Guzzetti, Kowalinski, & McGowan, 1992; Howe, 1990; Jones, & McKinney, 1993; Kimmel, 1973; Kingdon, 1957; Kovalcik, 1979; McGowan & Guzzetti, 1991; McKinney & Jones, 1992; Napier, 1970; Tauran, 1967). Practitioners need evidence of the effectiveness of innovative teaching methods before they will be adopted.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

According to McGowan and Sutton (1988), traditional textbook use in the social studies classroom has undergone little change during the twentieth century despite much criticism of social studies textbooks (Schug, Todd, & Beery, 1984; Holmes & Ammon, 1985; Woodward, Elliott, & Nagel, 1986; Kretman & Parker, 1986; Gilbert & Sewall, 1987; Larkins & Hawkins, 1990; Beck & McKeown, 1991). Patrick and Hawke (1982) reported that nearly two-thirds of instructional time involved print materials, but these sources rarely extended beyond a single textbook. Even though many articles exist that advocate the use of trade books as an alternative or supplement to social studies textbooks, a gap still exists between the idea of trade book use and actual practice. One reason for this gap is identified by McGowan and Sutton as a lack of persuasive evidence of trade book effectiveness. They found that of 164 articles and documents on the social studies/literature connection, only four percent were research articles supporting the claims of trade book advocates. Since change in social studies education comes gradually and only with great effort, research related to this topic is needed to corroborate the claims of social studies/ literature theorists and lessen the apprehension practitioners may feel.

Procedures

This chapter will include a description of the sample, treatment, and teacher involved in the study. The experimental design, instrumentation, and analysis of the data are also discussed.

Subjects

The sample for this study consisted of three fifth grade classrooms which was randomly assigned to one of three treatment groups. Only students who returned parental permission forms were allowed to participate in the study (see Appendix A). To begin the study there were eight boys and 10 girls in the nonfiction group; there were 10 boys and 9 girls in the group that received both fiction and nonfiction; and there were 10 boys and 11 girls in the group that received fiction only. Because of more than two absences and moderate learning disabilities, it was determined prior to data collection to remove some students' data. The total number of students whose data were figured from the nonfiction group was 16. The total number of students from the group that received both treatments was 15. The total number of students from the fiction only group was 16 resulting in 47 participants of which 28 were female and 19 were male.

The distribution of minorities among the participating classrooms was representative of the school and of the community as well. The total school population was 423. Of that, 81% or 343 were Caucasian, 41 or 9% were American Indian, 29 or 7% were African

American, and 9 or 2% were Hispanic. The nonfiction group had 2 minority children: one Hispanic male and one African American male. The group that received both fiction and nonfiction consisted of Caucasians. The group that received fiction only had four minorities: one American Indian male, two African American females and one African American male.

School

The students attended an elementary school located in a medium size, southwestern city with a population of approximately 40,000. There were over 400 students who attended grades kindergarten through grade five. There were four self-contained fifth grade classes. Three of the classes were randomly selected to participate in the study. The fourth class was taught the same material but was not a part of the study. A majority of the students came from lower middle class backgrounds.

Teacher

The teacher who taught the lessons for all three groups was employed at a nearby university. He was a certified middle school teacher with five years of social studies teaching experience. He has since taught at the university level for 14 years where he teaches social studies methods classes and children's literature classes.

Treatment

The unit designed for the study consisted of 10 forty-five minute class periods. There were three groups in the study, each learning about the Navajo removal by different material. Group 1 was taught using nonfiction. Group 2 was taught using fiction and nonfiction, and Group 3 was taught using fiction only. A basal series was not used. Instead trade books, both fiction and nonfiction, articles and personal accounts were used.

Each group participated in the same introduction, activities and tests. Daily journals were also kept by the students in each group.

Treatment 1--Nonfiction Only

The students in Group I learned about the Navajo removal from a variety of sources. Chapters were taken from books as well as actual personal accounts of the removal. The students read the assigned material and completed the accompanying study guides. They discussed in class the content of each reading assignment as a group then participated in activities that furthered their understanding of the Navajo removal.

Day 1: Pretests were administered that measured knowledge about the topic, attitudes towards American Indians and attitudes towards social studies (see Appendices B, C, & D). The teacher presented the background for the unit, an overview of the unit, and the need for the unit. A slide presentation was used to motivate the students and acquaint them with the Navajo culture. The teacher

assigned Handout #1, Overview of the Long Walk (see Appendix E) and study guide (see Appendix F).

Day 2: The teacher led a discussion of Handout #1. Following this discussion the students created their own maps that outlined the beginning and ending of the Navajo removal. After the map activity, the students wrote in their journals and the teacher assigned Handout #2, Causes of the Navajo Removal (see Appendix E) and study guide (see Appendix F) for the next day.

Day 3: The teacher led a discussion of the causes of the Navajo removal. Following the discussion, the students began work on building a Navajo village. After the allotted time the students wrote a reaction in their journals, and the teacher assigned Handout #3, Personal Account of the Navajo Removal (see Appendix E) and the study guide (see Appendix F).

Day 4: The teacher led a discussion of Handout #3. Next, the students finished working on their villages. After the allotted time the students wrote a reaction in their journals, and the teacher assigned Handout #4, Personal Account #2 of the Navajo Removal (see Appendix E) and the study guide for the next day (see Appendix F).

Day 5: The teacher led a discussion of Handout #4. The teacher then read to the students the description of conditions and the release of the Navajos from Ft. Sumner. The class discussed the reasons for the Navajos' return. The students then filled in a decision making tree dealing with a situation where they were forced

to move (see Appendix G). Next, the students wrote a reaction in their journals, and the teacher assigned Handout #5, Life at Ft. Sumner (see Appendix E) and the study guide for the next day (see Appendix F).

Day 6: The teacher led a discussion of Handout #5. The students then role played a discrimination scene and related it to the unit on Indian removal (see Appendix H). The students then wrote a reaction in their journals, and the teacher assigned Handout #6, Navajo Treaty (see Appendix E) and the study guide for the next day (see Appendix F).

Day 7: The teacher led a discussion of Handout #6. Afterwards, the students wrote a story about the experiences and feelings during The Long Walk using themselves as characters. The teacher then assigned Handout #7, Aftermath of the Navajo Removal (see Appendix E) and the study guide for the next day (see Appendix F).

Day 8: The teacher led a discussion of Handout #7. After the discussion, the students made a timeline of important events in the Navajo removal (see Appendix I). Next, the students wrote in their journals.

Day 9: The teacher summarized the two week unit on the Navajo removal and the teacher conducted a review of the material in the form of a game.

Day 10: The teacher administered a posttest over the Navajo removal as well as attitude surveys on American Indians and social studies (see Appendices B, C, & D).

Treatment 2--Fiction and Nonfiction

The students in Group II learned about the Navajo removal through the study of both fiction and nonfiction. Students assigned to Group II read at-home assignments from the book Sing Down the Moon, and filled out the accompanying study guides. In the book a young Navajo girl and her family endure hardships as they were forced from their Arizona home and made to travel to Ft. Sumner, New Mexico in a removal referred to as "The Long Walk". The teacher then provided the students with in-class handouts of actual accounts of The Long Walk. After the handouts were read by the teacher, discussion followed and connections made. After the discussion the group participated in planned activities that furthered their understanding of the Navajo removal.

Day 1: Pretests were given that identified knowledge about the topic, attitudes towards American Indians and attitudes towards social studies (see Appendices B, C, & D). The teacher then presented the background for the unit--what would be studied and why. A slide presentation was used to motivate the students and acquaint them with the Navajo culture. The teacher assigned Chapters 1-3 in the book, Sing Down the Moon, and the study guide (see Appendix J).

Day 2: The teacher distributed Handout #1, An Overview of the Long Walk (see Appendix E). After reading the handout orally, the teacher led a discussion of chapter 1 in the book. Elements of Navajo culture were identified as well as any indication of the eminent removal. The students then created their own maps that

outlined the beginning and ending of the Navajo removal. After the map activity, the students wrote in their journals, and the teacher assigned Chapters 4-7 and the study guide for the next day (see Appendix J).

Day 3: The teacher distributed Handout #2, Causes of the Navajo Removal (see Appendix E) and read it orally to the class. The teacher led a discussion that identified the causes discussed in the handout. The students then began work on building a Navajo village. After the allotted time the students wrote a reaction in their journals, and the teacher assigned Chapters 8-11 and the study guide (see Appendix J).

Day 4: The teacher led a discussion on Chapters 8-11. After this discussion, the students completed work on their villages. After the allotted time the students wrote a reaction in their journals, and the teacher assigned Chapters 12-14 and the study guide for the next day (see Appendix J).

Day 5: The teacher passed out Handout #3, A Personal Account of The Long Walk (see Appendix E) and read it orally to the class. The teacher then led a discussion that identified similarities between the personal account and the fictionalized account of the event. The students then filled in a decision making tree dealing with a situation where they were forced to move (see Appendix G). The students then wrote a reaction in their journals, and the teacher assigned Chapters 15-18 and the study guide for the next day (see Appendix J).

Day 6: The teacher distributed Handout #4, Personal Account #2 of The Long Walk (see Appendix E) and read it orally to the class. The teacher then led a discussion that identified similarities and differences between the personal account and the fictionalized account. The students then role played a discrimination scene and related it to the unit on Navajo removal (see Appendix H). Following the role playing activity, the students wrote a reaction in their journals, and the teacher assigned Chapters 19-21 and the study guide for the next day (see Appendix J).

Day 7: The teacher passed out Handout #5, Life at Fort Sumner (see Appendix E) and read it orally to the class. The teacher then led a discussion that identified similarities and differences between the fictionalized and factual accounts. Afterwards, the students wrote a story about the experiences and feelings during The Long Walk using themselves as characters. The teacher assigned Chapters 22-23 and the study guide for the next day (see Appendix J).

Day 8: The teacher passed out Handout #7, Aftermath of the Removal (see Appendix E) and read it orally to the class. Following the reading, the teacher led a discussion that identified similarities and differences between the fictionalized and factual accounts. Following the completion of a timeline of important events (see Appendix I) the students wrote in their journals.

Day 9: The teacher led the class in a summary of the information and conducted a review of the material in the form of a game.

Day 10: The teacher administered a posttest over Navajo removal as well as attitude surveys on American Indians and social studies (see Appendices B, C, & D).

Treatment 3--Fiction Only

The students in Group III were taught about Navajo Indian removal through the study of historical fiction. Students assigned to Group III read at home assignments from the book, Sing Down the Moon and completed an accompanying study guide. They discussed in class the content of each chapter as a group then participated in planned activities that furthered their understanding of the Navajo removal.

Day 1: Pretests were given that identified knowledge about the topic (see Appendix B), attitudes towards American Indians, and attitudes towards social studies (see Appendices C & D). Also, the teacher presented the background for the unit; what would be studied and why. A slide presentation was used to motivate the students and acquaint them with the Navajo culture. The teacher assigned Chapters 1-3 in Sing Down the Moon and the study guide (see Appendix J).

Day 2: The teacher led a discussion of Chapters 1-3. The students then created maps that outlined the beginning and ending of the Navajo removal. The students worked in small cooperative groups. After the maps were made, the students were asked to write in their journals, and the teacher assigned Chapters 4-7 and the study guide for the next day (see Appendix J).

Day 3: The teacher lead a discussion on Chapters 4-7. The students then began work on building a Navajo village. After the allotted time the students wrote a reaction in their journals, and the teacher assigned Chapters 8-11 and the study guide (see Appendix J).

Day 4: The teacher lead a discussion of Chapters 8-11. The students completed work on their villages. After the allotted time the students wrote a reaction in their journals, and the teacher assigned Chapters 12-14 and the study guide for the next day (see Appendix J).

Day 5: The teacher lead a discussion of Chapters 12-14. Following the discussion the students then filled in a decision making tree (see Appendix G). After completing the decision making activity the students wrote a reaction in their journal and the teacher assigned Chapters 15-18 and study guide for the next day (see Appendix J).

Day 6: The teacher lead a discussion of Chapters 15-18. The students then role played a discrimination scene and related it to the unit on Indian removal (see Appendix H). Following the activity the students wrote a reaction in their journals, and the teacher assigned Chapters 19-21 and study guide for the next day (see Appendix J).

Day 7: The teacher led a discussion of Chapters 19-21. Afterwards, the students wrote a story about the experiences and feelings during The Long Walk using themselves as a character. The teacher then assigned Chapters 22-23 and the study guide for the next day (see Appendix J).

Day 8: The teacher led a discussion of Chapters 22-23. The students then made a timeline of important events in the story (see Appendix I). Following the activity the students then wrote in their journals.

Day 9: The teacher reviewed the material presented during the last two weeks and then had the students play a game to further their comprehension.

Day 10: The teacher administered a posttest over Indian removal as well as attitude surveys on American Indians and social studies (see Appendices B, C, & D).

Instrumentation

Knowledge

A 30 item, teacher-made, multiple choice test was given at the beginning and the end of the unit. The questions consisted of a combination of recall and inferential items.

Pretest

On the first day of the unit the students were given a 30 item, teacher-made, multiple choice test. This pretest was later used as the covariate.

Posttest

On the tenth day of the unit the students were administered a posttest similar to the pretest in order to measure knowledge gain. The test measured both factual recall and higher order thinking.

The students were asked to select the correct answer from four choices. The items were either common for all treatments or were able to be inferred. Factor analysis was used to determine if subtests existed. Results indicated that there were three clusters of items. Four items were eliminated because they failed to correlate with the three dominant subtests. Cronbach's alpha was then used to estimate the reliability of each subtest.

Subtest 1. Factual Recall and Long Walk Questions. Subtest 1 consisted mainly of lower level recall questions. There were 12 items that loaded on this factor (see Appendix K). The reliability of this subtest, as estimated by Cronbach's alpha was .78.

Subtest 2. Geography and Economics. Subtest 2 consisted of geography and economic questions. The eight items that loaded on Subtest 2 were mainly inferential questions (see Appendix K). The reliability of this subtest was estimated to be .61.

Subtest 3. Concepts. Subtest 3 consisted of items that required mastery of certain social studies concepts. These questions were higher level thinking items. Six questions loaded on Subtest 3 (see Appendix K). The reliability of this subtest was estimated to be .47.

Attitude Surveys

There were two attitude surveys. One measured attitudes toward American Indians and the other measured attitudes toward social studies.

Prejudice Index

On the first day of the unit the students were administered the Gough, Harris, Martin, and Edwards Prejudice Index (1950) to identify attitudes towards American Indians (see Appendix B). On the last day of the unit the students were administered the same test to determine whether any attitude change had occurred.

The GHME-Index consisted of 18 statements that could be applied to any minority group, six statements were unfavorable while 12 statements were favorable. Scores could range from 1 to 18. The lower the score the greater the prejudice toward a specified minority group.

The scale had content validity from at least two sources. First, only items had been retained that covered a range of opinions from favorable to unfavorable as judged by children themselves. Second, pretesting eliminated items that children did not comprehend readily. Reliability on this 18-item scale was .78 as estimated by the Kuder-Richardson formula (Gough, Harris, Martin, & Edwards, 1950).

Social Studies Survey

On the first day of the unit the students were administered a teacher-made, 10-item, attitude survey to identify students' attitudes towards social studies (see Appendix C). On the last day of the unit the students were administered a similar test to determine whether any attitude change occurred. Factor analysis

indicated that the scale was unidimensional. The reliability of the scale as estimated by Cronbach's alpha was .81.

Research Design

A pretest-posttest, quasi-experimental design was used. Three intact fifth grade classrooms were randomly assigned to one of the three treatment groups. A 30-item teacher made test of knowledge served as the pretest. The posttest consisted of three subtests which measured: (a) factual recall and long walk questions, (b) geography and economics, and (c) concepts. Two attitude surveys were administered prior to and immediately following data collection.

Analysis of Data

Analysis of covariance was used to analyze achievement data as well as data obtained from the two attitude surveys. Pretest scores were used as the covariate. Student Newman-Keuls tests were used to determine which means differed significantly. The .05 level was used to determine which differences were statistically significant.

Summary

This chapter delineated the methodology that was used to gather and interpret the data. Three intact classes were assigned to one of three treatment groups. A pretest of knowledge and attitudes were administered prior to the teaching of the unit on the Navajo removal. A knowledge posttest as well as the attitude surveys were administered at the end of the unit to determine

whether the groups differed significantly. Findings are presented in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

This study was designed to determine what form of children's literature yielded the greatest gains in achievement, attitudes toward American Indians, and attitudes toward social studies. Six hypotheses were tested: (a) Children taught using both fiction and nonfiction will score significantly higher on a teacher-made knowledge test than students who are taught with only fiction, and students taught with only nonfiction; (b) Children taught with only nonfiction will score significantly higher on a teacher-made knowledge test than students who are taught with only fiction; (c) Children taught using both fiction and nonfiction will score significantly higher on a survey which measures attitudes toward American Indians than children who are taught with only fiction, and students who are taught with only nonficiton; (d) Children taught with only fiction will score significantly higher on a survey which measures attitudes toward American Indians than children who are taught with nonfiction only; (e) Children taught using both fiction and nonfiction will score significantly higher on a survey which measures attitudes toward social studies than children who are taught with only fiction, and children taught with only nonfiction; and (f) Children taught using fiction will score significantly higher on a survey which measures attitudes toward social studies than children

who read only nonfiction.

Three, intact, fifth grade classrooms were randomly assigned to one of three treatment groups. The students in the class assigned to Treatment 1 received instruction for two weeks on the Navajo removal using only nonfiction material. The students in the class assigned to Treatment 2 received instruction for two weeks on the Navajo removal using both fiction and nonfiction materials. The students assigned to Treatment 3 received instruction for two weeks on the Navajo removal using only the fiction book Sing Down the Moon by Scott O'Dell.

Prior to the unit the students were asked to complete pretests which measured knowledge, attitudes toward American Indians, and attitudes toward social studies. Students were also asked to complete daily journal entries about what they learned, or what they liked or disliked about the lesson. At the end of the unit the students completed posttests and turned in their journals. Following is a discussion of the results.

Achievement

Subtest 1: Factual Recall and Long Walk Questions. Results of analysis of covariance indicated that the three groups did differ significantly on Subtest 1, $F(2,43) = 3.208$, $p = .050$. The adjusted mean for Group 1 (nonfiction) was 9.81 (standard deviation = 2.1360). The adjusted mean for Group 2 (both) was 10.68 (standard deviation = 1.6242). The adjusted mean and standard deviation for Group 3 (fiction) were 8.20 and 3.1596 respectively (see Tables I and II).

TABLE I

RESULTS OF ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE FOR ACHIEVEMENT SUBTEST 1: FACTUAL RECALL AND LONG WALK QUESTIONS

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F ratio	F prob
Covariate	1	.313	.313	.054	.817
Treatment	2	37.051	18.526	3.208	.050
Explained	3	37.365	12.455	2.157	.107
Residual	43	248.337	5.775		
Total	46	285.702	6.211		

TABLE II

MEANS, ADJUSTED MEANS, AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR ACHIEVEMENT SUBTEST 1: FACTUAL RECALL AND LONG WALK QUESTIONS

Group	N	Means	Adjusted Means	Standard Deviations
Nonfiction	16	9.8125	9.81	2.1360
Both	15	10.2667	10.68	1.6242
Fiction	16	8.3750	8.20	3.1596
Total	47	9.4681		2.0000

Follow-up tests indicated that Group 2 (both) differed significantly from Group 3 (fiction). None of the other differences were statistically significant.

Subtest 2: Geography and Economics. Results of analysis of covariance indicated that there were no significant differences between groups on Subtest 2, $F(2,43) = 2.432$, $p = .100$. The adjusted mean for Group 1 (nonfiction) was 5.69 (standard deviation = 2.0887). The adjusted mean for Group 2 (both) was 6.6000 (standard deviation = 1.0556) and the adjusted mean for Group 3 (fiction) was 6.81 (standard deviation = 1.1087), (see Tables III and IV).

Subtest 3: Concepts. Results of analysis of covariance indicated that there were no significant differences between groups on Subtest 3, $F(2,43) = .369$, $p = .694$. The adjusted mean for Group 1 (nonfiction) was 4.56 (standard deviation = 1.2633). The adjusted mean for Group 2 (both) was 4.54 (standard deviation = 1.0601, and the adjusted mean and standard deviation for Group 3 were 4.87 and 1.1236 respectively (see Tables V and VI).

Attitude Toward American Indians

The attitude scale consisted of 18 items which measured feelings toward American Indians. Factor analysis indicated that the scale was unidimensional. Results of analysis of covariance indicated that there were no significant differences in attitude between groups, $F(2,43) = .222$, $p = .802$. The adjusted mean and standard deviation for Group 1 (nonfiction) were 13.69 and 3.9089. The adjusted mean

TABLE III

RESULTS OF ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE FOR ACHIEVEMENT
SUBTEST 2: ECONOMICS AND GEOGRAPHY

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F ratio	F prob
Covariate	1	1.858	1.858	.816	.371
Treatment	2	11.076	5.538	2.432	1.000
Explained	3	12.934	4.311	1.893	.145
Residual	43	97.917	2.277		
Total	46	110.851	2.410		

TABLE IV

MEANS, ADJUSTED MEANS, AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR ACHIEVEMENT
SUBTEST 2: ECONOMICS AND GEOGRAPHY

Group	N	Means	Adjusted Means	Standard Deviations
Nonfiction	16	5.6875	5.69	2.0887
Both	15	6.6000	6.60	1.0556
Fiction	16	6.8125	6.81	1.1087
Total	47	6.3617		1.5524

TABLE V

RESULTS OF ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE FOR ACHIEVEMENT
SUBTEST 3: CONCEPTS

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	F Prob
Covariate	1	1.949	1.949	1.454	.234
Treatment	2	.988	.494	.369	.694
Explained	3	2.936	.979	.730	.539
Residual	43	57.617	1.340		
Total	46	60.553	1.316		

TABLE VI

MEANS, ADJUSTED MEANS, AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR ACHIEVEMENT
SUBTEST 3: CONCEPTS

Group	N	Means	Adjusted Means	Standard Deviations
Nonfiction	16	4.5625	4.56	1.2633
Both	15	4.4667	4.54	1.0601
Fiction	16	4.9375	4.87	1.1236
Total	47	4.6596		1.1473

for Group 2 (both) was 13.87 (standard deviation = 5.0256), and the adjusted mean and standard deviation for Group 3 (fiction) were 14.40 and 3.6050 respectively (see Tables VII and VIII).

Attitude Toward Social Studies

The social studies attitude scale consisted of 10 items which measured the students' feelings toward social studies. Factor analysis indicated that the scale was unidimensional. Analysis of covariance was used to determine whether significant differences existed between groups. The results indicated that there were no significant differences, $F(2,44) = .805$, $p = .453$. The adjusted means were as follows: Group 1, 30.10 (standard deviation = 4.6400); Group 2, 30.42 (standard deviation = 5.3675); and Group 3, 29.14 (standard deviation = 6.6783) (see Tables IX and X).

Journal Entries

The students in each of the three groups were instructed to make daily entries in a journal. The students were given freedom to write what they wanted in their journal. However, it was suggested that they write about something they learned that day during the lesson or how they felt about the topic. Appendices L, M, and N include some representative samples.

Nonfiction. Thirteen students who were taught with nonfiction only returned journals. In the 13 journals, 63 entries were made. There were 14 positive entries toward American Indians and two entries that were negative. Twenty-four positive entries toward

TABLE VII

RESULTS OF ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE FOR ATTITUDES TOWARD AMERICAN INDIANS

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	F Prob
Covariate	1	497.765	497.765	62.866	.000
Treatment	2	3.518	1.759	.222	.802
Explained	3	501.283	167.094	21.104	.000
Residual	44	348.384	7.918		
Total	47	849.667	18.078		

TABLE VIII

MEANS, ADJUSTED MEANS, AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR ATTITUDES TOWARD AMERICAN INDIANS

Group	N	Mean	Adjusted Means	Standard Deviations
Nonfiction	17	14.1765	13.69	3.9089
Both	15	12.4000	13.87	5.0256
Fiction	16	15.0625	14.40	3.6050
Total	48	13.9167		4.2518

TABLE IX

RESULTS OF ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE FOR ATTITUDES TOWARD SOCIAL STUDIES

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	F Prob
Covariate	1	1030.937	1030.937	121.091	.000
Treatment	2	13.710	6.855	.805	.453
Explained	3	1044.646	348.215	40.900	.000
Residual	44	374.604	8.514		
Total	47	1419.250			

TABLE X

MEANS, ADJUSTED MEANS, AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR ATTITUDES TOWARD SOCIAL STUDIES

Group	N	Means	Adjusted Means	Standard Deviations
Nonfiction	17	30.1765	30.10	4.6400
Both	15	29.6667	30.42	5.3675
Fiction	16	29.7500	29.14	6.6783
Total	48	29.8750		5.4952

the social studies unit and one negative entry were made (see Appendix L).

Both. Nine of 15 students in this group returned journals at the end of the unit. Of the 9 journals, 37 entries were made. Four entries were positive toward American Indians, and no negative entries were made. Students made 15 positive entries and one negative entry toward the social studies unit (see Appendix M).

Fiction. Fifteen journals were returned at the end of the unit. Seventy-three entries were made. Seven of the entries were positive toward American Indians and one was negative. Forty-eight entries were positive toward the social studies unit and seven were negative (see Appendix N).

Summary

Analysis of covariance was used to test whether the three groups differed on three subtests related to achievement, attitudes toward American Indians, and attitudes toward social studies. A significant difference was reported between treatment groups on the subtest "Factual Recall and Long Walk Questions". The treatment group that received both fiction and nonfiction scored significantly higher than the other treatment groups. Although the difference was not statistically significant, the group that received only nonfiction did better than the group that received only fiction. This partially supported the first two hypotheses. Significant differences were not reported on the other two achievement subtests. In addition, the

results of the attitude scales revealed that there were no significant differences on either the attitude toward American Indians scale or the attitude toward social studies scale.

The journal entries indicated that attitudes were affected by the treatments even though the instruments used to measure attitude change did not reveal significant improvements. Very few negative statements were made about American Indians or social studies. Several positive statements were made about American Indians and many positive statements were made about the social studies unit as well.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study was prompted by a lack of empirical research on the effects of using children's literature to improve social studies curriculum. Many authors over the last seven decades have advocated the use of children's literature to achieve cognitive as well as affective goals of social studies but little change has occurred as a result of this advocacy, and few research studies exist to substantiate this advocacy (McGowan & Sutton, 1988; Davis & Palmer, 1992; Larkins, Hawkins, & Gilmore, 1987). The traditional basal textbook and teacher centered lecture and discussion approaches continue to dominate social studies classrooms. According to Davis and Palmer (1992), "Today's social studies classrooms are hardly different from those twenty years ago. A large gap still exists between the theoretical conception of the goals of social studies and the realization of those goals in day-to-day school practices" (p. 125). This study was designed to examine using children's literature as an alternative to textbook instruction as a means of accomplishing both the affective and cognitive goals of social studies. Futhermore, the study sought to determine what form of children's literature effected the greatest improvements in knowledge, attitudes toward American Indians, and attitudes toward social studies. This chapter will include a summary of the study, a

discussion of the research findings, as well as recommendations for further research.

Summary

In order to determine the most effective use of children's literature a two week unit was developed which taught the same content with different materials. Group 1 received only nonfiction material. Group 2 received both fiction and nonfiction materials, and Group 3 received only fiction materials. The instructional period consisted of eight, 45 minute class sessions in addition to one day for pretesting and one day for posttesting. After content was covered on each day an activity was planned to reinforce the content. In addition, all three groups participated in the same activities. All three groups were instructed to make daily journal entries. They could write about anything they wanted but it was suggested that they include what they learned, or what they liked or disliked about the lesson. The pre and posttests as well as the journals were then analyzed to determine the effect of the treatments.

Limitations

Findings from this study should be interpreted in light of the following limitations and assumptions:

1. Findings from this study are limited to the three classrooms who participated in the study.

2. The sample was limited to those students whose parents had given permission for them to participate in the study.

Assumptions

The subjects who participated in the study were a representative sample of the population of the selected school.

Test of Hypotheses

H1 stated that the treatment group that received instruction with both fiction and nonfiction would score significantly higher than the other two groups on three knowledge subtests. H2 stated that the nonfiction group would score significantly higher than the group taught with fiction only. The data partially supported H1 in that the group taught with both differed significantly from the group taught with fiction on Subtest 1. The data failed to support H1 and H2 in that there were no differences on Subtest 2 and 3.

On Subtest 1: "Factual Recall and Long Walk Questions" a significant difference was found between groups. The mean score for Group 1 was 9.8125. The mean score for Group 2 was 10.2667, and the mean score for Group 3 was 8.3750. Follow up tests indicated that the group taught with both fiction and nonfiction scored higher than the group taught with fiction only. No other statistically significant differences were found.

The results of the analysis on Subtest 2: "Geography and Economics" and Subtest 3, "Concepts" indicated no significant difference between groups. Even though there were no significant differences between groups, scores for all three groups improved from the pretest on knowledge to the posttest. Group 1 (nonfiction) increased from a mean of 19.8824 to a mean of 23.8235. Group 2

(both) increased from a mean of 18.6667 to 24.5333 and Group 3 (fiction) increased from a mean of 17.1250 to 23.000.

H3 stated that students in Group 2 would score significantly higher on the attitude toward American Indian scale than students in either Group 1 or Group 3. H4 stated that students in Group 3 would score significantly higher on the attitude toward American Indian scale than students in Group 1. Results of analysis of covariance indicated no significant difference between the groups. Furthermore, there was a very slight decrease in attitudes toward American Indians by all three groups from pre to posttest. Students in Group 1 (nonfiction) decreased from a mean of 14.8824 to 14.176. Students in Group 2 decreased from a mean of 12.8000 to 12.4000, while students in Group 3 decreased from a mean of 15.1875 to 15.0625. Eighteen was the highest possible score so all three groups began with a fairly positive attitude. However, the posttest scores indicate that the treatments yielded no positive benefits in attitude change. Therefore the data failed to support H3 and H4.

H5 stated that students in Group 2 would score significantly higher in their attitude toward social studies than students in Group 1 and Group 3. H6 stated that students in Group 3 would score significantly higher in attitude toward social studies than students in Group 1. Results of analysis of covariance indicated no significant difference between groups. However, the mean scores for each group increased slightly from pre to posttest. The mean for students in Group 1 increased from 29.2941 to 30.1765. The mean for students in Group 2 increased from 28.4000 to 29.6667, while the mean

for students in Group 3 increased from 28.8750 to 29.8750. The mean for students in Group 2 (both) increased the most even though it was very slight while the mean for students in Group 1 (nonfiction) increased the least. Out of a total possible score of 40, attitude scores prior to the treatment indicated relatively positive attitudes already existed toward the subject. The posttest indicated that the treatment groups effected few changes. Therefore the data failed to support H5 and H6.

In summary, H1 and H2 were rejected except for Subtest 1 which indicated a significant difference between groups on factual recall and Long Walk questions. This subtest partially supported H1 in that Group 2 (both) improved the most. The analysis also partially supported H2 in that students in Group 1 (nonfiction) improved more than students in Group 3 (fiction).

H3 and H4 were rejected because analysis of the data failed to provide evidence of significant improvement in attitudes toward American Indians after the influence of the treatments. However, journal entries did indicate positive attitudes toward American Indians with very few negative attitudes.

H5 and H6 were also rejected because analysis of the data failed to show a significant difference between groups on improvement of social studies attitudes. However, the journal entries were overwhelmingly positive toward the social studies unit.

Journal Entries

Even though the numerical data from the study indicated no

significant difference in attitude change toward American Indians, the journal entries indicated a more positive influence of all three treatment groups on American Indians. Of the 63 total entries made by the nonfiction group, 14 were positive statements about American Indians while only two entries were negative statements. Of the 37 total entries made by students in Group 2, four were positive and none were negative. Of the 73 total entries made by students in Group 3, seven statements were positive toward American Indians with only one that was negative.

In addition, the journal entries for social studies indicated that the treatment groups did influence attitudes toward social studies because responses were overwhelmingly positive toward the social studies unit. Students in the nonfiction group made 24 positive statements about the unit and one negative out of a total of 63 entries. Students in Group 2 made 15 positive statements and one negative statement out of 37 entries. Students in Group 3 made 48 positive statements and seven negative statements out of 73 total entries.

Discussion

Achievement

Even though the data from this study only partially supported H1 and H2, there were some interesting results. First, all three groups improved in knowledge acquisition. Even though one treatment was not significantly more effective than the other two, it was established that all forms of children's literature can be used to teach social

studies content. Using children's literature then satisfies cognitive and affective goals of social studies through expository as well as narrative writing. Secondly, the scores on the knowledge pretest were relatively high. This was probably due to the fact that the students in all three groups had been involved in a unit on American Indians prior to the research study. Even though the units were different, students showed evidence of having a solid base of knowledge before the unit began. Consequently, large gains in knowledge may not have been evident because of their prior experience with the topic. Thirdly, even though students in Group 2 did significantly better than students in Group 3 on factual recall, analysis of the other two subtests, "Geography and Economics" and "Concepts", yielded no significant difference. Finally, lessons were taught at different times of the day which could have influenced the results.

The subtests "Geography and Economics" and "Concepts" contained questions that required interpretation and synthesis which are higher order thinking processes. The data indicated that the use of historical fiction literature is as effective as nonfiction in teaching critical thinking skills. Finally, the sample sizes were relatively small. It seems probable that the directional trends established from the data would continue with a larger sample. If so, students in Groups 1 and 2 would show more improvement in knowledge acquisition than students in Group 3. This supports the notion that a combination of children's literature, both fiction and nonfiction, may be utilized effectively in the social studies classroom to teach not only facts but also concepts.

On the other hand, it is unknown if the content used created the difference or if the extension activities created the difference. Even though all three groups participated in the same activities, the classes responded differently to them. Some students worked well in groups while others barely participated. Since the activities were planned to reinforce content introduced in the reading material, they could have determined knowledge acquisition as well.

Attitudes Toward American Indians

The data from the pretest and posttest analysis suggested that attitude change did not occur as a result of any of the three treatments. However, journal entries indicated that the students were sympathetic to American Indians and felt strongly about the injustice of the Navajo removal. A few entries represent these feelings:

"The Navajo were treated like animals."

"The Indians should not have been treated so badly."

"I think that it is unfair that the Indians had to move."

"I think I would be mad if I had to move."

There are several possible explanations for this inconsistency. First, the treatment was relatively short. A longer unit may have caused more positive attitudes to develop. Since attitudes were medium to high to begin with, a longer treatment would probably be necessary to change those attitudes that were negative to begin with. Another explanation may be that the students were unable to make the transfer from what was being taught to the attitude scale used to measure attitude change toward minorities. The scale did not mention

the Navajos specifically and therefore, students may not have connected the Navajos with a minority group. Finally, because attitude change is so difficult to measure, it is possible that the instrument used to measure attitude change was not sensitive enough to pick up those changes.

Attitude Toward Social Studies

The data indicated that there were no significant differences between groups in attitude change toward social studies. Nevertheless, the journal entries were overwhelmingly positive toward the unit. This discrepancy may possibly be explained by student perceptions. First, the students may not have associated the unit with social studies since no textbook was used. Secondly, the two week unit was taught by someone other than their regular teacher thus reflecting more of a supplement than an actual subject. Again, attitude change is difficult to measure and the length of treatment was relatively short. Since the attitudes were fairly high to begin with, any significant positive change would not be achieved with a short treatment.

Recommendations for Further Study

This study raised further questions that may be answered in additional studies. The following are some suggestions:

1. A longer treatment should be used to support the directional trends identified in this study.

2. A larger sample should be used to support the directional trends identified in this study.

3. To provide further comparisions, it is recommended that a study that used a textbook treatment in addition to the other treatments be conducted.

4. A study that examines the effects of only the written materials without the activities could eliminate the influence of the activities.

5. It is also recommended that a study that separates higher level thinking questions from lower level questions to determine the type of literature that yields the greatest improvements in levels of thinking.

6. It is also recommended that a study that uses qualitative procedures for measuring attitudes be used.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

LETTER TO PARENTS

PARENTAL CONSENT FORM

I give permission for my child, _____ to participate in a research project conducted by an Oklahoma State Graduate Student in conjunction with the homeroom teacher.

The two-week study will look at alternative approaches to teaching social studies which involves using children's literature in place of textbooks. There will be four experimental groups. Two groups will be taught a unit on Indian removal using only fiction, one group will use nonfiction, and one group will use both fiction and nonfiction to learn about the Navajo Removal.

The purpose of this study is to obtain data on which teaching material yields the greatest improvements in achievement, attitudes towards American Indians, and attitudes towards social studies. There are no risks to the students, and the data will remain confidential.

I understand that participation is voluntary, that there is no penalty for refusal to participate, and that your child is free to withdraw from this project at any time.

_____ _____

Date Signature

APPENDIX B

PRETEST AND POSTTEST: KNOWLEDGE OF THE NAVAHO INDIAN REMOVAL

Navajo Removal Pre and Post Test

Directions: Choose the right answer from either A, B, C, or D. Draw a circle around the correct letter.

1. The Navajos live in this area
   A. Oklahoma-Texas
   B. Kansas-Nebraska
   C. New Mexico-Arizona
   D. California-Oregon

2. Sheep are important to the Navajos because
   A. They supply meat and wool for families
   B. They are family pets
   C. They are easier to care for than cattle
   D. They help with the work

3. A hogan is
   A. A traditional food for the Navajos
   B. An animal
   C. A game Navajo Indians play
   D. Traditional home of the Navajos

4. Why was there conflict between the Navajos and the Spanish?
   A. Navajos would raid Spanish villages
   B. Spaniards would kidnap Navajo women and children and sell them as slaves
   C. The Navajos and Spaniards would steal from each other
   D. All of the above

5. Why were the Navajos forced to leave their land?
   A. The Navajos continued raiding whites, other Indian tribes and Spaniards
   B. The Navajo population was growing too large
   C. The Navajos did not like where they lived
   D. None of the above

6. Who was Kit Carson?
   A. Friend of the Navajos
   B. Person responsible for rounding up the Navajos
   C. President of the United States
   D. A Navajo Chief

7. How were the soldiers able to convince the Navajos to leave?
   A. By destroying their crops
   B. By fighting a battle
   C. By asking them
   D. By paying them money

8. Why was it important to stop the raids by the Navajo?
   A. So the Navajo people would stop grazing sheep
   B. So the waterways would be available to all groups
   C. To make the area safe for white settlers and businessmen
   D. So the different Indian, Mexican, and White groups could trade there.

9. How did the Navajos feel about leaving their land?
   A. sad
   B. mad
   C. happy
   D. both A and B

10. Where was Ft. Sumner?
   A. Arizona
   B. New Mexico
   C. Colorado
   D. California

11. How many miles was the Long Walk?
   A. 300
   B. 25
   C. 100
   D. 1000

12. Which of the following statements describes the conditions on the walk to Ft. Sumner?
   A. The weather was pleasant and the food was plentiful
   B. The weather was cold but there was plenty of food
   C. It was a difficult journey and many died of hunger and sickness.
   D. The walk was filled with wonderful sights and the Navajo people enjoyed it

13. Why did the old people and young children die first?
   A. Because they were the weakest
   B. Because they didn't want to go to Ft. Sumner
   C. Because the others wouldn't give them food
   D. Because they didn't know how to cook their own food

14. What are rations?
   A. forts
   B. soldiers
   C. logs used for fire
   D. food and other supplies

15. What were some of the problems the Navajo faced at Ft. Sumner?
   A. shortage of food
   B. enemy Indians living close
   C. lack of wood for fires and homes
   D. all of the above

16. What did some Navajo people do to escape the hardships at Ft. Sumner?
    A. Become U.S. soldiers
    B. joined different tribes
    C. run away
    D. none of the above

17. Why was starvation a problem after the Navajo lived at Ft. Sumner a couple of years?
    A. crops were destroyed by drought and insects
    B. the population was too large
    C. the people ate too much
    D. people fought over the food the government gave away

18. Why do you think it was difficult for the Navajos to become farmers?
    A. Because they had not been farmers in the past
    B. Because they relied on sheep for many of their needs
    C. Both A and B
    D. None of the above

19. What is a treaty?
    A. Food given when a person has been good
    B. An agreement between two or more groups
    C. A large tent
    D. A flock of sheep

20. What did the government do to the Navajos after the treaty?
    A. Sent them to Oklahoma
    B. Made them work on the railroad
    C. Made them become farmers
    D. Sent them back to New Mexico, Colorado, Arizona, and Utah to live on a reservation

21. The Navajo Indians
    A. No longer exist today
    B. Have the largest population of reservation Indians
    C. Still raid neighboring settlements
    D. All of the above

22. The sheep in a Navajo family belong to
    A. The mother
    B. The father
    C. The daughters
    D. The brothers

23. The area where the Navajos live
    A. Was wet and flat
    B. Was green and sandy
    C. Was by a lake
    D. Was dry and rocky

24. A mesa is
    A. A lake
    B. A volcano
    C. A small mountain that is flat on top
    D. A Navajo dog

25. Even though the Navajo relied mostly on sheep they did raise an important crop. What was that crop?
    A. beans
    B. corn
    C. apples
    D. wheat

26. What is a reservation?
    A. Type of Navajo food
    B. Land set aside for a group of people
    C. A Navajo blanket
    D. None of the above

27. What is meant by The Long Walk?
    A. Journey from Navajo land in Arizona to Ft. Sumner in New Mexico
    B. The distance the Navajo had to travel to get water
    C. A ceremony of the Navajo Indians
    D. None of the above

28. The Navajo people today
    A. Have mixed modern living with traditional living
    B. Live on a reservation
    C. Make beautiful jewelry
    D. All of the above

29. How do you think The Long Walk is remembered by the Navajo and the White people?
    A. It was a mistake to make people move from their homes
    B. It was a successful journey
    C. It was right to make the people suffer because they were Indians
    D. None of the above

30. The Long Walk did not destroy the Navajo tribe because
    A. They enjoyed the walk
    B. It was an easy journey with much food
    C. The soldiers were nice to the Indians
    D. They have a strong will to survive and maintain their culture

APPENDIX C

PRETEST AND POSTTEST

PREJUDICE INDEX

Prejudice Survey

Directions: Based on what you know about American Indians, respond to the following statements by circling "agree" or "disagree".

1. They work hard.

   Agree Disagree

2. They make good teachers.

   Agree Disagree

3. I would like to live next door to them.

   Agree Disagree

4. I do not like them.

   Agree Disagree

5. It is easy to be friends with them.

   Agree Disagree

6. I would like to have them come to eat at my house.

   Agree Disagree

7. They are good neighbors.

   Agree Disagree

8. They often hurt other people's feelings.

   Agree Disagree

9. I would like to be in a club or on a team with them.

   Agree Disagree

10. They are honest.

    Agree Disagree

11. They have done a lot to help our country.

    Agree Disagree

12. I would not want to ask any of them to a party.

    Agree Disagree

13. I would like to go on a picnic with them.

    Agree Disagree

14. They are not very intelligent.

    Agree Disagree

15. They get excited over little things.

    Agree Disagree

16. I would like to have one for my teacher next year.

    Agree Disagree

17. It is a waste of time and money to send them to college.

    Agree Disagree

18. I would like to see one of them get elected President of the United States.

    Agree Disagree

APPENDIX D

PRETEST AND POSTTEST SOCIAL STUDIES ATTITUDE SURVEY

Student Attitude Survey
Social Studies

1. Social studies is NOT an important school subject.
   a. strongly agree
   b. agree
   c. disagree
   d. strongly disagree

2. Social studies is one of my favorite subjects.
   a. strongly agree
   b. agree
   c. disagree
   d. strongly disagree

3. Social studies is an important school subject.
   a. strongly agree
   b. agree
   c. disagree
   d. strongly disagree

4. It is important for me to do well in social studies.
   a. strongly agree
   b. agree
   c. disagree
   d. strongly disagree

5. Social studies is a hard subject.
   a. strongly agree
   b. agree
   c. disagree
   d. strongly disagree

6. I find little interest in studying about other people or places in social studies.
   a. strongly agree
   b. agree
   c. disagree
   d. strongly disagree

7. I remember little of what I learn in social studies.
   a. strongly agree
   b. agree
   c. disagree
   d. strongly disagree

8. Other books besides the textbook should be used in social studies.
   a. strongly agree
   b. agree
   c. disagree
   d. strongly disagree

9. It is important to know about social studies in order to get a good job.
   a. strongly agree
   b. agree
   c. disagree
   d. strongly disagree

10. I do very well in social studies.
   a. strongly agree
   b. agree
   c. disagree
   d. stongly disagree

From Howe, K. (1990). Children's literature and effects on cognitive and noncognitive behaviors in elementary social studies. (Doctoral dissertation, University of Nebraska, 1990). Dissertation Abstracts International 51/12A, 4044.

APPENDIX E

NONFICTION HANDOUTS

HANDOUT #1
The Long Walk

During the 1800's Americans acquired land from Mexico, which later became the states of Arizona and New Mexico. When Americans came looking for silver and gold into the area where Navajos lived, fighting broke out. As Navajos fought to keep their land, Americans fought to take it away.

Many written agreements, called treaties, were made between the United States government and Navajo leaders. But neither side could make their people keep the agreements. Over the years many events caused bad feelings betweeen Navajos and Americans. Land was stolen and people were killed.

In 1849 Narbona, an important Navajo leader, was shot by American soldiers. Then in 1860 Navajos attacked Americans at Fort Defiance in Arizona. The United States decided to stop the Navajos. Between 1864 and 1865 U.S. troops, led by Kit Carson, forced more than 8,000 Navajos off their land. They were made prisoners and were forced to walk more than 300 miles across New Mexico to Fort Sumner. Before reaching the fort more than 300 Navajos died. This forced march is called the Long Walk.

Fort Sumner

Life was terrible at Fort Sumner in New Mexico. Navajos were homesick for their land. They were brokenhearted. Disease and starvation caused more than 2,000 of them to die. After four years the U.S. government saw that their plan to make Navajos live like Pueblos had failed. They made a new treaty with the Navajos. Barboncito and nineteen other Navajo leaders signed the new treaty in 1868. Afterwards, the Navajos were free to return to their country. But Navajos could return only to the area called "Treaty Reservation." This section of land was surrounded by non-Indians who had moved onto the land while the Navajos had been away. They had built towns around early trading posts. In the future the Santa Fe Railroad would be bringing more people into this area.

From: Osinski, A. (1987). The Navajo. Chicago: Children's Press.

HANDOUT #2
Causes of the Navajo Removal

During 1862 the Navahos and Apaches took advantage of the Army's preoccupation with the Civil War to increase their raids upon white towns. The U.S. government wanted it stopped. "Kill the men and take the women and children prisoners," General Carleton ordered Kit Carson. He was going to stop raiding in New Mexico, both by Navaho and Apache.

The Navahos were angry about the condition of their land. No longer were there thousands of square miles of unused land where hunting people could roam about, with the right to kill or rob anyone who did not belong to their tribe. It was time these square miles of empty land should be turned into wheat fields and grazing grounds to produce food for the country. So the Indians, who often did not produce but only used what the wild land gave, were being asked to make room.

We can understand why there were bitter fights as the Indians found that their old way of life could no longer be followed. No one likes to give up old customs suddenly or at the request of someone else. If a quarrel arose and one white did wrong, Indians felt that all whites were evil. And the whites felt the same about the Indians. Sometimes the Indians fought and were conquered. Sometimes they accepted payment for their lands and moved peacefully. Or they did both. They received new lands or else a part of the old ones. These lands were reserved by the government for Indian use, so white settlers could not take them. They were called reservations.

Most of these reservations were in country east of New Mexico. A great stretch of land had been set aside, outside the area of farms and cities. Many different tribes, as they left their old homes, moved into this reserved land which was called Indian Territory. It is now part of our State of Oklahoma. Some people talked of moving the Navaho and Apache to Oklahoma, but that would have meant a very long journey. Instead General Carleton decided on a piece of land near the little Pecos River in eastern New Mexico. The Spaniards called the place Bosque Redondo, or Round Grove. Americans named it after one of their generals, Fort Sumner.

Neither the whites nor the Navaho had a large army. Kit Carson had less than 700 men, and many of these men were without horses. He could not hope to pursue the Navaho when they scattered like birds into the canyons and among the rocks. As for the Navaho, they had enough men to organize an army if that had been the Indian custom. But they had never got together as a nation. Each leader had his own band, which fought and roamed with him.

Kit Carson moved into Navaho country and rebuilt old Fort Defiance. He sent out word that any Navaho who wished might come to

the fort and that they would be fed and taken care of until a big group had gathered. Many Indians surrendered but many more fled to the canyons. Kit Carson did not need to find the Navajo.

He could find their corn fields. Often he could find their sheep. If he killed and destroyed these, the Navajo would have to surrender or die, too, for they would have no food.

When the Navaho heard of this, they knew they must give up. Little groups of them began riding into Fort Defiance, generally with women in the lead, for they knew the soldiers would not shoot women.

HANDOUT #3

The Long Walk to Drink the Bitter Water

Comb the threads tighter, my grandchild. There, like that. That's better. My fingers are almost too stiff and old to weave any more. But once my weaving kept me alive and your mother alive. That was after the Long Walk. I wove blankets and sold them and we bought food from the white men. It was miserable food.

Those were terrible days, my grandchild. The People will never forget them. We learned peace in the Long Walk, it is said. But we learned other things, too, my child.

I remember it clearly. Before the Long Walk, before the time your mother was born, before the white soldiers came with Kit Carson, I remember those days.

The People used to fight others and steal their horses and their women and their children, it is said. Yes, my husband did those things. He would fight anyone. He loved to fight. He went on war parties to the Utes and he raided the Hopi villages and he even fought against the Apaches.

Then the white men came with guns and told the People to fight no more. They sent God men to teach us to live in peace. The God men would argue with each other. They called it the Civil War. And the People kept on making raids and stealing things.

The white men sent soldiers. They sent Colonel Kit Carson, it is said, to stop the Navajo from taking things. Kit Carson did not wish to kill the Navajo, but he did wish them to live in peace. When Kit Carson told the People to surrender, the People just ran away. So Kit Carson told his soldiers to burn the corn and cut down the peach trees and eat the sheep and capture the horses. That was a terrible year. We lost all our sheep. We lost all our horses. My husband and I and our two daughters hid in the canyons and ate roots and pinyon nuts and rabbits and kangaroo rats.

When we were almost dead from starvation, we walked to Fort Defiance and told the white soldiers that we needed food. They put us in a field with a fence around it and they gave us moldy beans and some rotten meat. There must have been two thousand of us waiting there in the hot sun. We waited. We waited for weeks. Then we started to walk. We walked behind wagons. Those who had horses rode. Those who had sheep killed them and ate them.

We walked across the desert to Albuquerque. We swam across the Rio Grande. My father drowned in that river. Then we walked across more desert.

The soldiers took us to a place called Fort Sumner. It was only some mud houses out in the desert. They already had some Apaches there. They were nearly starving too. The soldiers lived in the houses. We dug holes in the ground.

The white soldiers were to help us to be farmers again, it was said. We were to raise wheat and corn and grow peach trees, like those that Kit Carson had cut down.

Four hot summers we lived there, eating that terrible food the soldiers gave us. Many of us died. My husband was strong. He decided to help with the farming. And he planted corn fields the way the white soldiers told him to. He dug a big ditch from the Pecos River for water.

The men planted the corn and it grew, but then worms ate it all. Worms that the soldiers called army worms because they came like big armies. We had to keep on eating the white man's food and drinking that bitter water.

They gave us black beans. We boiled them and boiled them and threw out the dirty water they made. Finally the beans were soft enough to eat. And they tasted awful. Afterward the soldiers told us they were coffee beans and that we were supposed to drink that brown water.

My mother died the next winter. I had another baby and it died. Many of the old men died. Our chiefs died. Many of our Singers died. That was one reason we were so sick there. It was because the Singers died and we lost the songs and the prayers that had kept us well.

After four years we left Ft. Sumner. We walked home. At Ft. Defiance there was no more food than there had been at Ft. Sumner. And our farms were all ruined. White men had moved in and were taking over our lands. Our sheep were gone. Our horses were gone. Our peach trees had been cut down.

The soldiers fed us. They brought wagons of food to Ft. Defiance every week, and we had to walk in twenty miles to get it. More of the People starved. Then the soldiers gave us seed to plant. We planted corn and wheat and beans and pumpkins. We used sticks to dig the soil, because the soldiers did not give us any shovels. A terrible storm wiped out the gardens. Hail and rain washed out the little green plants.

We planted again, and the grasshoppers ate all the plants. We were nearly dead again. The soldiers sent us some food.

When we got sheep the next year it was wonderful. The soldiers gave us two sheep for each person. I had two for me and two for my husband and two for each daughter. I herded them myself and I sheared them and I spun the yarn and dyed it and my husband put up a loom and I wove blankets. Oh, my child, the blankets I wove! I never had enough wool. I sold those blankets at the trading post for food, the food we liked. And my husband took some of them and bought a horse. We were hungry, but he needed a horse. He hated to walk. We have hated to walk ever since the Long Walk.

But we did learn peace. The People did stop the wars. Even my husband, who loved to fight, quit the raids and settled down to raise corn. That was when he learned to become a silversmith, a few years after the Long Walk to Fort Sumner.

From: Vogt, E., & Kluckhohn, C. (1951). Navajo means people. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

HANDOUT #4

Personal Account #2 of The Long Walk

BETTY TSO'S STORY

Betty Tso is from Lake Valley, New Mexico. She is of the Bit'ahnii (Under His Cover) clan. She is sixty-four years old. This is the way her mother and a few other people told her the stories of the Long Walk to Hwéeldi.

The Diné suffered when they were herded to Hwéeldi. Some were killed along the way. My grandfather's mother went to Hwéeldi in her womanhood with her baby in the cradleboard. She went far, walking and carrying her baby. They suffered with hunger and other needs.

The owl was a warning signal for the Navajos. When they heard the owl hoot, that was a safe direction for the Navajos to go. Older people's words were acceptable then. Whatever they said, it was done for them.

For shoes, the Diné put mud on their legs and feet as a protection from getting their feet blistered. They picked small potatoes under evergreen trees for food or ate white clay mixed with mud.

At Hwéeldi, they were gathered. One family was traveling with a baby and the mother. The mother was carrying her baby into Hwéeldi, but the enemies took the baby away from her. She ran from the enemies. A Mexican or Comanche caught her and threw her on the back of the horse that he was riding and took her to another camp where she was kept.

People suffered at Hwéeldi. They asked what they could do to gain their freedom. The white men said, "Put your children in school for their education." The Diné said, "We will let our children go to school, if that will help us go back to our land." But the enemies were mean and said, "We do not even know if you will go back to your land."

One time, all the Navajos held each other's hands in a circle. A coyote was the sign for the Navajos as to whether or not the people would go home. The coyote ran around the outside of the circle in a counter-clock-wise direction and entered from the east end. The coyote's signal said, "We will go home." Then the Navajos were sent back to their land. The Mexicans were friendly to the Navajos and carried things for them.

The people started their journey back from Hwéeldi with some Mexicans. My grandmother traveled home pregnant.

The main reason the Navajos made their journey to Hwéeldi was because of the land. Mexicans, Utes, Comanches, and other tribes wanted the land on the reservation. This is all the story that my mother and a few other people told me.

HANDOUT #5
Life at Fort Sumner

As the groups arrived, the first act of the blue-coated soldiers was to count them and give out ration tickets. This was a terrifying thing to the Navaho, who had never been counted before. Wandering about as they did, the government had no way of telling how many there were, nor how many would come to Fort Sumner. So the arriving groups were directed to walk, one by one, into a big corral while soldiers stood at the gate with fixed guns. The Navaho dared not resist, but mothers clutched their children as they went through, and drew blankets over their heads to keep from being seen. A man was standing on the wall of the corral, making marks, and they could not guess what danger this might mean.

Next came the question of houses. There had been no time to build the neat little village General Carleton planned. Besides, the Navaho had never lived in villages and did not want to. They looked for poles to build their old style hogans, but already most of the tall trees had been cut by the Apache and the Enemy Navaho. The latest corners dug round holes in the earth as deep as they could, without the earthen walls falling in. Then they covered these with branches and brush. The soldiers gave them what canvas they could find, but this was not enough for everyone. Little by little, they got cowhides and even buffalo hides. Little cellars like these, roofed with canvas, hides, and branches, were the Fort Sumner houses.

There was only one interpreter of the fort, a Mexican called Jesus Arviso, who had been captured by the Navaho as a child and now lived as a member of the tribe. The Navaho called him Soos. Soos painfully translated what the Navaho had to say into Spanish, then some Spanish-speaking soldier put it into English. Very little came out after this process but some brief orders from the whites, or brief, unexplained complaints from the Navaho. They did not like farming in this wholesale way. They did not like the mineral-tasting water in the Pecos and in the wells. They did not like the long journeys they had to make for firewood, for all the trees near the river had been cut.

The Navaho took the new shovels and hoes without saying anything. Yet these tools should have been a wonderful surprise to them. Most of them had never seen an iron shovel. They were still using the pointed wooden sticks and the deer's shoulder bone of olden days. As for the plow, that should have been a miracle as great as the miracle of sheep or horses. Perhaps it might have been, if the Navaho had found it for themselves in freedom and hope.

They started a school, with priests who came from Santa Fe and asked no payment. Today the Navahos are calling for schools, but, at that time, they thought it foolish for the children to sit on benches all day when they might be at home helping their parents. Mothers told the priests that the children should have pay. The whites wanted the Navaho to settle in villages with permanent houses. That was too much. More and more Navaho began to sneak away. General Carleton who had hoped so much was sad and worried.

In 1867, three years after the Navaho had come to the Fort, they planted no grain. This new crop would be ruined like the others they said. The government was equally discouraged, for the Navaho stay at Fort Sumner had cost almost ten million dollars. This was as much for those days as fifty million today.

Something had to be done.

On June 1, 1868, the Navaho signed the treaty which was their charter for the future. That treaty was signed by twelve chiefs and the councilmen who had been appointed by the government. It has not been kept completely by either side, but it stands as a promise of what both thought right for the future.

HANDOUT #6

TREATY WITH THE NAVAHO
1868

Peace and friendship.

ARTICLE 1. From this day forward all war between the parties to this agreement shall forever cease. The Government of the United States desires peace, and its honor is hereby pledged to keep it. The Indians desire peace, and they now pledge their honor to keep it.

Buildings to be erected by the United States.

ARTICLE 3. The United States agrees to cause to be built, at some point within said reservation, where timber and water may be convenient, the following buildings: a warehouse, to cost not exceeding twenty-five hundred dollars; an agency building for the residence of the agent, not to cost exceeding three thousand dollars; a carpenter-shop and blacksmith-shop, not to cost exceeding one thousand dollars each; and a schoolhouse and chapel, so soon as a sufficient number of children can be induced to attend school, which shall not cost to exceed five thousand dollars.

Appropriations, how to be disbursed.

ARTICLE 12. It is further agreed by and between the parties to this agreement that the sum of one hundred and fifty thousand dollars appropriated or to be appropriated shall be disbursed as follows, subject to any condition provided in the law, to wit:

Removal.

1st. The actual cost of the removal of the tribe from the Bosque Redondo reservation to the reservation, say fifty thousand dollars.

Sheep and goats.

2d. The purchase of fifteen thousand sheep and goats, at a cost not to exceed thirty thousand dollars.

Cattle and corn.

3d. The purchase of five hundred beef cattle and a million pounds of corn, to be collected and held at the military post nearest the reservation, subject to the orders of the agent, for the relief of the needy during the coming winter.

Remainder.

4th. The balance, if any, of the appropriation to be invested for the maintenance of the Indians pending their removal, in such manner as the agent who is with them may determine.

Removal, how made.

5th. The removal of this tribe to be made under the supreme control and direction of the military commander of the Territory of

Reservation to be permanent home of Indians.

ARTICLE 13. The tribe herein named, by their representatives, parties to this treaty, agree to make the reservation herein described their permanent home, and they will not as a tribe make any permanent settlement elsewhere reserving the right to hunt on the lands adjoining the said reservation formerly called theirs, subject to the modifications named in this treaty and the orders of the commander or the department in which said reservation may be for the time being; and it is further agreed and understood by the parties to this treaty, that if any Navajo Indian or Indians shall leave the reservation herein described to settle elsewhere, he or they shall forfeit all the rights, privileges, and annuities conferred by the terms of this treaty; and it is further agreed by the parties to this treaty that they will do all they can to induce Indians now away from reservations set apart for the exclusive use and occupation of the Indians, leading a nomadic life, or engaged in war against the people of the United States, to abandon such a life and settle permanently in one of the territorial reservations set apart for the exclusive use and occupation of the Indians.

Penalty for leaving reservation.

HANDOUT #7

Aftermath of Removal

Trading posts were a key element in this economy's success. The first was established in 1871. Traders did business on a six-month credit cycle, allowing their customers to make purchases first against the spring wool crop and then against the fall crop of lambs. Weaving and silversmithing supplemented the income of many families, and such traders as Lorenzo Hubbell found off-reservation markets for Indian crafts.

Flour, coffee, and sugar—in that order—were the staples most in demand and therefore most in supply at the old trading posts, Frank McNitt wrote in *The Indian Traders*. Tobacco, by the plug or can, was greatly desired but considered more of a luxury than were yards of bright flannel, velveteen, or calico. Canned goods—fruits and vegetables—stocked the shelves in the early eighties, but the variety was limited and not too well regarded by the Indians for twenty or thirty years more.[11] By providing access to the manufactured goods of the off-reservation world, the trading posts enabled the Navajos to be more secure on the land with their sheep than ever before.

A trip to the trading post was an exciting expedition for everyone in the family—second only to the trips to ceremonial sings in social importance. The family gathered their wool or lambs, donned their best clothes and jewelry, and set out on a trip that often lasted overnight. Bargaining between trader and customer was done entirely in Navajo, and Navajos lingered for hours deciding what they would take in trade after the debts of the past six months had been paid. They enjoyed conversation with old friends, sized up a kerosene lantern, savored a can of tomatoes. "The scene . . . was in the extreme animated and picturesque, altho' the old den was so dark that upon first entering it was difficult to distinguish the mass of parti-colored blankets, men, squaws, and papooses pressed against the counter," Army Lt. John Bourke wrote. "The Navajos are keen at a bargain and as each unpacked his ponies and ripped open the blankets full of wool he had brought to market, he acted as if he knew its value and meant to get it."[12] Outside the children played with others who had come to trade, and those who had come from especially far away could find accommodations in the guest hogan next to the trading post. A family might finish its trip to the trading post by buying that kerosene lantern and maybe a new saddle before beginning its long ride home, certainly with the latest news and gossip, and possibly with credit remaining on the trader's

APPENDIX F

NONFICTION STUDY GUIDES

Overview of The Long Walk
Pg. 17-24

1. What was "The Long Walk"?

2. Where did it begin? End?

3. Who was responsible for gathering the Navajo Indians?

4. How do you think the Navajos felt?

5. Why were the Navajos removed?

Handout #2
Causes of The Navajo Roundup

1. What event caused the Navajos and Apaches to increase raids upon white towns?

2. Why did the Navajos raid white settlers and other Indian tribes?

3. Why did the U.S. Government decide not to send the Navajos to Indian territory in what is now Oklahoma?

4. Why would it have been difficult for Kit Carson to round up the Navajos?

5. How did Kit Carson succeed in rounding up the Navajos when he was outnumbered?

Handout #3
Personal Account #1 of "The Long Walk"

1. Describe how the Navajos felt about fighting?

2. Instead of surrendering to Kit Carson, what did this family choose to do?

3. Why did they finally surrender?

4. Describe how the Navajos were treated after they surrendered?

5. What job did the soldiers want the Navajos to learn so they would stop raiding?

6. What happened to the crops the Navajos planted?

7. Why were people dying?

8. Why were the sheep so important to this Navajo family?

Handout #4
Personal Account #2 of "The Long Walk"

1. In what ways did the Navajo suffer according to Betty Tso?

2. What two animals were important to the Navajo people and what did they signal?

3. According to Betty Tso, how were the Navajo people able to regain their freedom?

Handout #5
Life at Fort Sumner

1. Why were the Navajos herded into corrals?

2. Describe the homes they built at Ft. Sumner.

3. What were some of the complaints of the Navajos?

4. Why do you think it was difficult for the Navajos to appreciate the new tools and become good farmers?

5. Why did the Navajos feel that going to school was foolish?

6. How much did it cost to bring the Navajos to Ft. Sumner?

7. Why do you think the relocation plan failed?

Handout #6
Treaty With The Navajos

1. Article one pledges what between the Indians and White men?

2. What article states that the U.S. government will build schools for the Navajos?

3. Do you think the U.S. Government should supply the money for Navajo schools? Why or Why not.

4. In article 12 money is given to the Indians for removal costs and for the purchasing of livestock. Why do you think the U.S. Government agreed to pay for these things?

5. In article 13 the Navajos have to agree to something in order to receive the money, goods and buildings described in the other articles. What do they agree to?

Handout #7
Aftermath of Removal

1. After the treaty was signed the Navajos were placed on a reservation in what is now the four corners region of New Mexico, Arizona, Colorado, and Utah. What did the Navajos do for a living?

2. What is a trading post?

3. What items were in most demand?

4. When Navajo children were sent to boarding schools how did they change?

5. What crafts do the Navajos make to sell to visitors?

APPENDIX G

DECISION MAKING TREE

Decision Making

You are a member of the purple race. You have recently begun to look for a new house so you and your family can get out of your cramped apartment. You find a great house with a swimming pool in a quiet neighborhood. The house is close to a park and a good school. Everything is perfect about the house so you buy it. After you move in however, the trouble begins. You realize that because you are purple and not green your neighbors do not want you to live there. Little things start happening; your trash cans get destroyed, windows get broken, and telephone calls insist you move out. You ignore most of these problems but you begin to feel like your children are in danger. What do you do?

APPENDIX H

ROLE PLAYING SCENE

Directions: Use the decision making scene for the basis of the role play. Students need to read the scenes prior to the role play and have an idea of what they will say and how they will act out their part. Remember, the audience will need to know what you are thinking and doing.

Role Play Scene

Characters: Purple Mother, Purple Father, Purple son, Purple daughter, Bad Green #1, Bad Green #2, Bad Green #3, Bad Green #4, Realtor

Scene 1: The family is looking at a house and decide they want to buy it. Discuss the reasons you want the house and want out of the apartment.

Scene 2: The Realtor tries to talk you out of buying the house for various reasons but never says it is because of your color.

Scene 3: The purple family moves in. Everyone is excited.

Scene 4: (Nighttime) Bad Green #1 and 2 discuss tearing up their trash cans to scare them so they will move. They don't like them because they are purple. Act out tearing up the trash cans.

Scene 5: Mother and father discuss what happened but think that it will not happen again.

Scene 6: Bad Green #2 makes a telephone call to the Purples telling them to move out or else.

Scene 7: (Nighttime) Bad Green #3 and #4 throw rocks at the windows and spray paint "Move Out" on the side of the Purple's house. They laugh and run away.

Scene 8: Act out some of the endings from the decision making tree.

APPENDIX I

TIMELINE

Time Line

1540: Navajo's land was claimed by Coronado of Spain. They brought sheep, horses, and goats.

1849: Gold was discovered in California. Better routes to California were now needed.

1850: Territory of New Mexico was declared part of the U.S.

1861: Civil War began.

1863: Kit Carson was ordered to round up the Navajo.

1864: Three month journey to Ft. Sumner ended.

1867: Ft. Sumner was a disaster and too expensive. Over 3,000 Navajos died. Navajos would be released.

1868: June 1, a treaty was signed and the Navajos were released.

APPENDIX J

FICTION STUDY GUIDES

Study Guide
Chapters 1-3

Vocabulary: Mesa, pinon trees, hogan, Utes

1. Describe the area where Bright Morning lives.

2. Why do you think Bright Morning was not allowed to watch the sheep after she left them in the storm?

3. Why do you think Bright Morning wanted to watch the sheep so badly?

4. What was the deal the Navajo's made with the White men?

5. Describe what a hogan looks like.

6. What is a long-knife?

Study Guide
Chapters 4-7

Vocabulary: ewes, aspen trees, hovered, slavers, Jicarilla Apache, disposition, Nez Perce, omen

1. Why were the Spaniards there on Navajo land?

2. Why were the girls afraid of wolves?

3. Where were the Spaniards taking the girls?

4. What did the Senora on pg. 35 give to the Spaniard for Bright Morning?

5. How did Bright Morning feel about being there?

Study Guide
Chapters 8-11

Vocabulary: baile, fiesta, adobe, penitentes, tethered, solemnly. sheathed

1. Why did the Senora buy a pretty dress and ribbons for Bright Morning?

2. What was doing to happen on the tenth night after the baile?

3. Why did the girls wait for the Easter Ceremony to begin before they escaped?

4. How did the girls escape from the Spaniards when they caught up with them?

Study Guide
Chapters 12-14

Vocabulary: Kin-nadl-dah, yucca root, industrious, obedient

1. Who did they take Tall Boy to when they reached the village?

2. What are some duties of Navajo women?

3. Why did everyone pity Tall Boy?

4. Describe some of the things Bright Morning had to do in the womanhood ceremony.

5. What message did the Long Knife bring?

6. What did the people of the Navajo village decide to do?

Study Guide
Chapters 15-18

Vocabulary: captivity, lance, jeer

1. What did the Navajos hope the soldiers would do?

2. Describe what the soldiers did so the Navajos could not go home.

3. What did the soldiers choose to do instead of attacking the Navajos?

4. Why do you think they wanted the Navajos off the land?

5. Describe what life was like for the Navajos on the trail east.

6. Why did Bright Morning need to find the mother of the child she had been carrying?

Study Guide
Chapters 19-21

Vocabulary: idle, buttress

1. Why were the Navajos idle when they reached Bosque Redondo?

2. What story went around that made the Navajos fear for their lives?

3. Why were the Navajos sick and dying?

4. What made Bright Morning decide to go back to the canyon?

5. What did Bright Morning do in preparation for their escape?

6. Why did Tall Boy get arrested?

Study Guide
Chapters 22 & 23

Vocabulary: beckoned, ramparts, crimson

1. How did Tall Boy escape?

2. Why do you think Bright Morning wants her sheep so badly?

3. Why do you think Bright Morning takes the spear from her son and breaks it?

APPENDIX K

FACTOR ANALYSIS SUBTEST ITEMS

Factor Analysis

Subtest 1--Factual Recall and Long Walk Questions

Items
1
4
6
7
10
11
16
19
20
26
27
29

Subtest 2--Geography and Economics

Items
12
13
15
18
21
22
23
25

Subtest 3--Concepts

Items
3
8
14
24
28
30

APPENDIX L

JOURNAL ENTRIES--NONFICTION GROUP

Journal Entries from the Nonfiction Group

Sample 1

"I think it was unfair to move the Navaho's to Ft. Summer even though they attacked the Americans at Ft. Defiance."

"I thought today's lesson was fun. I like to label maps and label states."

"I thought Handout #2 was hard but fun. I like to learn about Indians and their culture."

"I think the Navajos were treated better and worse. They were fed good food but many of them still starved and they couldn't go back to the land they loved."

"I thought the decision making tree was neat. I think the play is going to be neat."

"I liked read about the Navajos at Ft. Sumner. They're way of living must have been hard."

"Todays lesson was awesome! I love to write so it was really neat. I finished my story and I'm pleased with it."

Sample 2

"I liked doing the map and working with a partner."

" I like to learn about Kit Carson and doing the villages."

"I think how the white men treated the Indians was worse than slavery."

"I have learned that the Navajos were treated badly."

Sample 3

"I think that it is unfair that the Indians had to move. I think I would be mad if I had to move."

"Today I learned the places where the Navajos had to move."

"The Navajo Indians had to walk 300 miles in the long walk. I feel that it was very very unfair to make the Navajos walk all that way."

"I feel sorry for the Navajo people. If I was a Navajo person I wouldn't want to move. I would ask a nice white person if I could live with them instead of leaving."

"I think that it was a good idea to put mud on the old people's feet. I am anxious about the play. And to see what it is about."

"I enjoyed writing the story. I also enjoyed reading it to the teacher. I also had fun pretending I was in the long walk."

APPENDIX M

JOURNAL ENTRIES--BOTH

Journal Entries From the Fiction and Nonfiction Group

Sample 1

" I think this will be very exciting book. I wish the white men would just go some where else."

"Today we did a map. We saw where the Indians had to go. They had to go to Fort Sumner. More than 2,000 Indians died.

" I think that Morning Star is just like me. I hate the Spaniards. They just can't leave the Indians alone! If I was the Indians I would kill them."

"I have learned that the Spaniards captured the Indians and selled them to the towns people."

"We are going to do a play. It is supost to resemble the white men and the Indians."

Sample 2

"I learned that on the Long Walk a hole bunch of people died so I know what white man did to Indians. It was very mean. So Indians who are still alive are probably sad because they lost a hole bunch of friends and family."

"I like how the Spaniards dress up like wolves and catch the Indians but I don't like making them into slaves."

"I learned that the Spain did not like Indians and caught them and made them slaves and sold them for money."

Sample 3

"I learned where two different forts are and where four different capitals are. I also learned where the Navajo Reservation is.

"I thought was wrong to use Indians as slaves. Nobodyu should use anybody as slaves."

"I learned that the Spaniards aren't very nice."

"I learned that many people died on the long walk but some people lived."

"I learned what role play is. It was very fun too."

"I wrote a story. I also had a god time."

"I made a time line."

"I made a game."

APPENDIX N

JOURNAL ENTRIES--FICTION GROUP

Journal Entries from the Fiction Group

Sample 1

"Yesterday was fun. I think I am going to learn alot."

"Today I had fun. I like the book we are reading. I have read one of his books before have you?

"I really like to work on arts and clay and I really like the hogans that we are making."

"Social studies is very fun and you learn alot. I have a question. What happened to the girl that was in the other tribe ont he book we are reading?"

"I really like this book that we are reading. At the beginning of the book it was kindof boring but it is getting good."

"Today I liked the play. I like the book I'm surprised that the baby died they usually don't make the people die. I did not like that part in the book."

"Today was fun. I really like making stories. I am anxious to finish Sing Down the Moon."

"It was fun making our time lines. I thought that the book we are reading was good."

Sample 2

"I liked social studies today. It was pretty fun. I liked it. I can't wait until the project."

"I like the book. I feeel sad for Bright Morning and her friend because they got kidnaped. I bet her parents and Running Birds parents are really worried. I hope the warriors come and rescue running bird and Bright morning. I hope she doesn't and her friend doesn't have to stay. Exspecially her friend."

"I liked finishing the clay models we were making. I didn't like how Shannon was acting, He was acting immature. Otherwise it was fine."

"Today it was good discusing that stuff because I'm learning more now."

"I really liked the lesson. I also liked making the hogans and it was fun finishing them up. I really do like this book it is good, it is also very sad at sum parts. I like when they had described what the land looked like, at the first of the book."

"I liked it today. In fact I like writing that story. I hope it turns out good. I'm glad we're almost done with the book. But I really liked reading it it was good."

Sample 3

" I liked it today. it was great. I think I'll look forward to it all."

" I think that I will be very good in this class. I can't wait till tomorrow."

"I like reading the book. I don't think that should Indian girls for slaves. How would the white like if the Indians took the white girls or slaves."

"I had fun making clay villages. It's really a neat class."

"I get to be green #1. I bet it'll be fun."

"I like the book it's getting interesting it was sad when her grandma died. I hope Little Rainbow can have other children."

"I like Sing Down the Moon. It's nice I think she might get caught trying to go back to Canyon De Chelly."

"I had lots of fun making the time line."

"Playing this game was fun. We came in second but thats alright."

APPENDIX O

HUMAN SUBJECTS APPROVAL - IRB

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
FOR HUMAN SUBJECTS RESEARCH

Date: 09-22-93 **IRB#:** ED-94-017

Proposal Title: EFFECTS OF USING CHILDREN'S HISTORICAL FICTION AND NONFICTION ON STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT AND ATTITUDES TOWARD AMERICAN INDIANS AND SOCIAL STUDIES

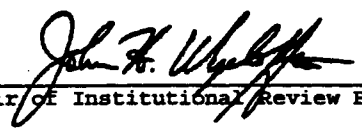
Principal Investigator(s): Dr. Warren Mckinney, Brenda Walling

Reviewed and Processed as: Exempt

Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved

APPROVAL STATUS SUBJECT TO REVIEW BY FULL INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD AT NEXT MEETING.
APPROVAL STATUS PERIOD VALID FOR ONE CALENDAR YEAR AFTER WHICH A CONTINUATION OR RENEWAL REQUEST IS REQUIRED TO BE SUBMITTED FOR BOARD APPROVAL. ANY MODIFICATIONS TO APPROVED PROJECT MUST ALSO BE SUBMITTED FOR APPROVAL.

Comments, Modifications/Conditions for Approval or Reasons for Deferral or Disapproval are as follows:

Signature:  **Date: September 24, 1993**

Chair of Institutional Review Board

VITA 2

Brenda Hayes Walling

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Thesis: EFFECTS OF USING CHILDREN'S HISTORICAL FICTION AND NONFICTION ON STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT AND ATTITUDES TOWARD AMERICAN INDIANS AND SOCIAL STUDIES

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