

# **UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA**

## **FINAL YEAR TEACHER-TRAINEES' IDEAS AND SENSE OF EFFICACY IN IMPLEMENTING THE BASIC SCHOOL SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM IN GHANA**



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IMPLEMENTING THE BASIC SCHOOL SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM IN  
GHANA



A Thesis in the DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL STUDIES,  
FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES EDUCATION, Submitted to the  
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in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for Award of  
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY (SOCIAL STUDIES) DEGREE

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## DECLARATION

### Candidate's Declaration

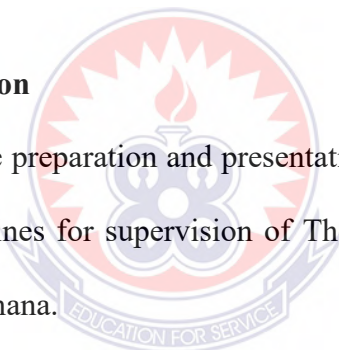
I, **Isaac Eshun**, with student identity number 912014003, declare that this Thesis which has been completed solely in fulfilment of Doctor of Philosophy in Social Studies, with the exception of quotations and references contained in published works which have all been identified and acknowledged, is entirely my own original work, and it has not been submitted, either in part or whole, for another degree elsewhere.

Signature.....

Date.....

### Supervisors' Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this work were supervised in accordance with guidelines for supervision of Thesis as laid down by University of Education, Winneba, Ghana.



**Principal Supervisor:** Professor Augustine Yao Quashigah

Signature.....

Date.....

**Co-supervisor:** Doctor Gershon Yawo Dake

Signature.....

Date.....

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## DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my dear family: Mrs. Jennifer Narkwa-Eshun, my heart desire and wife; and my six wonderful children: Nana Ekua Eduafuaa, Esi Nhyiraba, Efua Nyame Enyimpa, Maame Adom, Nyame Ayeyi and Kweku Dannyame Narkwa-Eshun. The many hours spent on the thesis meant fewer hours spent with you. Thank you for your love, care and generosity.



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## ABSTRACT

Social Studies, as a subject in the Junior High School (JHS) curriculum in Ghana, is taught mostly by diploma teachers from the country's 38 public Colleges of Education and graduates from other tertiary institutions. An out-and-out analysis of the Colleges of Education Social Studies curriculum vis-à-vis the JHS syllabus reveal differences in how the subject is structured and organised to prepare teachers to go and teach it at the JHS level. Thus, the aim of the study was to find out the conceptions of final year teacher-trainees and their sense of efficacy in implementing the Basic School Social Studies Curriculum in Ghana. A sequential mixed methods design was used. Data from questionnaire was triangulated with interviews, focus group discussion and classroom observation. Non-probability sampling methods (purposive and convenience sampling techniques) were used to select the districts, colleges and respondents for the study. The study revealed, among other things, that: (a) final year teacher-trainees' current knowledge base about Social Studies as a problem solving was inadequate. Mentees lack teaching skills to impart Social Studies as an issue-oriented subject; (b) discrepancies exist between the ideal classroom activities mentees said they would exhibit and what they actually demonstrated in their teaching. It is recommended that there must be a national curriculum policy on Social Studies that all pathways to teaching of the subject should undergo review according to specified national standards to meet the needs of society.

## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 Background to the Study

MacBeath, Swaffield, Oduro, and Ampah-Mensah (2013), citing McWilliam and Kwamena-Poh (1975) state that it was not until the last quarter of the 19th century that Ghana began to take first steps towards a state-organised education. Before then informal systems of education had been the main way in which Ghanaian communities prepared their members for citizenship. It is interesting to note that in Ghana the first school was the home: the teachers were the parents and the elders in the family. The curriculum was life and learning was by observation. According to MacBeath et al. (2013), the first major purpose of such education was the inculcation of good character and good health in the young members of the community. The second was to give them adequate knowledge of their history, beliefs and culture, thus enabling them to participate fully in social life. This indicates that the collectivist nature of education in traditional communities, writes Antwi (1992), encompassed the total way of life of the society. It could be seen from the foregoing comments that the purpose of education since the beginning of the Ghanaian society has been for national development.

According to McWilliam and Kwamena-Poh (1975), cited in Eyiah (2007), not only were missions regarded as the right bodies to manage education; they had more money than the government with which to do so. However, it was observed that the system of education adopted by the various missions differed widely, and so in 1882, the Government drew the first plans to guide the development of education. One of

the recent initiatives was the Anamuah-Mensah's Educational Review Committee Report of 2002 which was of the view that the philosophy of education in Ghana should be creating well-balanced (intellectually, spiritually, emotionally, and physically) individuals with the requisite knowledge, skills, values, and attitudes for self-actualisation and for the socio-economic and political transformation of the nation (GOG, 2002).

These initiatives helped in structurally transforming the education system and also helped improved considerably access, quality teaching and learning, infrastructure delivery as well as management efficiency. Aboagye (2002), states that the quality of teachers, the quality of education and the quality of teacher education are inseparable. Quality teacher education has been seen as a crucial factor for effective educational outcomes in moving the nation forward. This shows that the development of education could not be successfully done without looking at the teacher and the training to be acquired. This indicates that teacher training in Ghana should be given priority and subjects like Social Studies taught in Colleges of Education should be geared towards nation building.

As a result of this a lot of efforts were put in place to train and develop teacher training institutions which were to be the grass root implementers of policies and initiatives of educational improvement and development. For instance, under the Education Reform Programme, the 4-year Post-Middle School Teacher Training Programme was phased out in 1991, giving way to only a 3-year Post-Secondary Programme. The 3-year Certificate 'A' Post-Secondary Programme was also phased

out for a 3-year Diploma in Basic Education in 2007. With the changes in teacher education in Ghana, Akyeampong (2003) notes that one of the significant changes in initial teacher training in Ghana in recent times is the change from a three year “in” college training to two years in college and one year “out”. This seems to be a move to make training of teachers more practically focused and ensure that prospective teachers have better insights and understanding into actual job training. It reflects an increasing desire of the Ministry of Education and the Ghanaian teacher educators to see teacher training include more experience learning on the job. This helps a lot as trainees (mentees) are mentored to teach and supervised in a classroom setting by mentors, lead mentors and link tutors.

Despite the various efforts that were put in place; teacher education in Ghana has until recently not attracted much attention by way of intense structural and curriculum reforms. Research conducted by the Centre for Research into Improving the Quality of Primary Education in Ghana (CRIQPEG) at the University of Cape Coast showed that despite the reform efforts, pupils’ achievement had not made any significant gains, and was in fact embarrassingly poor (Akyeampong, 2003). Ministry of Education in trying to understand the reasons for low achievements among pupils in schools realised that among the main causes of the problems were ineffective pre-service teacher training and inadequate in-service teacher training to introduce teachers to the new curriculum and unmotivated teachers. This is supported by Eshun and Ashun (2013:109) who reported that “mentees faced the problem of inadequate supervisory practices by their mentors.” Eshun and Ashun (2013) stated that mentors failed to perform their expected professional roles leaving most trainees on their own.



The attitude of these mentors greatly affected the mentees in terms of the needed professional guidance during teaching and other sessions of the teaching and learning process. These observations suggest that teacher education has an important role to play in improving and raising the academic standards of education in the country is stuck with challenges.

Social Studies is one of the subjects taught in Colleges of Education and student-teachers are trained to teach it at the Basic Schools in Ghana. The term “Social Studies”, was first used in 1905 by Thomas Jesse in the United States of America. In 1913, it was formally used as part of The National Education Association Report on the re-organisation of secondary education (Saxe, 1991). According to Saxe (1991:18) “the evolution of Social Studies to its present form can be traced from the early stages where it was rooted in the social sciences for the purpose of attending to social welfare and subsequently grounded in the social sciences for the purpose of directly educating future citizens”. Social Studies, thus, evolved as a curricular need to serve a purpose for the worthwhile development and nurturing of young citizens to fit into ideal society.

In many of Africa countries, the introduction of Social Studies as part of the school’s curriculum was preceded by the formation of the African Social Studies Programme (ASSP) in 1968 (Kissock, 1981). In Ghana, as in other African countries, Social Studies was introduced as the brainchild of ASSP in 1972. The purpose set forth by the Mombasa Conference in 1968 is that the integrated Social Studies is supposed to enable every school-going child in Africa to: understand people’s interaction with the

cultural, social and physical environment; appreciate home and heritage; develop skills and attitudes expected of citizens; and learn to express ideas in many ways (Merryfield & Mutebi 1991:621).

According to Odumah (2008), Social Studies from its inception was intended as a nation building subject and a country's aspiration therefore constitutes the basis for teaching it. This notwithstanding, there is no consensus among educators as regards what Social Studies is or ought to be. The field of Social Studies is so caught up in ambiguity, inconsistency and contradiction that it represents a complex educational enigma (Martorella, 1994). This signifies that there is controversy surrounding Social Studies with regard to how it is conceptualised in terms of meaning, content, objectives, and assessing its outcomes.

Although some efforts have been made to improve the teaching of the subject through curriculum innovations and upgrading of institutions of learning like the Colleges of Education, it is suspected that the goals of Social Studies are not being achieved, hence the research on the final year teacher-trainees' Social Studies curriculum conceptions and their sense of efficacy in implementing the Basic School Social Studies curriculum in Ghana.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

According to the teaching syllabus for Social Studies (CRDD, 2007) the subject prepares individuals by equipping them with knowledge about the culture and ways of life of their society, its problems, its values and its hopes for the future.

However, documentary evidence on the Social Studies curriculum prepared for Colleges of Education in Ghana shows clear differences in relation to how the Basic School teaching syllabus for Social Studies is structured. The College of Education Social Studies curriculum seems not to reflect the problem solving perspective of the subject in Ghana.

As a result of the possible differences in curriculum conception of Social Studies by Colleges of Education in relation to the Basic School Social Studies curriculum in Ghana, trained teachers may conceptualise the subject differently. This may confuse them as to how to teach the subject since the structure of the Basic School Social Studies syllabus they will use to teach will not be in consonance with what they were taught while in college. There is therefore the need to conduct a study that will examine the final year teacher-trainees ideas about College and School Social Studies and their sense of efficacy in implementing Ghana's Basic School Social Studies curriculum.

## **1.2 Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of the study was to ascertain the final year teacher-trainees' ideas about the CoE and the JHS Social Studies curriculum documents in terms its purpose, nature and methods of teaching and their sense of efficacy in implementing the Basic School Social Studies curriculum.

#### **1.4 Objectives of the Study**

The research sought to:

1. examine the major differences in the conceptions of Social Studies in terms of its purpose, nature and methods of teaching as contained in the Colleges of Education vis-à-vis the Junior High School (JHS) syllabus in Ghana;
2. determine how the conceptions of Social Studies by final year teacher trainees of Colleges of Education differs from the structure of the Basic Social Studies curriculum; and
3. determine how the differences in the conceptions and curricula structures of Social Studies at Colleges of Education and the Basic level influence teacher-trainees sense of efficacy in implementing the Basic School curriculum.

#### **1.5 Research Questions**

The following research questions were formulated to guide the study:

1. What are the major differences in notions about Social Studies in terms of its purpose, nature and methods of teaching as contained in the Colleges of Education curriculum and the Junior High School teaching syllabus?
2. What differences in structure have final year teacher-trainees encountered from their experiences with the College of Education Social Studies curriculum and the Junior High School teaching syllabus?
3. What are the levels of efficacy in implementing the Basic School curriculum as a result of the possible differences in conceptions and curricula structures of Social Studies in Ghana?

## 1.6 Significance of the Study

In terms of policy formulation in education, the findings are intended to provide guidelines for Social Studies Education in Ghana. The study will help Social Studies training institutions to develop student-friendly curriculum in Social Studies in an integrated manner whose content and scope must be issues-centred and problem solving to reflect the official curriculum in basic schools. This may help bridge theory and practice by for-going ideologies in education by bringing the ideal curriculum into practice. This means instituting measures that will lead to putting the Basic School Social Studies syllabus into use in the Colleges. This will result in continuation of what student-teachers already know whiles in college and what they will be teaching in the upper primary which is Citizenship Education and Social Studies at the JHS level.

With regard to the teaching of the subject, the study will guide institutions to come out with development programmes to meet pre-service instructional needs of student-teachers and in-service training of classroom teachers to help them form a better concept about the Social Studies - acquiring knowledge, developing of positive attitudes, skills and values of students which in effect will equip them to be competent, concerned, reflective and problem solvers: solving their own life threatening problems and that of society.

Furthermore, the findings of this study will give guidelines for education planners, curriculum developers, policy makers and administrators for which inferences can be made on the state of the subject in Ghana and how it is impacting on students. The

findings will give a benchmark for in-service programmes for classroom teachers in the Colleges of Education and the Basic Schools in Ghana.

### **1.7 Delimitation of the Study**

The research covered three public Colleges of Education in the Western Region out of the 38 public colleges in Ghana. In addition, the study covered only the Social Studies curriculum at the Basic School, the College of Education, the final year teacher-trainees and their sense of efficacy using efficacy scale.

### **1.8 Operational Definitions of Terms and Acronyms**

- Colleges of Education - Thirty-eight (38) public Colleges of Education tasked in producing teachers for first cycle institutions (Kindergarten, Primary & JHS) in Ghana and assessed by Institute of Education-University of Cape Coast (UCC), with supervisory and monitoring role from Teacher Education Division (TED).
- Mentees - The teacher trainees.
- Mentors - The classroom teachers of Basic Schools.
- Lead mentors - The head-teachers of Basic Schools.
- Link Tutors - Tutors of Colleges of Education.
- UCC - University of Cape Coast.
- CoE - College of Education
- CoEs - Colleges of Education
- JHS - Junior High School.
- ESS - Environmental / Social Studies

- GES - Ghana Education Service.
- GOG - Government of Ghana.
- TED - Teacher Education Division.
- OSTES - Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale.
- TSES - Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale.
- Final Year Trainee - A third (final) year student teacher being taught what to do by a mentor in teaching and learning process in a classroom setting.
- In-In-Out - Two year face-to-face instruction in College of Education and one year schools attachment in the community.
- Self-Efficacy: Psychologist Albert Bandura has defined self-efficacy as one's belief in one's ability to succeed in specific situations or accomplish a task. One's sense of self-efficacy can play a major role in how one approaches goals, tasks, and challenges.
- Curriculum - It is the subjects taught in an educational institution, or topics taught within a subject.
- Conceptions are mental representations of phenomena in reality (Thompson 1992), which explain complex and difficult categories of experience.
- Curriculum Conception - Broad understanding of subjects taught or elements of subject.
- Content knowledge - Described by Shulman (1986) to include subject matter content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, and curricular knowledge.
- Pedagogical content knowledge - Refers to subject matter knowledge for teaching which includes knowledge for topics regularly taught in a subject area. It also

includes an understanding of what makes some topics easy or difficult to learn and what conceptions, preconceptions and misconceptions students might have at various ages (Shulman, 1987).

- Pedagogical knowledge - Refers to knowledge of the art and science of teaching.
- Professional development - Refers to activities aimed at developing the knowledge and skills of practising teachers (Elmore, 2002).
- Evaluation - It is an observed value compared to some standard.
- Evaluation Model - It serves as a basis upon which to build or guide in the development of an evaluation plan.
- Social Studies Conceptions - Broad understanding of Social Studies subject, examples are: Amalgamation of the social sciences; citizenship education; global citizenship; method of teaching; multicultural education; peace education; political education; and others.
- Social Studies Curriculum Conceptions - Broad understanding or elements of teaching social studies. Examples are: amalgamation of the social sciences; citizenship education; global citizenship; problem solving; and others.
- Crossdisciplinary Approach - It is the blending of different types or characteristics of disciplines. Viewing one discipline from the perspective of another; for example, the Physics of Music and the History of Mathematics (Meeth, 1978).
- Integrated Curriculum Approach - It is a curriculum approach that purposefully draws together knowledge, perspectives, and methods of inquiry from more than

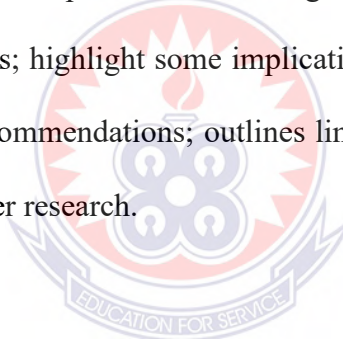


one discipline to develop a more powerful understanding of a central idea, issue, person, or event.

- Interdisciplinary Approach - It characterises a blending of disciplines. A knowledge view and curriculum approach that consciously applies methodology and language from more than one discipline to examine a central theme, issue, problem, topic, or experience.
- Multidisciplinary Approach - The juxtaposition of several disciplines focused on one problem with no direct attempt to integrate (Piaget, 1972; Meeth, 1978). It suggests maintenance of boundaries across disciplines.
- Traditional Curriculum Approach - Involve the study of separate subjects that are independent and disconnected from each other, taught at different times during the day by specialised teachers.
- Transdisciplinary Approach - It runs across traditional subject boundaries; transcends academic boundaries. Beyond the scope of the disciplines; that is, to start with a problem and bring to bear knowledge from the disciplines (Meeth, 1978).
- Unidisciplinary Approach - Traditional subjects are segregated along discipline boundaries.
- Pluridisciplinary - The juxtaposition of disciplines assumed to be more or less related; e.g., Mathematics and Physics, French and Latin (Piaget, 1972).
- Discipline Field - Specific body of teachable knowledge with its own background of education, training, procedures, methods, and content areas (Piaget, 1972).

## **1.9 Organisation of the Thesis**

The thesis is organised into five chapters. Chapter One contains the introduction of the research, which includes the following: the background; statement of the problem; the objectives; research questions; significance; delimitation; operational definitions of research variables and terms; and the organisation of the study. Chapter Two contains a review of the literature on the problem and the theories underpinning the research. Chapter Three describes the methodology, which includes the research design, population, sample and sampling procedure, instruments for data collection, validity and reliability of instruments, procedure for data collection, and how the data was analysed. Chapter Four presents the findings and discussion, while Chapter Five summarises the findings; highlight some implications for teaching the subject; draws conclusions; makes recommendations; outlines limitations of the study; and suggests possible areas for further research.



## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.0 Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature related to the issues pertaining to the study. The review has sections as follows:

- ❖ The Development and Conceptions of Social Studies through Time and Space;
- ❖ Teachers' Conception and its Influence on their Classroom Activities;
- ❖ Teachers' Curriculum Conception and Curriculum Implementation;
- ❖ Effective Teaching of Social Studies;
- ❖ Theories underpinning the Research - Curriculum Evaluation Models; and
- ❖ Appraisal of Reviewed Literature.

#### 2.1 The Development and Conceptions of Social Studies through Time and Space

For a teacher to teach Social Studies to result in attitudinal building of pupils there is the need for him/her to have an in-depth knowledge of the various conceptions of Social Studies. According to Odumah (2008), Social Studies from its early beginnings was intended as a nation-building subject and a country's aspirations therefore constitute the bases for teaching it. He further stressed that this notwithstanding, there is no consensus among educators as regards what Social Studies is or ought to be. On this, Martorella (1994) holds the view that the field of Social Studies is so caught up in ambiguity, inconsistency and contradiction that it represents a complex educational enigma. In the views of Quartey (1984:13), "In the academic world, almost every subject has had its changing views." Lawal and

Oyeleye (2003) in support of this view remarked that the definitions, nature and scope of the subject became so restricted to the confinements of the single discipline purview of the social sciences. This implies that there has been emerging conceptions of social studies through time and space with regards to its meaning, scope, nature, objectives and even the way assessment tools are selected in teaching it.

With the development and conceptions of social studies through time and space, Obebe (1990) commented that Social Studies first appeared as a curriculum of the educational system of United States of America (USA) within the first two decades of the 20th century. He further remarked that although it was a stormy and difficult birth, distinguished scholars like John Dewey, George Counts, Edger Wesley, Harold Rugg and Earle Rugg, were the midwives. Thomas Jesse who was the Chairman of the National Education Association Committee on Social Studies which issued its final report as part of a major review of the re-organisation of secondary education in 1917 has been identified as one of the first to use the term “Social Studies” in its present sense.

Social Studies thought started developing in the United States of America in the early 1900 as a reaction to the tremendous numerous human problems prevailing at that particular period. Some of these problems were basically social and political but purely as a result of the civil wars which Americans went through and were just getting over. Some of these problems were seen as cogs in the wheel of all efforts at ensuring the evolution of a pluralistic and modernised democratic state (Obebe, 1990).

By 1921, a national association called National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) whose membership was opened to persons or institutions interested in Social Studies was formed. This Council charged itself and its members with the responsibility of working towards a better understanding of Social Studies and its importance in developing responsible participation in social, political and economic lives. The NCSS has since then been playing prominent roles in the development and wider acceptance of Social Studies across the world. The organisation has written several position statements on the basic rationale for Social Studies education and curriculum guidelines. Through the effort of NCSS, various task forces were set up to review the scope, content and sequences of Social Studies. This has really influenced the evolutionary development of Social Studies in American Schools. By the seventh decade of the twentieth century, the alarming rates of crimes, divorce and illegal use of drugs on large scale heightened the interest of the Americans in Social Studies. At this time they had started seeing Social Studies as a catalyst of social change. Hence, the discipline started focusing on relevance to social problems and self-realisation. They now felt there was an urgent need for the school to prepare citizens to deal with some of the identified inevitable problems. At the same time, policy impediments are identified and reduced, so citizenship education is successfully sustained. The National Council for the Social Studies (2006) has long been a leading advocate in this area, linking citizenship education to the core mission of the Social Studies.

It is however, important to note that in the United States of America, there is no national Social Studies syllabus for all schools. Each school district writes its own

Social Studies syllabus. Social Studies in America, as observed by Obebe (1990) does not have a static structure. It has transformed from citizenship education for national development by enlarging the vision and meaning of citizenship to include not only the local community, the state and the nation, but also the global community. This is in recognition of the fact that all human beings live in a multi-boundary world; not simply a world of nation-states, but one with a diversity of worldwide systems in which all people affect and are affected by others across the globe. The recognition of the dynamic nature of Social Studies in United States of America is also being influenced by the fact that humanity is increasingly threatened by problems that cannot be solved by actions taken only at the national level.

Social Studies in the United States of America today can therefore be said to be focusing on the reduction of pressures, social and environmental problems which are of national and international concerns, with contents usually drawn from a variety of discipline-interdisciplinary approach. Students are being taught to think globally as they act locally. Learners are taught in ways that make learning active, interactive, hands on and engaging. It must be noted that any society, which intends promoting democratic discipline through Social Studies education, requires individuals who are willing and able to participate effectively in the solution of common problems. They must also be willing at times to take decisions which demand compromise among different points of view. This is important for society to develop towards desired goals. This is the idea of Social Studies in the United State of America. While it is true, that other subjects also contribute towards the development of desirable goals in the youths, Social Studies is viewed as bearing the greater responsibility. Westheimer

and Kahne (2003) assert that through Social Studies students can receive the support they need to express their opinions on political, social and controversial issues. In this way, students can develop the ability to critique, analyse and formulate possibilities for action critical for responsive citizenship. This is because Social Studies deals directly with human problems and tries to shape the behaviours of individuals.

According to Quartey (1984:13) “Social Studies in Britain was not introduced until 1920s”. He further asserts that following the Hadow Report of 1926 in Britain, Social Studies focused on how to equip the youth to become well trained adults in an industrialised society. The development of Social Studies in Britain followed a fashion of nation building out of its trade recession in the wake of its Industrial Revolution. According to Ogundare (2000) there is very little evidence of the existence of Social Studies before the 1930s in Britain and other European countries. What could be regarded as the Social Studies content at that time included materials from the Economics and Political Science, which were then taught as Civics. According to Quartey (1984:14), “It was the effort to review Social Studies taught in Britain that brought about Africa Social Studies Programme, Oxford Conference in 1967 and the Mombasa Conference of 1968 which have also influenced the study of Social Studies in Africa”.

However, Social Studies was known to have had initial setbacks in the history of the British educational system. By 1926, there was a criticism of the content of the school curriculum through the Hadow Report. The report pronounced that the general character of teaching should take account of the pupils’ natural and social

environments. This implies the desire for a curriculum that is socially relevant and capable of equipping the young ones to go out and become adults in an industrialised society. The report also noticed some elements of indoctrination in what was being taught in schools, e.g, children were taught to “honour the queen” ‘run away from every police man, etc. (Lawal, Obebe, James, & Fatimeyin, n. d.).

This therefore marked the beginning of a more dynamic and affective thought in the British educational system, which Social Studies exponents later capitalised upon. The advent of the Second World War which heralded some war problems that later had adverse effects on the British citizenry also heightened the chances of this dynamic thought. The World War II raised the concern for constructing a better society from the sad experiences of the war. To resolve this post-war problem being faced by the citizens, more interest was shown in Social Studies. This was because the content of the school curriculum was identified as capable of helping to construct a better society out of the catastrophic one for the emerging Britons. British educators therefore saw a liberal education as a way to bring about greater understanding of human kind. The thought of Social Studies for inclusion in the school curriculum became more prominent as it was recognised as capable of helping the pupils and adults become socially conscious and responsible members of their society. Hence, by 1944, the Social Studies curriculum emerged during the establishment of secondary education for all, when the school leaving age was raised from 14 to 15 years and teachers had to be re-trained, as pointed by Lawton and Dufour (1974).



Between 1945 and the early 50s there was therefore a tremendous growth in the thought of Social Studies and British schemes were developed on integrated approach to the subject. These growing thoughts were reflected in the series of teachers' handbooks that were produced in Social Studies. For instance, by 1945, the movement produced a document in which Social Studies was going to be taught as a common core course for the younger ones. The Social Studies programme that emerged during this period however faced a lot of resentment from subject specialists like the historians and geographers, who saw nothing special in the growing thoughts of subject. They felt insecure because of continuous spread of the subject. This resentment did not allow the teaching of the subject to further develop especially between the late 1950s and 1960. By the early 1960s there was a revival of interest in Social Studies as a result of the recommendations of the Crowther Report of 1959 and the Newton Report of 1963. The two demanded that school curricula should be relevant to industrialised and changing society. By 1968, an important year for Social Studies, key books and curriculum projects on the subject emerged. The dynamic growth of the British society and advancement in technology have all combined to improve the thoughts of Social Studies in Britain to the extent that the focus of the discipline has shifted and the subject is now seen as Modern Studies with its contents including living in the community, living with others, urban life and learning.

From the foregoing one could say that the general objectives of British Social Studies course may be seen as developing in children a more critical and balanced social awareness. The new Social Studies in Britain emphasise insights, concepts and generalisations partially derived from the social sciences. Discussion on Social

Studies thought in the United States of America and Britain without Africa as a continent may be seen as an incomplete exercise because, Social Studies growth and development has been a universal phenomenon (Lawal & Oyeleye, 2003). A close look at the development of historical thought of Social Studies in the U.S and Britain will reveal that, it has had a great influence on Social Studies thought in Africa (Lawal, 2003).

In Africa, Social Studies is a fairly recent curriculum innovation coming after 1960 in the wake of independence. During this period, most African countries were European colonies. They faced a problem of educating their citizens in European values, which had already been included in the curricula of African schools. The educational policies of the colonial government were formulated to serve the needs of the colonial masters. Teaching was geared towards training Africans who would be able to serve the interest of the colonial government. Africa indigenous values, attitudes and skills were neglected. However colonial education had some aspects of Social Studies. These were in form of general knowledge, religion, and moral instruction which were taught as Civics and Government. History, Geography and Government were considered paramount teaching school subjects during the colonial period to achieve the goals and objectives. Good children upbringing was emphasised by colonial masters as a tool making them submissive to colonial rule (Lawal et al., n.d).

At the attainment of independence by some African countries in 1960, colonial education came under very severe attack by the same colonially educated Africans. The British system of education was described as one geared towards separating the

African child from his/her cultural values, instead of developing positive values in him/her. The most important areas which were of greater concern to both the leaders and the generality of Africans were the educational systems and curriculum development. By 1967, according to Obebe (1990), more concrete international concern was shown in the development of Social Studies thought in Africa, especially as a thing of continental concern. So at an international conference held at Queen's College, Oxford, United Kingdom, the introduction of Social Studies as a formal school subject was proposed, and this conference led to the important and historic 1968 Mombassa Conference held in Kenya. The Mombassa Conference which was sponsored by Educational Development Centre (EDC) Newton, USA and Centre of Curriculum Renewal in Educational Development Overseas (CREDO), London, laid the foundation for an understanding of the meaning of Social Studies and an application of Social Studies in Africa. The conference deliberated on the issues surrounding the development of a new Social Studies curriculum for different countries of Africa.

In the view of Lawal et al. (n.d):

Some of the thoughts which the conference focused on included the philosophy of Social Studies, problem of teacher training, resource materials development and acquisition as well as evaluation techniques. There were representatives from eleven African countries viz. Nigeria, Botswana, Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi, Sierra Leone, Tanzania, Uganda and Zambia. The major decision reached was that new curricula for Social Studies for schools in Africa, starting with the primary schools must be developed. Each country representative in consultation with the permission of her government was to set up a Social Studies committee to consider formulating content and developing materials for Social Studies in her country. The conference also set in motion the creation a year later of a permanent African international Secretariat based in Nairobi, Kenya called African Social Studies Programme (ASSP) which was later renamed the

African Social and Environmental Studies Programme (ASESP). The organisation was charged with the responsibility of co-ordinating further development of Social Studies in African continent.

Social Studies as an integrated discipline was not in existence during the colonial era in Nigeria (1840-1960). What was found in the primary and post primary schools in the country was the teaching of a kind of curriculum called “General Knowledge” (Udoh, 1989). The development of Social Studies in Nigeria however came earlier than those of other countries in Africa. This was because as early as 1958, the Ohio State University in the United States of America had sponsored some Nigerians for training programmes in Social Studies. The arrival of the recipients of such training programmes greatly influenced their thoughts about Social Studies. For instance, they perceived the social ills that accompanied Nigeria’s transition from colonial era to independence. They discovered the high rate of acculturation among Nigerians and the rate at which the nation’s cultural traditions were breaking down. They therefore, felt that the only way to salvage the country was to train the young ones in a manner that would provide them with opportunities to catch up with the new problem of change (Lawal, 2003). According to Adesina (2010) the main purpose of its introduction into the country's educational system is to produce good and socially competent citizens that would live cordially with the members of the society and contribute individually and collectively to the growth and development of Nigeria.

In Ghana the introduction of a new system of education shifted from the British subject-centred curriculum to an integrated curriculum, first on an experimental basis in 1976 and nationwide in 1987 and emphasised an inquiry approach to teaching and

learning which laid emphasis on the attainment of affective objectives, and the development of vocational and creative skills, as well as the attainment of cognitive objectives (Avotri, 1993). Avotri further asserts that this culminated in the introduction of subjects such as social studies, cultural studies, life skills and vocational subjects. It was anticipated that Social Studies, for example, would facilitate the development of more positive attitudes towards society and the environment among students (GES, 1987).

Until the introduction of the New Educational Reform Programme (NERP) in the late 1980s the development of the integrated Social Studies in Ghana had been very unsteady. According to Tamakloe (1994) the early attempt of introducing Social Studies as a field of study dates from the late 1940's when Teacher Training Colleges such as Presbyterian Training College, Akropong-Akwapim; Wesley College, Kumasi and Achimota College initiated some programmes. These experiments, however, collapsed by the middle of the 1950s as a result of lack of co-ordination of efforts. The following were the reasons he gave for the collapse of the subjects in those institutions:

- a. Lack of competent teachers to handle the subject effectively: Teachers were not trained in the philosophy, methodology, aims and objectives as well as the techniques of teaching Social Studies.
- b. Conflicts with traditionalist ideas: The idea of subject integration had not been well received by many traditionalists. People were afraid that their pet subject such as geography, history, economics and government would lose their distinct identity and methodologies if each was made to become a microscopic member of

an integrated Social Studies programme. Social Studies was therefore not welcomed.

- c. Lack of textbooks on integrated Social Studies was another factor that contributed to the collapse of the idea (Tamakloe, 1994; cited in Odumah, 2003).

The subject 'resurrected' and was adopted as a result of the follow up of the Educational Conference held at Winneba in 1969 after the Mombasa Conference of 1968. According to Odumah (2003) "Social Studies was therefore re-introduced into Ghanaian schools in 1972 but this attempt also fell through, due to the reasons pointed out earlier". The recent introduction of the subject into the Ghanaian system had to await the implementation of the educational reforms of 1987 (Tamakloe, 1994).

According to Bekoe (2007) Social Studies in Ghana underwent a radical change in 1998, at the time that it was being introduced at the Senior Secondary School level of Ghana's educational system. He further asserts that it evolved from a collection of mainly specific history and geography topics, which used to characterise the early Social Studies curriculum, into an issue centred (trans-disciplinary) subject. To him, this evolution/change succeeded in transforming Social Studies curriculum from the amalgam, (citing Kissock, 1981) of discrete traditional social science disciplines to one that is issue centred (citing Noddings, 2000 and Farris, 2001) and problem solving in nature (with reference to Martorela, 1994).

Social Studies in Ghana according to the content of the 2007 JHS syllabus throws more light on social issues (e.g. our constitution; managing and preventing conflict;

adolescent reproductive health; citizenship and human rights; the use of land in our community; education and productivity; promoting political stability in Ghana; problems of development in Ghana; and others), whilst according to Quartey (1984) that of Nigeria basically deals with matters of the society. To him, Social Studies of America had grown from learning from purely history into a subject that aims at acquainting the youth with skills that can cause the necessary change in the citizen, whilst in Britain Social Studies is seen as inculcating industrial skills in the individual to catch up with the needs of the industrial revolution. This shows that the conception of social studies will always dictate the philosophy of the subject.

Social Studies as a discipline has suffered from identity crisis over the years due to many definitions given to it. Martorella (1994) for instance, argues that its ambiguous nature has turned it into educational puzzle. This will create differences in conception and ultimately influence the content and create confusion as to which direction the particular content has to go. This brings to the fore the different schools of thought about Social Studies through time and space. However, the focuses are the objectives around which the various proponents identified as elements of their definitions. Mathias (1973) defines Social Studies as the study of man in society. The same view is shared by the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS, 1916) in a report that indicated Social Studies is understood to be those whose subject matter relates directly to the organisation and development of human society and to man as a member of the social group. The report emphasises that Social Studies deals with man in relation to his environment. This means man must be able to influence his environment to his benefit.

Other authorities define Social Studies as an approach of teaching (Wesley 1950 & 1957; Makinde, 1969). The CRDD (1987) defines Social Studies as man in society and perceives it as the social sciences simplified for pedagogical purposes, distinguished by its method. In effect what this perspective mean is that the content of Social Studies must reflect its method of teaching, different from other subjects. Another school of thought also views the subject as an amalgam, interdisciplinary and integrated and that, it is an outgrowth of the social sciences (Barr et al., 1977; Tamakloe, 1994). Martorella (1985:5) asserts that Social Studies gains some of its identity from the social sciences such as history, political science, geography, economics, sociology, anthropology and psychology. The proponents of this conceptual approach therefore perceive Social Studies as a subject that draws together knowledge and content from geography, history, sociology, anthropology and civics in order to bring more powerful understanding of a central idea.

There are others too, who perceive the subject as citizenship education. In response to the calls of those like Butts (1988:162) for “the revitalizing of the historic civic mission of American education”, the Carnegie Foundation and CIRCLE (The Centre for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement) (2003:6) issued the Civic Mission of Schools report, which concluded that (a) “school-based civic education should be seen as an essential approach to increasing young people’s informed engagement with political institutions and issues; and (b) that Social Studies was the curricular area best able to develop competent and responsible citizens”. The National Council for the Social Studies (1994:3) confirmed Social Studies’ unique



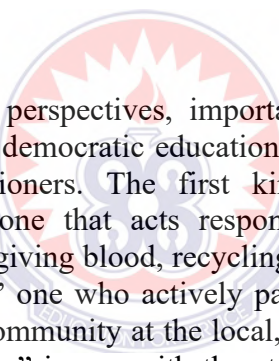
mission to “help young people develop the ability to make informed and reasoned decisions for the public good as citizens of a culturally diverse, democratic society in an interdependent world.”

According to Thornton (1994:224), while “most Social Studies leaders and policymakers justify the subject on the grounds of citizenship...it is here that the consensus ends: What does citizenship mean and what, in turn, does this mean for curriculum and instruction?” In seeking to answer just such a question, Barr, Barth and Shermis (1977) culled the literature and found three approaches to Social Studies-citizenship transmission, reflective inquiry, and social science method, each of which resulted in a different conception of a citizen and a different approach to prepare young people for citizenry.

Barr et al.’s work was critiqued by Shaver (1977) and White (1982), but others such as Martorella (1996) built upon their work. Martorella, for example, identified five “alternative perspectives on citizenship education.” The intent here is not only to review the on-going discussion of citizenship education, but simply to acknowledge that a variety of approaches have been documented in the literature, which have been informed by a vigorous, on-going discussion about the purposes for and approaches to citizenship education. What is noteworthy about most of the approaches to citizenship education as identified by those such as Barr et al. and Martorella is that civic participation, be it biennial voting or continuous, active pursuit of the passage of a particular public policy, is to be studied and possibly practiced in a classroom or school setting, but rarely in the community.

In seeking to define, in part, what citizenship means, Menezes (2002:432) recognised the relationship between different kinds of citizens and how they participate. Does active citizenship, for example, mean a “playing by the rules’ citizen who episodically votes and regularly pays taxes” or a “communitarian perspective that participation in voluntary associations within the civil society assumes a centrality for democratic life”? His emphasis was not on how to prepare young people for citizenship, but on what was expected of them once they fully assumed this role.

In answering question about what citizenship means, in this literature I rely upon three “kinds of citizens” depicted by Westheimer and Kahne (2004:242), which are based on:



prominent theoretical perspectives, important differences in the ways that educators conceive of democratic educational aims, and ideas and ideals that resonate with practitioners. The first kind of citizen is a “personally responsible citizen,” one that acts responsibly in his or her community by...picking up litter, giving blood, recycling, obeying laws....The second is a “participatory citizen,” one who actively participates in the civic affairs and the social life of the community at the local, state, or national level. Finally, a “justice-oriented citizen” is one with the attributes of a participatory citizen, but who also seeks to improve society by critically analysing and addressing social issues and injustices.

Westheimer and Kahne’s work offers a useful means to link what students are expected to learn (relative to civic engagement) to a particular type of citizen. In defining civic engagement, Torney-Purta and Lopez (2006), drawing upon the work of Patrick (2003, 2005/2006), made a distinction between intellectual skills and participatory skills. Patrick (2006:19) had noted that in “combination with cognitive civic skills, participatory civic skills are tools of citizenship whereby individuals, whether acting alone or in groups, can participate effectively to promote personal and

common interests in response to public issues”. Patrick (2006:27) identified the following as universal participatory skills:

...interacting with other citizens to promote personal and common interests; monitoring public events and issues; deliberating and making decisions about public policy issues; influencing policy decisions on public issues; implementing policy decision on public issues; and, taking action to improve political and civic life locally, nationally, and globally.

These skills align well with those identified by Torney-Purta and Lopez (2006:7) who indicated that:

schools and other organisations foster civic engagement when they help students to do the following: working with others toward political goal; interpreting political information; participate in respectful discourse about social and political issues; learn about effective leadership in groups of peers, and how to mitigate the influence of negative experiences such as bullying; join other students and adults to address a community need; assess opportunities to solve community problems; express their views in media forms that are attractive and familiar to them.

They concluded that traditional citizenship education is well suited to developing some of the intellectual skills necessary for civic and political participation. The same, though, was not true for the participatory skills, particularly those addressing either actual participation in the political system or substantive policy issues, since such issues were likely to prove controversial and disquieting to the community (a finding supported by Niemi & Niemi, 2007). As a result, citizenship education rarely heeded the advice of those like Hunt and Metcalf (1968) and Engle and Ochoa (1988) “to recognise values formation as a central concern of Social Studies instruction” (Parker, 1996:124).

Although Menezes (2003:432) argued that, “citizenship education should...focus on students’ empowerment for assuming an active role in the (democratic) process

defining and expanding citizenship itself.” Torney-Purta and Lopez (2006:15) argued and reported that “there is hesitation about whether and how to incorporate enhanced opportunities for students’ voice and input in their schools and classrooms”. Also notable is that “because of the political nature of teaching and learning citizenship, teachers often are unsure of the boundaries around engaging students in political activities” (Torney-Purta & Lopez, 2006:17), a finding supported by Martin and Chiodo (2007).

In the Social Studies syllabus, the assumption regarding participation is that by developing a base of democratic knowledge, skills and values, one will become a more effective and participative citizen (Engle & Ochoa, 1988; Patrick, 1999). While the acquisition of knowledge can enhance awareness, awareness itself does not necessarily lead to effectiveness nor a more participative role in shaping Ghana’s destiny. To prepare students for active citizenship, it is imperative that the implementation of Social Studies be accompanied by appropriate educational practices and pedagogy that encourage participative skills and values (Print & Smith, 2000). This is validated by the IEA 28-nations study, which found schools that model democratic practice are most effective in promoting civic knowledge and engagement (Torney-Purta et al., 2001). The literature in the field has long argued the importance of participative, active learning about civics and citizenship by young people (Engle & Ochoa, 1988; Newmann, 1989; Osborne, 1991; Parker, 1991; Patrick & Hoge, 1991; Stanley, 1991; Hahn, 1996; Patrick, 1999, 2002). The premise driving this argument is that an active approach to learning by students will be reflected later in an active approach to participative citizenship as adults (Print & Smith, 2000).

The Curriculum Research and Development Division of Ghana defines Social Studies as “the study of the problems of society” (CRDD, 2007). The Curriculum Research and Development Division (CRDD, 2007) further explains that “the subject prepares the individual to fit into society by equipping him/her with knowledge about the culture and ways of life of their society, its problems, its values and its hopes for the future”. Sharing the same opinion, Banks (1990:3) asserts that:

Social Studies is that part of the elementary and High School curriculum which has primary responsibility for helping students to develop the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values needed to participate in the civic life of their local communities, the nation and the world.

Banks stressed that Social Studies has the sole aim of developing civic competences as its primary goal. Also, citizenship education according to Aggarwal (2002:237) “is the development of the ideas, beliefs, habits, behaviour and attitudes of the individual so that he may become a useful member of the society and contributes his share for the uplift of the society.” Banks and Aggarwal’s view of citizenship education is in line with what Quartey (1984) postulated Social Studies as a course of study that equips the youth with tools necessary in solving personal and community related problems. To them, the main emphasis of Social Studies as citizenship education is on developing the relevant knowledge, skills, attitudes and values that will enable learners to make reflective decisions and act on them to solve both personal and societal problems. This means that the main mission of this conceptual perspective is that Social Studies is to prepare students to be responsible, productive and concerned citizens with the ability to make informed and reasoned decisions for the public good as citizens of a culturally diverse democratic society in an interdependent world. This

implies Social Studies deals with solving the problems of man. This view is also supported by Engle & Ochoa (1988), Barr et al. (1977), Kissock (1981), Banks (1985), Quartey (1987), Blege (2001), and Eshun and Mensah (2013a). They all have the notion that the subject must equip the individual with civic competence that will enable an individual to live and to be lived with. In this direction their expectations are that the content and scope of the subject must be issue centred and problem solving. From the perspective of the traditions of Social Studies (Barr, Barth & Shermis, 1977), Social Studies in the Ghanaian context is largely taught as citizenship transmission and as a simplified social science.

Although, Social Studies is seen as citizenship education (NCSS, 2006) there is also the conceptual perspective which views the subject as global citizenship or global education, and multicultural education simply because we now live in a shrinking world. According to Merryfield and Wilson (2005:20):

multicultural education and global education had very different origins. Emerging from the civil rights movement in the 1960's, multicultural education was initiated by African Americans and others to bring about educational equity, social justice, and academic success for children of colour. As global education developed in the 1970s and 1980s, tensions developed between these fields as they competed for resources and the attention of the education community.

Rapoport (2009), asserted that:

the terms global citizenship education and education for global citizenship as well as other terms related to the concept of global citizenship are becoming more and more frequently used at scholarly conferences and in various educational discourses... However, one can rarely hear these terms in the classroom. There are reasons for this, both objective and subjective.

First, there is no consensus on the meaning of global citizenship. We cannot use the familiar definition derived from the definition of citizen, argued Noddings (2005) because global citizenship is not about allegiance to a global government that is nonexistent. McIntosh (2005:23) related the idea of the global citizen to “habits of mind, heart, body, and soul that have to do with working for and preserving a network of relationships and connections across lines of difference and distinctness, while keeping and deepening a sense of one's own identity and integrity”. Dunn (2002:10) referred to “a citizenry that knows and cares about contemporary affairs in the whole world”.

The absence of a mutually agreed upon definition of global citizenship, which spans from a vague sense of belonging to a global community to more specific ways of individual and collective involvement in global politics (Heater, 1997; Ibrahim, 2005), has enabled researchers and educators to use this term and related terms loosely. It is not much of a surprise that this relatively new concept has also generated a lot of criticism, much of which is related to its social and political aspects. The emerging global civil society that perpetuates global citizenship and “is supposed to give it a 'political' character” (Armstrong, 2006:349) faces several accusations itself: it is terminologically ambiguous, its supporters uncritically apply nation-state phenomena to global processes, and it undermines democracy by weakening the democratic institutions of nation-states. Armstrong (2006:355) argued that:

the supposedly "global" elements of global citizenship are much less universal and transcendental and thus, the claim that a meaningful global regime of citizenship is emerging...should be treated with caution.

Secondly, global citizenship education is usually conceptualised within the framework of international education, global education (Davis, Evans, & Reid, 2005), multicultural education (Gay, 1988; Sleeter & Grant 1988; Quashigah, 2001; Dunn, 2002; Bennett, 2003; Banks, 2004; Marri, 2005; Ming & Dukes, 2006), peace education (UNESCO, 1998; Oyebamiji, 2001; Smith & Fairman, 2005; Odejobi & Adesina, 2009), human rights education (Guadelli & Fernekes, 2004), moral education (Adesina, 2010), or economic education. Practitioners are very well aware that none of these approaches, except may be economic education, has secured a position in school curricula so far. Thus, global citizenship education, if taught as one of the topics within those frameworks, has become even more secondary.

Obviously, global citizenship education should be placed within the broader framework of citizenship education due to the similarity of rationale and the variability of models that the latter offers (Davis et al., 2005). Citizenship education is about civic knowledge, skills, and values. UNESCO resolution No. 39 affirms that the values of tolerance, universality, and mutual understanding are relevant to international organisations, states, and civil societies as well as individual citizens (Pigozzi, 2006). Global citizenship education is not nation citizenship education (Davies, 2006). It is the logical development of a citizenship that is required for all citizens in the 21st century. It should help students to develop cultural, national, and global identifications; it also significantly contributes to civic democratic development (Banks, 2004).



Although Social Studies viewed as global citizenship had its root from the USA, many educators outside that country understood this long ago (Holden, 2000; Engler & Hunt; 2004; Ebbeck, 2006; Ibrahim, 2005; Oxfam, 2006), while the attitudes of many US educators to global citizenship education can still be described as cautiously suspicious. The implication here is that teaching and learning about how to inculcate into students how to become competent, reflective and responsible citizens and the functions of democratic government or about decision-making cannot be only based on local or central paradigms. Davies (2006:6) contended that global education “implies a focus on many different, though overlapping levels from very local and immediate to the vast realities named with phrases such as 'world societies' and 'global village.’” Sheppard (2004:35) put it even more succinctly: "Global citizenship is a daily responsibility.”

Another controversy that haunts education for global citizenship is the fear that global citizenship education can undermine patriotism toward the states. In most cases, patriotism is conceptualised in its traditional meaning. This is particularly true in many countries where, as Myers (2006) argued, on the one hand, schooling disproportionately favours national identity over learning about the world and, on the other hand, teachers are accused of being unpatriotic when they allow critical discussion of government policy. However, the traditional meaning of patriotism is being challenged more and more often (Nussbaum, 1994; Apple, 2002; Branson, 2002; Merry, 2007). The idea of patriotism as a more inclusive construct, particularly in regard to multicultural and intercultural discourses, is becoming more acceptable. A useful definition of patriotism, noted Akhmad and Szpara (2005:10), “should not

hinge on the legal status in a polity but embrace citizens' allegiance to universal human values, democratic ideals, and the human rights and dignity of all people in the world.”

What happens in the classroom when practitioners teach about global citizenship? A research conducted on examining how individual teachers in Ontario schools prioritised global citizenship issues in their teaching in the context of other curricular demands, Schweisfurth (2006:49) concluded that the teachers had to and were able to “interpret the prescribed curriculum imaginatively” to justify their own aims in teaching about global citizenship. Myers (2006:389-390) explored two exemplary programmes that incorporated global and multicultural curricular perspectives. His research indicated that even in these selected programmes, “the concept of global citizenship, suggesting a commitment and responsibility to the global community based in human rights, is less coherent.” This is the result of the lack of attention to globalisation and related processes in Social Studies education. Myers (2006:390) further argued that “Social Studies curriculum makers should consider the ways that curriculum topics can address the local and global relationship as well as integrate current scholarship on globalisation.”

Schools play a key role in citizenship education and, therefore, are one of the critical providers of global citizenship education. Due to the schools' potential to be aligned with transnational efforts in promoting global civility (Reimers, 2006), the role of teachers can hardly be overstated. Nonetheless, a research demonstrates, teachers are mostly oblivious to the purposes, methods, and content of global citizenship

education. For example, out of over 700 teachers in England who rated education for global citizenship as important, very few were confident of their ability to teach it (Davies et al., 2005 in Yamashita, 2006). Overall, passive and in many cases sceptical attitudes to global citizenship and related concepts eventually has resulted in neglect of global citizenship education in many schools worldwide. The growing amount of comparative research, demonstrates that “the traditional notion of developing democratic understanding needs to be expanded to encompass attention to decision making, controversial issues, and civic action set in multicultural and global contexts” (Hahn, 2001:21). There is also the case where “education system at best approximates the goal of developing national citizens with some relativistic understanding and awareness of the rest of the world” (Myers, 2006:389).

Also, in the framework of citizenship education is multicultural education, yet Pattnaik (2003:205), “many people do not understand the true scope of multicultural education. It is important to reflect the diversity of society so that students are “living diversity” rather than “doing diversity.” Young children are not born with attitudes that cause them to discriminate against others. However, they quickly learn such attitudes as they watch and learn from what others do and say (Ramsey, 1982). For this reason Quashigah (2001), cited in Merryfield and Wilson (2005:37) writes that:

we need an appreciation of global issues which would lead to the realisation that the world has a common course and then we can talk about a common future. We have been emphasising this is America, this is Africa, instead of emphasising this is the world... the U.S. is rich and powerful and exploits resources so it has tons of garbage to be dumped elsewhere. Should that garbage be exported to West Africa?

In the framework of citizenship education, Quashigah (2001) uses multicultural perspective and asks for double consciousness that might lead to a common future.

Numerous definitions of multiculturalism and multicultural education have been proposed by scholars, researchers and organisations. According to Bennett (2003:14) “Multicultural Education is an approach to teaching and learning that is based upon democratic values and beliefs and that affirms cultural pluralism within culturally diverse societies in an interdependent world”. Gorski’s (2001:1) definition of multicultural education provided a strong foundation on which curriculum should be developed:

Multicultural education is a transformative movement in education that produces critically thinking, socially active members of society. It is not simply a change of curriculum or the addition of an activity. It is a movement that calls for new attitudes, new approaches, and a new dedication to laying the foundation for the transformation of society.

Banks (1999:1) suggested a parallel view:

Multicultural education is an idea, an educational reform movement, and a process whose major goal is to change the structure of educational institutions so that male and female students, exceptional students, and students who are members of diverse, racial, ethnic and cultural groups will have an equal chance to achieve academically in school.

Across these numerous definitions, the main similarities are: multicultural education is a process, and a transformative movement. Its content should be infused into entire curricula and school programmes in order to build educational equity and social justice in the name of citizenship education as we live in a cultural diverse society.

Maxim (2006) described cultural pluralism as how all the parts of society contribute to a country’s whole. Since schools represent community, importantly, schools must

reflect the diversity of society. “If children frequently observe ethnic conflict among different minority groups in their neighbourhoods, their behaviour in school may mirror that conflict” (Pattnaik, 2003:207). Schools can make a significant difference for respect for diversity. The key factor is to help children construct an understanding of different cultures, respect for differences, and at the same time, overcome racial and ethnic barriers.

Banks (1993:23) proposed that the goal of multicultural education is an education for freedom that should help students to develop the knowledge, attitudes, and skills to participate in a democratic and free society. He stated that “multicultural education promotes the freedom, abilities, and skills to cross ethnic and cultural boundaries to participants in other cultures and groups”.

Advocates of multicultural education generated approaches for how to accomplish multicultural education in practice. Sleeter and Grant 1988; Gay, 1988; Banks, 1993; and Bennett, 2003 are among the leaders in the field who have developed models for implementing multicultural education. For example, Banks (1993) identified four approaches to multicultural education, each increasingly more significant and comprehensive: teaching about contributions of culturally different groups and individuals, an additive approach in which multicultural lessons and units of study are supplements or appendages to existing curricula, a transformational approach in which the basic nature of curriculum and instruction change to reflect the perspective and experiences of diverse cultural, ethnic, racial, and social groups, and a decision-making and social action approach that teaches students how to clarify their ethnic

and cultural values and to engage in socio-political action for greater equality, freedom, and justice for everyone. Teaching culturally different students is more process-oriented than content oriented. Teaching about cultural pluralism emphasises materials development and curriculum design, teaching the culturally different gives priority to teacher education, staff development, and classroom instruction (Bennett, 2003).

Teachers play an important role for developing effective multicultural practices in children's lives, and they affect children's views, conceptions, and behaviours (Ming & Dukes, 2006). Young children's perspectives on diversity are influenced by the beliefs and behaviours of family members and teachers (Ramsey, 1987; Seefeldt, 1997). These people have significant power in guiding children's learning about cultural differences, either positively or negatively. Active intervention by teachers through all aspects of daily classroom life can change children's negative concepts about another group. A more global perspective involves influencing the environment in which children's daily classroom lives create an anti-bias culture in their classrooms, thus preparing children for a diverse society.

Also important are teachers' beliefs, values, and perspectives of the other cultural groups affect curricula and teaching practices (Garmon, 2004). As teachers examine and realise their biases and stereotypes, they begin to recognise how these biases influence their teaching and relationships with children who are culturally diverse. Ming and Dukes (2006) pursued the examination of beliefs and values as introspection. "During this time of self-reflection, teachers analyse their own feelings

toward those who are culturally different, determine how it relates to the dominant culture, and think about what frame of reference influences these feelings” (Ming & Dukes, 2006:44).

Sleeter and Grant (1988) generated five common approaches that can minimise the influences: (1) teaching culturally different students to fit into mainstream society; (2) human relations that emphasises diverse peoples living together harmoniously; (3) single group studies which concentrates on developing awareness, respect and acceptance of one group at a time; (4) focusing on prejudice reduction, providing equal opportunities and social justice for all groups, effects of inequitable power distribution on ethnic or cultural groups; and (5) multicultural and social reconstructionist for teaching students to become analytical and critical thinkers and social reformers who are committed to redistribution of power and other resources among diverse groups. Culturally responsive teaching strategies bring home and community culture into classroom practice. “Effective teachers use knowledge of their students’ culture and ethnicity as a framework for inquiry and they organise and implement instruction” (Banks et al., 2001:198). Those are the teachers who understand, accept, and adopt multicultural perspectives in the name of Social Studies. Knowledge of multicultural education in Social Studies is an invaluable cognitive experience of analysing various cultures in today's interdependent world (Faggella-Luby & Deshler, 2008). It increases capacity for intellectual open-mindedness and develop a global perspective about issues to effectively navigate a global landscape by encouraging an understanding of cultural differences (Davis, 2009; Salako, 2010). Equity in pedagogy exists when teachers modify their teaching

in ways that will facilitate the academic achievement of students from diverse racial, cultural and social-class groups (Banks, 2009). The development of skills required for all these call for the introduction of appropriate approaches of teaching Social Studies.

Another conceptual perspective about Social Studies is how morals are imparted to children. Moral education was introduced into the school system at the elementary stage in order to inculcate moral uprightness in small children so that by the time they grow up they would not become a menace to the nation (Adesina, 2010). According to Adesina, factors such as poor teaching methods, lackadaisical attitudes of the learners to learning because of social influences such as the attitude of the masses especially in regards to looking for money or wealth at all cost, corruption by law enforcement agents and politicians and the inconsistencies of government policies as regards to education militate against the achievement of the goals set for the subject.

The introduction of peace education to elementary school children is also a conceptual perspective which is likely to instil the values of peaceful co-existence in children. To this end, curriculum planners and educators wrote many curricula with the hope of including contents that will inculcate the values of peaceful co-existence and social integration into the learners. Social Studies is a good subject in this regard. The main purpose of its introduction into the country's educational system is to bring about good and socially competent citizens that would live cordially with the members of the society and contribute individually and collectively to the growth and development (Adesina, 2010).



Peace education in the name of Social Studies is defined by Oyebamiji (2001) as an excellent instrument for the promotion of peace among youth and adult members of any given society. It is the systematic acquisition of relevant peace knowledge in our environment and the world around us. Peace Education is essentially the type of education in which learners are taught how to develop sense of maturity in their activities or encounters with people and embrace the principles of cultural relativity and shun cultural ethnocentrism. The development of game spirit and political maturity are essential ingredients' in learning peace tenets. Atanda (2010) listed the effects of conflicts in the home, school, work places, larger communities and among nations as destruction of public properties, disobedience to constituted authorities (social disorder or anarchy), disturbance of social and economic activities and prolonged conflicts which may lead to tribal or civil war. This results from not imparting to children peace education. Peace Education is best introduced to the children if the type of education would achieve its goals. This view is supported by the assertion of Oyebamiji (2001:1) who wrote that:

The state of youth violence in our society has reached a stage of an urgent need for appropriate solution if we are to develop our nation. Education is a major agency in the socialisation of youths. As such when the younger generation tends to be more deviant, the indication is that something is wrong within the educational system. The present educational system has failed to serve as a means of transmitting the main ingredients of our culture to the younger generations. The need to make education socially relevant cannot be over-emphasised.

Since the youthful stage is the common stage where people get involved in crises and conflicts and it is the immediate level of development after childhood, introducing peace tenets to children before developing to the youth stage would likely be appropriate. Children tend to remember and think fast about what they hear, see and

experience. When the ideal in peace education are properly taught, students may likely retain what they learnt and use them in their latter endeavours.

Peace Education has been clamoured for its placement in the school curriculum (Oyebamiji, 2001). The objectives of Peace Education according to UNESCO (1981:132); in Odejobi and Adesina (2009) were summarised as:

Combining learning, training, information and reaction, international education should further the appropriate intellectual and emotional development of the individual. It should develop a sense of social responsibility and of solidarity with less privileged groups and should lead to observance of the principles of equality in everyday conduct. It should also help develop qualities, aptitudes, and abilities which enable the individual to acquire a critical understanding of problems at the national and the international level; to work in a group; to accept and participate in free discussion; and to base value-judgments and decisions on a national analysis of relevant facts and factors.

Also, Religious Studies has as one of its major aims, the teaching of religious values which would bring about ideal behaviours among learners with the hope of improving the future (NECO, 2011).

If valid objectives are to be drawn from the various definitions/conceptions given above, then each of them will have a different outline of content altogether. The confusion created by varying definitions and perceived objectives could hinder the teaching and attainments of the subject's goal. However, putting the various conceptions and explanations of Social Studies together, Dynneson and Gross (1999:13) provide a definition that can be used to support any Social Studies instructional programme. In their view, Social Studies can summarily be seen as:

an integration of broad field of learning, drawing upon the concepts and processes of the social sciences and related areas; it features problem-focused

inquiry, ethical decision making, and personal or civic action on issues vital to individuals and their society.

Their definition has two implications. The first is the material that is studied (the content of Social Studies). This includes information, ideas, skills, generalisations, concepts, principles, issues, and inquiry procedures drawn from the social sciences - history, geography, government, civics, political science, economics, sociology, and anthropology. Others are literature, music and the visual and performing arts, religion and archaeology. These fields serve as resources for the Social Studies curriculum which blends and integrates them as and when necessary to provide learners with worthwhile experiences. The second implication is the purpose of Social Studies, which is citizenship education.

By surveying the various definitions/conceptions, it is equally true to assert that in spite of the turmoil in Social Studies there is a general agreement among academics about what the essential goals and, especially, the overarching goal of Social Studies ought to be. Risinger (1997:223) has observed that “for all the arguments, convention speeches, and journal articles, it seems clear that the term citizenship education lies at the heart of Social Studies.” Likewise, the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) (2006) has long been a leading advocate in this area, linking citizenship education to the core mission of the Social Studies, as well as the leading scholars in Social Studies, have all identified citizenship education as the major and overarching goal of Social Studies. This view is also shared by CRDD (2007) and was, in fact, the basis for the introduction of Social Studies into the curriculum of Ghanaian basic school. This suggests that development of Social Studies must depend on a consensus

building of a definition which in its effect will enhance its contents, objectives and even the assessment tools to be used for the subject by its experts. On this, Jeromelik (1981) and Maxim (1983) hold the view that definition provides distinctiveness of scope, nature, focus and structure of a subject. This shows that consensus definition and conception of Social Studies will help to sharpen its focus and enhance its growth in Ghana and the continent of Africa. The conceptions of the various ideas can influence teachers in their classroom teaching and learning.

## **2.2 Teachers' Conception and its Influence on Classroom Activities**

Different Studies on conceptions about teaching and learning in other fields of study like the Sciences and the Social Sciences indicate that conception has much influence on teaching and learning. Hodson (1999:3) states that “when teachers are presented with a particular teaching/learning task, set within a distinctive educational context, a unique learning context is created”. This explains the teachers' distinctive personal framework of understanding. These confirm what Shiundu and Mohammed (1994) describe as the influence of unique traditions of the institutions that train the teachers on the framework of their conception about whatever subject they learn during their initial training.

According to Chandler (2005) factors that influence teachers' acceptance or rejection of an idea include perception of relevance and self-interest. Kyle (1999) adds that in many cases student-teachers are tailored to certain concepts and are expected simply to appropriateness as embodied in their teachers' mind set, how they are expected to think in their subject areas and the routines of activities that they are to observe and

how they are to behave. Again, Kyle (1999) asserts that the early period of modelling, guidance and scaffolding give way to a phase in which student-teachers assume the role of a teacher towards the subject they are to teach. This implies that the formal training of teacher-trainees must be taken seriously for them to form a better conception about the Social Studies that will help to realise the purpose of introducing the subject (positive attitudinal building) in the Ghanaian school curriculum.

Shiundu and Mohammed (1994) emphatically remark that it is all too often unfortunate but true that teachers teach the way they are taught. According to Shiundu and Mohammed (1994:6), “One fundamental problem of the existing preserves of Social Studies teacher training programmes in many countries is that they have very little or no demonstrable relevance for the functions and responsibilities which teachers are expected to perform”. This problem is reflected either in the makeup of the curriculum or in its deliberations. Akinlaye (2003:15) therefore clearly states, “It is ethically and professionally appropriate that teachers must understand what ‘teaching and learning’ process of Social Studies is all about”. He further explains that the tactics adopted by the teachers in going about in discharging their functions is greatly influenced by their perception of teaching Social Studies.

Brown (1992:3) asserts that “teachers’ perception about their subject greatly influences their teaching and does so negatively”. Some drawbacks as revealed by curriculum (syllabus) and instruction; teachers get confused about their course content and teachers apply inaccurate and inappropriate measurements of what is

taught and learned. Parker (1995) sharing the same view, asserts that Social Studies professionals who actually work with children in schools and implement the curriculum have the strongest possibilities of reforming the subject. Akinlaye (2002:4) asserts that “what teachers’ believe to be good instructional content to teach and appropriate methods to use in the classroom are greatly influenced by teachers’ perception of the subject”. This implies that teachers who are indoctrinated with a given concept will be difficult to be de-indoctrinated and this will go a long way to influence their teaching.

Studies conducted by Almarza (2001), Chiodo and Byford (2004), and Bekoe and Eshun (2013) also reveal that, it is the teacher who is the key to what Social Studies means to students, because teachers’ conception of the subject Social Studies, in turn affects the way they teach and transmit knowledge to students. A study by Quashigah, Eshun and Mensah (2013:84) concluded that the pedagogical content knowledge of Social Studies teachers do influence the way they assess their lessons. Chiodo and Byford’s (2004) study revealed that teachers’ attitudes towards Social Studies education have unique influence on the Social Studies curriculum. Similarly, the findings from other studies indicate that the decisions of what to teach our children under Social Studies education often shift and are dependent on the influence of the conception of the teacher about the subject (Evans, 2004; Todd, 2005; Bekoe & Eshun, 2013c). Akinlaye (2003) asserts that, all over the world, the value of instruction depends; to a large extent on the quality of professional training of teachers and the perceptions they hold about their subject areas. This implies that teachers hold the key to sound educational system of any nation and that the

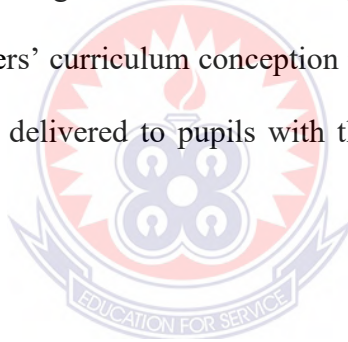
educational standard of the teachers, their quality, and competency and above all the cognition they have and form about a subject need to be taken into prominence.

With relevance of conceptions in general, studies of teachers' understanding of the subjects they teach have shown those conceptions affect the way teachers teach and assess (Sandretto, & Heath, 2002; Ertmer, 2005; Prosser, Martin, Trigwell, Ramsden, & Lueckenhausen, 2005). These implicit orientations to curriculum shape the topics teachers emphasise and the meaning teachers give to curriculum documents. Cheung and Wong (2002) have argued that teachers' conceptions of curriculum affect the content of classroom activities. Hence, this association may be a logical association to the teacher, but this blending of conceptions may have "more to do with naivety than reflective selection" (Olafson & Schraw, 2006:79). It seems important then to understand how teachers conceive of the material they are actually teaching for its relations to other classroom practices.

Empirical evidence exists in the teacher education literature on the influence of teacher education on teachers' values and beliefs. Shuck (1997:530) reported that teacher educators do not realise the power and the tenacity of pre-service teachers' beliefs and attitudes ... in a way does not sufficiently recognise, the influence of these beliefs on their learning. This shows that student teachers' beliefs and attitudes must be put to the fore in teaching and learning process during their training.

There is agreement in general education studies that teachers' belief greatly impacts their instructional decisions in the classroom (Shavelson & Stern, 1981; Tillema, 2000). As Borg (2003:81) suggests, "teachers are active, thinking decision-makers

who make instructional choices by drawing on complex practically-oriented, personalised, and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts, and beliefs”. Indeed, research has indicated that teachers possess a vast array of complex beliefs about pedagogical issues including beliefs about students and classroom practices (Shavelson & Stern, 1981; Berliner, 1987; Burns, 1992; Borg, 1998, 2003). These beliefs are said to form a structured set of principles and are derived from a teacher’s prior experiences, school practices, and a teacher’s individual personality (Borg, 2003). Furthermore, and as noted by Shavelson and Stern (1981), what teachers do in the classroom is said to be governed by what they believe and these beliefs often serve to act as a filter through which instructional judgments and decisions are made. This implies that teachers’ curriculum conception may probably influence the way an educational package is delivered to pupils with the aim of fulfilling individual and societal goals.



### **2.3 Teachers’ Curriculum Conception and Curriculum Implementation**

The conceptions teachers have about curriculum are part of teachers’ implicit beliefs about education (Thompson, 1992). The word curriculum derives from the Latin *currere* means ‘to run’ (Whitson, 2007). Most generally, curriculum has to do with the answers to such commonplace questions as what can and should be taught to whom, when, and how? (Eisner & Vallance, 1974). As Begg (2005:6) puts it, curriculum is “all planning for the classroom”. This implies that curriculum is to provide a template or design which enables learning to take place. A curriculum is more than a syllabus.



According to Whitson (2007), a syllabus describes the content of a programme and can be seen as one part of a curriculum. Most curricula are not developed from scratch and all operate within organisational and societal constraints. Since teacher-trainees use the curriculum in their teaching practice, it makes sense to investigate final year teacher-trainees' conception and sense of efficacy in implementing the Basic School Social Studies curriculum in Ghana.

According to Urevbu (1985:3), formal curriculum refers to:

what is laid down as the syllabus or that which is to be learnt by students. It is the officially selected body of knowledge which government, through the Ministry of Education or anybody offering education, wants students to learn. This curriculum meets specified objectives of educating identified groups of learners or students in their varying settings. In other words, formal curriculum is the selected written programmes or courses students go through.

Urevbu (1985:3) refers to informal curriculum as “the curriculum in use.” Teachers or instructors may not adhere to the presented formal curriculum but can include other aspects of knowledge derived from other sources. This additional material is called the “informal curriculum”. The actual curriculum refers to both written and unwritten syllabuses from which students encounter learning experiences (Tanner & Tanner 1975). Learning experiences can be selected from other sources rather than the prescribed, official and formal syllabuses. The actual curriculum is the total sum of what students learn and teachers teach from both formal and informal curricula.

Hidden curriculum according to Urevbu (1985:3) is the “non-academic but educationally significant component of schooling”. Tanner and Tanner (1995) prefer to call it the ‘collateral curriculum’. They argue that the word ‘hidden’ implies

deliberately concealing some learning experiences from students. Since this is not written or officially recognised, its influence on learning can manifest itself in students' attitudes and behaviour, both during and after completing their studies. What is acquired or learned from hidden curriculum is usually remembered longer than information learned at school. Tanner and Tanner (1975) recommend that positive learning from the hidden curriculum should be acknowledged and treated as an integral part of the planned and guided learning experiences. As already implied, the hidden or collateral curriculum is often responsible for the values students may exhibit later in life. This implies that the curriculum that is written and published, for example as course documentation, is the official or formal curriculum.

The aim of educational development is to ensure that the official curriculum is delivered as the functional curriculum and there is not a mismatch as development turns into implementation. The official curriculum can also be distinguished from the hidden, unofficial or counter curriculum. Paul Willis' work on the sociology of schooling for example describes how the informal pupil group comprising working class 'lads' has its own sub-culture and counter curriculum which involves 'mucking about', 'doing nothing' and 'having a laugh' (Willis, 1977:62-63). The hidden curriculum describes those aspects of the educational environment and student learning (such as values and expectations that students acquire as a result of going through an educational process) which are not formally or explicitly stated but which relate to the culture and ethos of an organisation. This highlights that the process of learning is as important as its product and as such pre-service teachers need to be aware of both the formal and informal factors which impact on learning.

Curriculum has been conceived differently. The humanistic, social reconstructionist, systemic, and academic curricula have their own way of affecting the curriculum (Young, 2011). The humanistic curriculum focuses on individualism. This curriculum is aimed to help students discover themselves as they move through school. Humanists conceptualise the curriculum as a spontaneous and exploratory tool. The function of the curriculum is to foster intrinsic rewards for learning. In the end, self-actualisation is the goal (McNeil, 2009).

With curriculum implementation the teacher is supposed to build relationship with the students and promote individual learning. These relationships and beliefs will inspire students to innovate, and help students confidently take risks in learning whereby failure is regarded as progress (Young, 2011). While this curriculum is still evident in teaching, especially in the primary grades, it is critiqued by social reconstructionists. They believe the curriculum should promote social change, and humanist focus on individuals. The social reconstructionist curriculum strive for social change, and education is a means to achieve it.

The social reconstructionists see curriculum as the means for social change. Education can help foster discontent for the way the world is, and provide an avenue for change. Teachers ascribing to this conception match the goals of students with the global goals. The teacher is supposed to help students to understand the socio-cultural reality, and be encouraged guide students to make a difference (Young, 2011).

Critical pedagogy exists in the reconstructionists' conception of curriculum. The curriculum is a means to control individuals, but social reconstructionists use it to liberate people. The emancipatory curriculum has been used to free the oppressed from oppressors (Friere, 1970). The systemic is quite the opposite of the social reconstructionist conceptualisation of the curriculum. The theme of the systemic curriculum is control. The No Child Left Behind Act (2001) of United States fits within this conception. Everyone should have equal access to an education, and everyone can and will learn.

This conceptualisation gave birth to the standards based-movement. They believe if curriculum standards are implemented with an accountability system in place, students have no choice but to learn. The curriculum is back loaded, and outcomes are particularly important in measuring the value of the curriculum. Therefore, "teaching to the test" is also a product of the systemic conception (McNeil, 2009).

Finally, the academic curriculum focuses on necessary knowledge needed to spring forward into the workforce. This conception acknowledges change, and seeks to form a foundation that can be used in various disciplines. Students should learn to ask questions, hypothesise, synthesise, execute scientific procedures, and apply their skills in new contexts. Bruner's (1960) structure of the disciplines fits nicely in this conceptualisation. Bruner asserts that learning methods for inquiry in a variety of disciplines will prepare students for an unknown future. Some subjects have universal value, and can be applied in many situations. Essentially, students learn how to learn, thereby preparing them for problems in the future not yet imagined.

This in fact has led to several approaches to curriculum; including child-centred, activity-centred, and creative curricula. These have emerged from the progressive movement (Ozman & Craver, 2008; Dunn, 2005). The underlying tenets of progressivism and its hybrids have implications for the attitudes and skills that students must develop to contribute to an increasingly complex society. Like progressives, idealists emphasise the mind over matter. They perceive people as thinking beings who read, ponder and write about the work of others for the purpose of improving the way they think as well as the quality of their ideas (Ozman & Craver, 2008).

Schraw and Olafson (2002) embedded beliefs about curriculum within three epistemological world views that included conceptions about pedagogy and assessment, as well as the roles of the teacher, student, and peers. In their taxonomy, academic knowledge and technological conceptions would be part of a realist world view, humanistic and cognitive-development conceptions would be part of a student-centred contextualist world view, while individualised humanistic and social reform conceptions would be part of the relativist world view. Likewise, Cheung (2000) suggested that teachers are likely to have mixtures or meta-orientations towards curriculum since clustering of beliefs is commonplace (e.g., humanist and social reform combine to create a transformational meta-orientation; academic, cognitive, and technological combine to create a traditionalist/transmission orientation; while cognitive processes and developmental combine to create an inquiry/transaction approach).

Defining what should be in the curriculum plans for the classroom requires answering the questions (1) who should determine what is taught?, and (2) what material should be taught? It would appear that there are a limited number of options available to curriculum developers in answering these questions. Who determines the curriculum can only be one or more of the following: (a) students' needs or wants, (b) teachers' knowledge and expertise, or (c) government's policies in response to society's problems or issues. The options for determining the substance of curriculum relates to either (a) important content, such as what make up citizenship education or (b) important processes, such as knowing how to learn. Many studies have explored how teachers conceive various subjects, including, Social Studies, Mathematics, English language, History etc. impact on curriculum implementation (Clark & Peterson, 1986; Thompson, 1992; Calderhead, 1996). Studies have shown that teachers develop a subject understanding that is "broad and deep, enabling them to facilitate the building of similar connections in the minds of others" (Calderhead, 1996:716). They also have shown that the way teachers understand their subject affects the way they teach and assess. A reason for looking at Social Studies curriculum is that most teachers are not just delivery mechanisms or conduits for curriculum; rather they are creators or makers and implementers of curriculum (Clandinin & Connelly, 1992).

In this study the term 'Social Studies conception' is used to capture all that a teacher thinks, believes, and prefers about the nature and purpose of the subject in an educational process and practice (Thompson, 1992) and is a useful term to capture responses to complex and difficult categories of experience as used in curriculum

(White, 1994). Other researchers (Eisner & Vallance, 1974; Cheung & Wong, 2002) use the term “orientation”, which is considered to be equivalent in meaning (Brown, 2008). Five major orientations to curriculum have been described: (1) curriculum is about the development of processes or skills, especially in the cognitive domain rather than just in life or social domains, (2) curriculum is about exploiting approaches to maximise outputs, (3) curriculum is about reforming or revolutionizing society in order to bring about greater justice and benefits for all, (4) curriculum is about maximizing the humanity of individuals by helping them develop their full potential, and (5) curriculum is about identifying and passing on valued academic knowledge and intellectual developments (Eisner & Vallance, 1974; Cheung, 2000). Cheung (2000) has argued that these orientations to curriculum (a) explain why teachers emphasise certain topics, (b) clarify the real meaning or intent of curriculum documents, and (c) influence both teaching profession and curriculum development. Inspection of curriculum practice is not guaranteed to expose teachers’ true orientation to curriculum as various contextual constraints may impose common curriculum practices on teachers with highly divergent views of curriculum (Cheung & Ng, 2000). Although teachers have interconnected conceptions of curriculum drawing on several orientations simultaneously, there appear to be patterns in teacher conception of curriculum (Cheung, 2000). Thompson (1992:132) defines a teacher’s conception (of mathematics) as:

teacher’s conscious or subconscious beliefs, concepts, meanings, rules, mental images, and preferences concerning the discipline of mathematics. Those beliefs, concepts, views, and preferences constitute the rudiments of a philosophy of mathematics, although for some teachers they may not be developed and articulated into a coherent philosophy.

Following Thompson's (1992) definition, it would be helpful to differentiate the meaning of various cognitive dimensions. From dictionaries of psychology (for example, Cardwell, 1999), it is found that an "image" is a mental picture or a metaphor or a simile; "rules" represent usual or customary course of thinking, action or behaviour; a "concept" is a general idea inferred from specific instances or occurrences. Several studies have been conducted on teachers' "knowledge," "belief," and "conception" (Elbaz, 1981, 1983; Pajares, 1992; Thompson, 1992). Elbaz (1981, 1983) is among the first who proposes the idea of teacher using "practical knowledge." He generates five categories of teachers' practical knowledge that include knowledge of "subject matter," "curriculum," "instruction," "self," and "milieu of schooling." Pajares (1992) has identified that "beliefs" are highly individual, deeply personal, and represent an individual's understanding of reality that directs thinking and behaviour and influences learning.

In short, both belief and conception are subjective, private, and personal understanding of an individual or a group. Whereas beliefs are strong evaluative and affective personal truths held by individuals (Nespor, 1987), conceptions are cognitive constructs. Teachers' conception represents part of teachers' mental contents or schemas that influence approaches and practice of teaching (Ernest, 1989).

Research studies (Thompson, 1992; Huang, Lin, Huang, Ma, & Han, 2002) conclude that teachers' conception of a subject or a curriculum would shape their perceived curriculum and therefore their implemented curriculum. This implies that teachers' conception is of high importance in the implementation process. It is therefore useful



to inquire into the characteristics of pre-service teachers' conception of Social Studies if we want to have a deep understanding of the implementation process of the Basic School Social Studies curriculum.

Indeed, the importance of the teacher in the successful implementation of curriculum reform has been revealed in studies both in the West (i.e. Nias, Southworth, & Campbell, 1992; Fullan, 2001) and the East (Lam, 1996; Ou, 2000; Adamson, Kwan, & Chan, 2000; Lee, 2002). Under the school-based curriculum development policy, the importance of teachers to the implementation of integrated programmes like Social Studies in schools is even more obvious. The importance of studying teachers' conception and curriculum implementation can be seen from Goodlad's (1979) five levels of curriculum, namely ideal, formal, perceived, implemented, and experiential curricula. The theories and principles about curriculum integration derived from literature and research studies could be seen as representing the "ideal curriculum." The "formal curriculum" of the initiative is developed or decided by local curriculum developers or policy-makers. Teachers' interpretation of the formal curriculum becomes their "perceived curriculum." The "implemented curriculum" represents the classroom implementation of curriculum integration. In reality, teachers' perceived and implemented curricula are usually affected by the "social context." Social context implies the social environment of teachers, including the tradition and culture of society, the expectation of parents and other stakeholders, the school context, and so on. Finally, students will go through the "experiential curriculum" as teachers deliver it. As Goodlad (1979) postulates, the implemented curriculum often differs in diverse ways from the ideal or formal curriculum. The perceived and implemented curricula

vary from the conception of persons (policy-makers or curriculum developers) who plan or devise a curriculum innovation. Teachers usually do not strictly adhere to a proposed change but implement their own version of a curriculum with their own interpretation or conception.

In general, studies of teachers' understanding of the subjects they teach have shown those conceptions affect the way teachers teach and assess (Ertmer, 2005; Kane, Sandretto, & Heath, 2002; Prosser, Martin, Trigwell, Ramsden, & Lueckenhausen, 2005). These implicit orientations to curriculum shape the topics teachers emphasise and the meaning teachers give to curriculum documents. For example, in Social Studies, different major conceptions of the subject (i.e., multidisciplinary, traditional or discrete subjects understanding versus problem-solving oriented and trans-disciplinary understanding) are claimed to be major disagreement. With subject like mathematics according to Thompson (1992:133) different major conceptions of the subject (i.e., relational understanding versus instrumental understanding) are claimed to be "at the root of disagreements about what constitutes 'sound' approaches to the teaching of the subject and what constitutes 'sound' student assessment practices." Cheung and Wong (2002) have argued that teachers' conceptions of curriculum affect the content of curriculum implementation. In contrast, Olafson and Schraw (2006) found that the practices of the teachers they studied were not strongly aligned with their dominant world views, which they exemplified with the case of one teacher who strongly supported a student-centred contextualist position (i.e., humanistic) but who also made robust use of a scripted programme associated with a realist position (i.e., academic knowledge). Thus, it may be that humanistic teachers who believe

curriculum is predominantly about nurturing children may well believe that developing their cognitive skills and academic knowledge is a fundamental component of such care. Hence, this association may be a logical association to the teacher, but this blending of conceptions may have “more to do with naivety than reflective selection” (Olafson & Schraw, 2006:79). It seems important then to understand how teachers conceive of the material they are actually teaching for its relations to other classroom practices.

There are also given impact of school level on conceptions. With this indications (Floden & Meniketti, 2005; Krauss, Brunner, Kunter, Baumert, Neubrand, & Blum, 2008) stressed that greater subject expertise or content knowledge (e.g., in-depth training at the college or university level) leads to more effective pedagogical content knowledge and student learning. Hence, it seems reasonable to think that basic school teachers, who are teaching many subjects, in contrast to secondary teachers, who are normally teaching one subject area based on advanced undergraduate training in the subject, would have different levels of content knowledge. Hence, it is likely that greater levels of subject knowledge would result in secondary teachers placing a greater emphasis on academic conceptions of curriculum which in its effect impacts on curriculum implementation.

It is important that a classroom practitioner knows what is involved in implementing the prescribed curriculum. Curriculum implementation entails putting into practice the officially prescribed courses of study, syllabuses and subjects (Urevbu, 1985). The process involves helping the learner acquire knowledge or experience. It is

important to note that curriculum implementation cannot take place without the learner. The learner is therefore the central figure in the curriculum implementation process. Implementation takes place as the learner acquires the planned or intended experiences, knowledge, skills, ideas and attitudes that are aimed at enabling the same learner to function effectively in a society (University of Zimbabwe, 1995:8). Viewed from this perspective, curriculum implementation also refers to the stage when the curriculum itself, as an educational programme, is put into effect. Putting a curriculum into operation requires an implementing agent. Stenhouse (1979:4) identifies the teacher as the agent in the curriculum implementation process. She argues that implementation is the manner in which the teacher selects and mixes the various aspects of knowledge contained in a curriculum document or syllabus. Implementation takes place when the teacher-constructed syllabus, the teacher's personality, the teaching materials and the teaching environment interact with the learner (University of Zimbabwe, 1995:9). Curriculum implementation therefore refers to how the planned or officially designed course of study is translated by the teacher into schemes of work and lessons to be delivered to students.

If one aims at quality practice one cannot wish that practitioners take a curriculum proposal literally, but should work towards a one-to-one translation of the curriculum proposal into practice. Curriculum practitioners need to apply it to the local practice as true as possible to the original intentions, since knowledge in general - preliminary, hypothetical, incomplete, more or less de-contextualised and worth of being scrutinised and developed. Rather, one must wish that teachers take the specific circumstances of their locality and of their constituencies into account in order to

produce and evaluate a local version of the curriculum which is adapted to what is productive and feasible under these specific circumstances. Stenhouse (1975:26) states that:

The mistake is to see the classroom as a place to apply laboratory findings rather than as a place to refute or confirm them. Curriculum workers need to share the psychologists' curiosity about the process of learning rather than to be dominated by their conclusions.

Thus, the main actors of implementation are the practitioners themselves, because they are responsible for the educational process and they cannot pass on this responsibility to external agencies (Stenhouse, 1985:57). External agencies and persons, such as researchers, curriculum developers, in-service trainers may support and stimulate the development of practice; decisions about initiating development and the control over its direction are the realm of practitioners' professional judgment (Stenhouse, 1985:104). Curriculum development is not just the production of written goals and materials before classroom practice but, at the end, concrete interaction in the classroom between learners and teachers aiming to develop situations with high learning potential.

Factors that influence curriculum implementation are: (1) the teacher; (2) the learners; (3) resource materials and facilities; (4) interest groups; (5) the school environment; (6) culture and ideology; and (7) instructional supervision (Whitaker 1979). Whitaker (1979) asserts that teachers view their role in curriculum implementation as an autonomous one. They select and decide what to teach from the prescribed syllabus or curriculum. The curriculum implementation module of University of Zimbabwe, (1995:28) states that: “since implementation takes place through the interaction of the

learner and the planned learning opportunities, the role and influence of the teacher in the process is indisputable”. This implies that teachers are pivotal in the curriculum implementation process, but what is their role in the curriculum planning process?” If the teacher is to be able to translate curriculum intentions into reality, it is imperative that the teacher understand the curriculum document or syllabus well in order to implement it effectively. If the curriculum is what teachers and students create together, as Wolfson (1997) states, the teacher must play a more significant role in designing the curriculum. Teachers must be involved in curriculum planning and development so that they can implement and modify the curriculum for the benefit of their learners. In educational practice, these factors interact with each other and generate influences that cannot be attributed to one factor or another. This implies it should be viewed as a whole.

For Stenhouse, (1985) quality curriculum implementation necessitates curriculum research and evaluation as well as teacher development in the process of implementation and under practitioners' participation. Implementation must attend to specific local conditions and to process experiences of the persons involved in the process of implementation (Schön, 1987). This really shows that there is the need for curriculum to be evaluated.

McNeil (1977:134) states that “curriculum evaluation is an attempt to throw light on two questions: Do planned learning opportunities, programmes, courses and activities as developed and organised actually produce desired results? How can the curriculum offerings best be improved?” Ornstein and Hunkins (1998:320) define curriculum

evaluation as “a process or cluster of processes that people perform in order to gather data that will enable them to decide whether to accept, change, or eliminate something - the curriculum in general or an educational textbook in particular”. Worthen and Sanders (1987:22-23) define curriculum evaluation as “the formal determination of the quality, effectiveness, or value of a programme, product, project, process, objective, or curriculum”. Gay (1985) on his part argues that the aim of curriculum evaluation is to identify its weaknesses and strengths as well as problems encountered in implementation; to improve the curriculum development process; to determine the effectiveness of the curriculum and the returns on finance allocated. According to Gatawa (1990:50), the term curriculum evaluation has three major meanings: (1) The process of describing and judging an educational programme or subject; (2) The process of comparing a student’s performance with behaviourally stated objectives; and (3) The process of defining, obtaining and using relevant information for decision-making purposes. There is the need to understand that each of these definitions does not exist in isolation from the others, although each can be an activity on its own.

The first activity involves the collection of descriptive and judgemental information for the purpose of establishing whether an educational programme or project is doing what it is expected to do. The evaluator pronounces judgement at the end of the exercise. The second activity involves comparing the performance of one or more students with set standards. Such an evaluation determines the extent to which the objectives of a learning activity are being realised. This is the kind of evaluation teachers do on a daily basis. The third activity is concerned with the identification of

deficiencies in an educational programme or syllabus for the purpose of effecting revision and improvement (Gatawa, 1990). Urevbu (1985) advised that curriculum evaluation exercises must usually combine these three activities. Data is collected for passing judgement, to identify deficiencies in programmes and to analyse programmes in order to determine alternatives or find appropriate interventions.

This implies that curriculum evaluation is the process of collecting data on a programme to determine its value or worth with the aim of deciding whether to adopt, reject, or revise the programme. Programmes are evaluated to answer questions and concerns of various parties. The public wants to know whether the curriculum implemented has achieved its aims and objectives; teachers want to know whether what they are doing in the classroom is effective; and the developer or planner wants to know how to improve the curriculum product.

With regard to how curriculum evaluation functions, Urevbu (1985:64-70) has identified some to be: (1) informing decision-makers on the state of affairs of certain curriculum programmes or syllabuses, and (2) enabling teachers to evaluate themselves. With respect to the first function, Partlett and Hamilton, in Urevbu (1985:64), argue that “the principal purpose of evaluation is to contribute to decision making”. In this circumstances it implies, curriculum evaluations are conducted in order to correct deficiencies, make improvements and establish new priorities. This shows for meaningful decisions to be made, they must be supported by evidence from evaluation exercises. This puts, the teacher, at the centre of the evaluation exercise. The advantage of self-evaluation is that it allows you to change the curriculum or



instructional strategies if evaluations show that they could be more effective (Urevbu, 1985).

If we are to make adjustments in the future we must know why we are changing and the direction in which change should proceed (Gatawa, 1990). This emphasises the fact that evaluation is not something which takes place after a decision has been made. Rather, it is the basis for proposing change and its value lies in its ability to help clarify curriculum issues and to enable teachers, as well as schools and systems, to make informed decisions. Given the need, why is it then that teachers may not become as involved in evaluation as we might like? Hunkins (1980:297) suggests that it might be because the teacher has to be: “the doer, the person who reflects on his own behaviour during the planning and implementation phases; the observer of the students and the resource used during the implementation; the judge, who receives and interprets the data collected; and the actor who acts upon and makes informed decisions based upon the data collected.” Expressed this way it does appear that this task may simply be too onerous when forced to compete against all other activities in which teachers must engage. Seiffert (1986:37) expands on this point by noting that:

there are limitations to the amount and nature of the evaluative role that a teacher may take. First, a teacher's life is a busy one, and time constraints will limit the amount of effort that most teachers may put into evaluation. Second, because a teacher is a teacher, and thus, a significant person in the learning process, his / her roles as evaluator will be limited. It is possible to be too closely involved in a situation, politically and emotionally, to ask questions that might challenge one's own interests.

The problem cannot be ignored; however, as it is only through the processes of marshalling information and mounting arguments that interested individuals are able to participate in critical debate about curriculum matters and issues. What can be

done? The solution would seem to share the tasks. In this way, co-operative, group efforts can spread the load and reduce the pressure on individual teachers (Stake, 2004). A classroom is a very complex place and it is impossible to evaluate everything. Even with the best intentions, two or more people evaluating a lesson may see different things. The task is to enable people to look through the same eyes. We need to be able to agree on what is to be observed, when, by whom and for what purpose. We then need to be able to discuss our findings in such a way that individuals do not feel threatened, so that positive and constructive evaluation can be made (Gatawa, 1990).

Unless structures are established to facilitate interaction and free-flowing discussions throughout the evaluation exercise: there is a danger that the benefits of evaluation will be eroded by unresolved conflict (Stake, 2004). The implication is that there is no simple way of ensuring that such agreement will be reached. Several experts have proposed different models describing how and what should be involved in evaluating a curriculum. Stake, (2004:36) asserts that:

Models are useful because they help you define the parameters of an evaluation, what concepts to study and the procedures to be used to extract important data. Numerous evaluation models have been proposed but three models are discussed here. The scope and focus of evaluation generally, and of curriculum evaluation in particular, has changed markedly over recent times. With the move towards school-based curriculum development attention has shifted away from measurement and testing alone. More emphasis is now being placed upon a growing number of facets of curriculum development, reflecting the need to collect information and make judgements about all aspects of curriculum activities from planning to implementation.

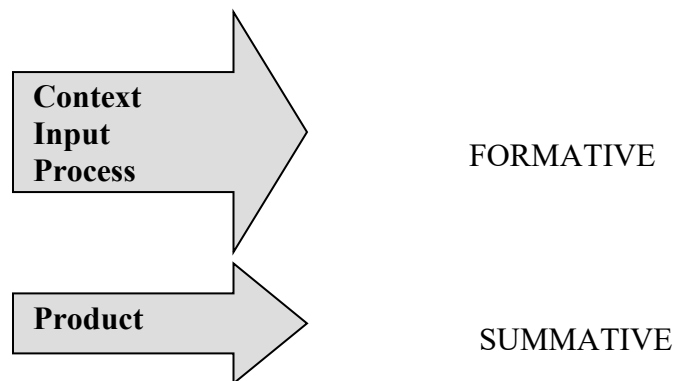
There does exist, however, a range of curriculum evaluation models, which can provide a useful structure for teachers wishing to make more effective their role as

curriculum implementers and act as evaluators. The Stufflebeam CIPP model of 1971, the Stake's Countenance model of 1967 and the Standards-Based and Responsive Evaluation model of 2004 proposed by Stake are discussed out of other models like the Eisner's Connoisseurship Model (1979), and the Davis' Process Model (1981). Stake's models will be discussed as theories underpinning the research. Daniel L. Stufflebeam (1971), chaired the Phi Delta Kappa National Study Committee on Evaluation, and introduced a widely cited model of evaluation known as the CIPP (Context, Input, Process and Product) model (Gatawa, 1990). The approach when applied to education aims to determine if a particular educational effort has resulted in a positive change in school, college, university or training organisation. A major aspect of the Stufflebeam's model is centred on decision making or an act of making up one's mind about the programme introduced. According to Stufflebeam (1971), for evaluations to be done correctly and aid in the decision making process, curriculum evaluators have to:

- first delineate what is to be evaluated and determine what information that has to be collected (eg. how effective has the Social Studies programme in enhancing the problem solving skills of children in the JHS);
- second is to obtain or collect the information using selected techniques and methods (eg. observe, interview teachers, collect test scores of students); and
- third is to provide or make available the information (in the form of tables, graphs) to interested parties.

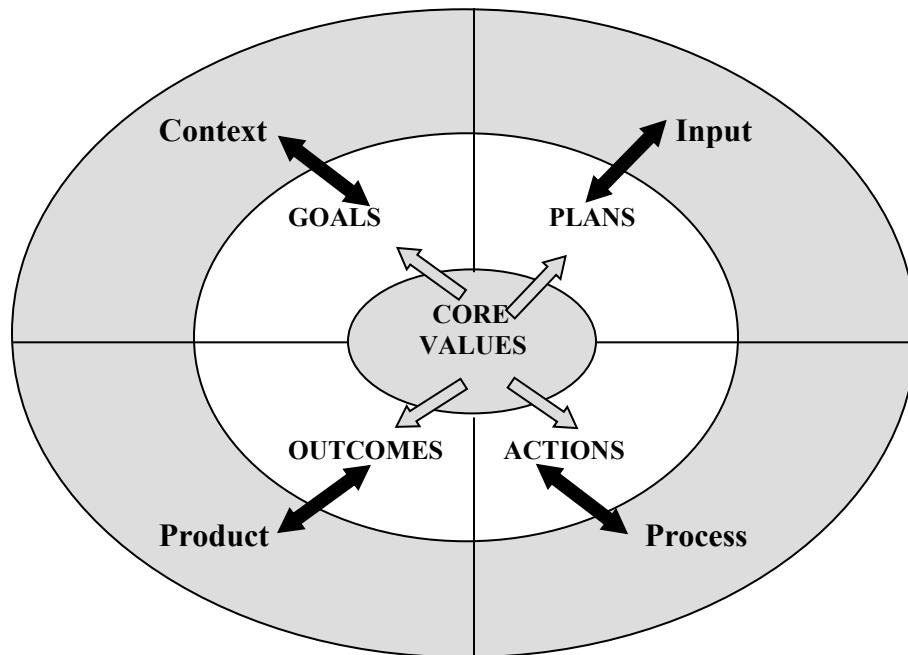
To decide whether to maintain, modify or eliminate the curriculum or programme, information is obtained by conducting the following 4 types of evaluation: context,

input, process and product. Stufflebeam's model of evaluation relies on both formative and summative evaluation to determine the overall effectiveness of a curriculum programme and that evaluation is required at all levels of the programme implemented (Gatawa, 1990). This is indicated below:



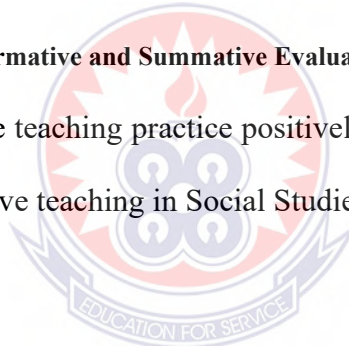
**Figure 2.1 Formative and Summative Evaluation in the CIPP model.**

According to Gatawa (1990), the formative and summative evaluation in the CIPP Model means context evaluation (what needs to be done and in what context?); input evaluation; (how should it be done?); process evaluation (is it being done?); and product evaluation (did it succeed?). This is further indicated below:



**Figure 2.2 Formative and Summative Evaluation in the CIPP model**

Conceptions may shape teaching practice positively or negatively (Buchmann, 1986), so there must be effective teaching in Social Studies.



#### **2.4 Effective Teaching of Social Studies**

In the teaching and learning of Social Studies as a subject, Schmidt (2007) suggested three aspects of instruction - content, learning and outcomes - that need to be reconnected with the fundamental humanity of this discipline. This means that aside content, teacher trainees need to learn methodology before going on practice. This indicates that techniques of teaching and assessment need to be taken seriously to reflect the subject objective of building positive attitudes. This can be acquired through observation, initiation and practice.

This notwithstanding, according to Eshun and Mensah (2013b:194) “discrepancies exist between what teachers said they assessed and what they actually assessed in Social Studies”. A research conducted by Eshun and Mensah (2013b) revealed that test items addressed in the end of term examination in Social Studies were mainly those measuring cognitive outcomes. Within the cognitive domain, the only levels which were covered are knowledge or recall and a little bit of comprehension. More objective test questions were used than the essay type of questions. The authors concluded that these results are a clear indication that the way students are tested in the Social Studies end of term examination is contrary to the main goals and objectives of the subject which is to develop a reflective, concerned, responsible and participatory citizen in the civic life of individuals in a country. The Curriculum Research and Development Division of Ghana (CRDD, 2007) asserts that Social Studies prepares the individual to fit into society by equipping him/her with knowledge about the culture and ways of life of their society, its problems, its values and its hopes for the future. This task calls for effective curriculum implementers. Eshun, Bordoh, Bassaw and Mensah (2014:46) assert that “effective formative assessor requires someone who has the necessary depth of content knowledge of the subject s/he is teaching”. To them, lesson delivery is seen to be a two way affair only if teachers share achievable success criteria with student in lesson presentation; using relevant activities from the beginning of the lesson to the end. This suggests that achieving this lofty goal of Social Studies to a large extent depends on how well the teacher handles the subject. Thus, the subject teacher must be trained Social Studies and must be able to develop teaching and learning methods that will lead to the

effective attainment of the subject's goal, is development of positive attitudes of students.

Teaching, according to Borich (2004), is a complex and difficult task that demands extraordinary abilities. According to Kyriacou (1995), effective teaching is essentially concerned with how best to bring about the desired pupil learning by some educational activities. He further asserts that the term effective teaching also derives from psychological perspective on thinking about teaching, where the implicit emphasis is on identifying observable behaviour in the classroom which can be linked with an influence on observable and measurable product variables in line with the general psychological perspective regarding how best to explore human behaviour. In the view of Parkay and Stanford (2001), effective teachers use a repertoire of teaching models and assessment strategies, depending upon their situations and the goals and objectives they wish to attain. This goes to say that an effective teacher plans his or her lessons with some objectives to achieve at the end of the lesson in order to instil in the students the desirable knowledge, attitudes, values and skills. To inculcate the right skills, values, knowledge, and attitudes in students to see Social Studies as a problem-solving activity, there is the need for effective teaching in all the phases of teacher education. Klu (1997) posits that teacher education is in three phases which are pre-service, induction and in-service all of which must be seriously executed to enable the teacher to be abreast with the demands of his job. Duodu (2002) also postulates that effective teacher education depends on the quality of instruction given in training institutions and the induction given to them at their new stations. This implies that imbuing of appropriate skills should be given priority in pre-service

preparation and in-service training as a support for the transition into full professional teacher status and survival of a novice teacher.

The inculcation of the right attitude, values and skills in learners, in the view of Fageyimba (2002), depends on the selection of content, teaching and assessment techniques, which the ideal Social Studies teacher must be competent enough to possess. This however, according to Bekoe, Eshun and Bordoh (2013) due to hasty nature in formulating formative assessment and scoring, tutors rather laid emphasis on cognitive domain to the neglect of affective and psychomotor domains which are also of paramount importance. This implies teaching and learning has not taken place until the learner has shown observable evidence of change in attitude. Making good use of formative strategies in assessing students helps them to examine their strength and weakness and this result in improving teaching practice (Eshun et al., 2014). This suggests that there is the need for effective teaching and learning of students to imbue the affective skills for them to do right things and to be problem solvers.

Affective learning according to Plutchik (1982) is the outcome or the feeling or tone that is expressed by such term as attitude, beliefs, values, appreciation or interest. To him, these are concepts that many teachers are not likely to know that they can be taught. They therefore pay little attention to its pedagogy. Sharing the same opinion, Meredith, Forthner and Mullins (1997) assert that affective teaching and learning is often neglected because it is a phenomenon that is poorly understood. The implication here is that students are always taught facts and these facts are memorised for examination purposes.



According to Rosenfield (1988), emotions have an important connection to memory; emotions help to store information and also trigger its recall. I wish to argue further that theoretical concept will become part of the individual's frame of reference only after he has experienced meaningfully at an emotional level. Reflection plays an important role in this process by providing a bridge, as it were, between experience and theoretical conceptualisation. In addition, with teacher-directed approaches using structured lesson or lecture formats and teacher-initiated discussion, learning takes place mainly at an intellectual level. The students remain more or less passive recipients of information that does not require them to examine their own emotional responses to the subject matter. They can thus remain personally unaware of the effects of their own responses of the subject matter on themselves or on other people, and the intensity of such responses will be very low.

The way Social Studies is taught needs to get a makeover. So many Social Studies teachers only teach by lecturing and expect rote memorisation from their students. This happens often because of the "overwhelming amount of material contained in a typical state Social Studies curriculum framework" (Vogler & Virtue, 2007: 55). The teachers have so much information they are required to cover that they "have trouble getting beyond the "just the facts" content coverage and into higher-level, critical thinking, especially because of the limited class time available" (Vogler & Virtue, 2007: 55).

One main reason teachers have to cover so much information is because of high stakes testing. Researchers have found that "teachers under the pressure of high

stakes testing tend to increase their dependency on teacher-centred instructional practices (e.g. lecture) and the superficial coverage of content driven textbooks” (Vogler & Virtue, 2007:56). High stakes testing has caused teachers to move away from student-centred approaches “such as discussion, role-play, research papers, and cooperative learning” because they need to learn “just the facts” because that is what the tests cover (Vogler & Virtue, 2007:55).

What is disturbing about these facts is that research has shown that students learn more from student centred approaches. Thus, educators propose that teachers must use learner-centred pedagogies and techniques like debate, panel discussion, simulation, drama and role-play, and oral reports to develop positive skills and values in students (CRDD, 2007; 2010). The information becomes more meaningful to them; therefore, they retain it for longer periods of time. “Brain research has found that the brain searches for patterns and connections as its way of building meaning, if students are not actively engaged in their learning, then they are unable to make the connections necessary to make learning meaningful” (Cuthrell & Yates, 2007:22). Cuthrell and Yates (2007) found that Social Studies content should be in-depth with lessons and activities. The type of lessons an educator teaches is based on his/her own personal philosophy of teaching and learning. Each teacher should possess their own philosophy which “provides guidance and direction in choosing objectives, learning activities, and assessment procedures” (Ediger, 2007:18). Educators who have an active learning philosophy are the ones who believe role-playing is a useful and effective teaching method.

Role-playing exercises come in many forms and educators should not be reluctant to experiment with their style and structure (McDaniel, 2000:357). According to McDaniel (2000:357-360),

there are four basic elements that are essential for the success of any role-playing activity. The first element is that the activity builds on knowledge the students already possess about a particular historical context. A teacher cannot expect students to role-play about something they have no prior knowledge of. The second element is to design the roles yourself to maximise student involvement and student conflict. Having conflicting perspectives is a must. The third element is to set up a specific situation. Do not let the students go without giving them a focal point for debate. The last element is the instructor's limited involvement and willingness to be flexible. The instructor needs to guide the students along, but not overbear the conversation and let the students take their own path to understanding.

By following these four basic elements, any educator can have a successful role-playing activity. Role-playing activities help introduce student to “real-world” situations (Oberle, 2004:199). In his conclusion, Oberle, found that role-playing is an effective teaching method and should be used to help actively engage students in their learning.

Morris (2003) wrote about a type of role-playing for history classes that is also effective. Morris says when students act out history, their act engage the subject matter. The rest of his article gives suggestions for how to create Social Studies lessons using drama or in other words role-playing. In order to come up with a good role-playing lesson, the teacher must have first read extensively on the subject being covered and then “summarise the information and convert the material into a meaningful story with a setting, characters, and conflict” (Morris, 2003:44). The next step is for the teacher to convert the summary of the lesson into objectives and put

them up in the form of questions somewhere in the classroom that is highly visible to the students to enable the students to see what they should be learning from the lesson (Morris, 2003:45). Morris's idea for the actual lesson is to have the students divided into groups and have them go around to different stations where they participate in something from the time period they are studying. An example would be to have one station with where they listen to music of the time period and learn a dance. Another station would be a meeting of farmers talking about their crops and how they get them to grow. They get to learn about the culture as well as the economy within the time period. Morris (2003:47) states:

because they have learned both background knowledge and conceptual tools by acting out, all students can experience success. For the assessment...the task can seem daunting, but the students are equipped to handle it because the material has become part of them.

Another type of role-playing activity is mock trial and moot court. Ringel (2004:459) states, "moot court is an extremely pedagogical tool which can be used for more than learning about the law or the judicial process; it has been used in a variety of disciplines including political science, media, history, sociology, etc.," Ringel (2004:460) states students can benefit from moot court in many ways; here are a few:

they gain self-confidence; they learn about the law and the judicial process; they improve their critical/analytical thinking skills and improve legal research/writing skills; and they gain a greater sense of empathy for how the law treats individuals. By role-playing, the students get a real feel for what a court room is actually like.

This idea is supported by Schaap (2005:46) that "role-playing is more likely to promote active learning amongst undergraduate students than a traditional university lecture." Schaap asserts that by using role-playing technique students have a high

level of energy and excitement, they are encouraged to express ideas and they are able to get immediate feedback on ideas. Chan (2012) mentioned that role-play makes the classroom more dynamic through various verbal and non-verbal acts of the students in addition to their cognitive process that is required to understand, interpret and analyse the meanings of the role play. Riera, Cibanal and Mora (2010) noted that learning with role-playing enables students to gain confidence while reduces their anxiety, furthermore role-playing encourages creativity, sharpens one's perception and enables the participants to understand group dynamics, personal freedom and improve and empower their communication skills (Manzoor, Mukhtar & Hashmi, 2011). According to Cherif, Verma and Somervill (1998), role-playing activities can be divided into four stages: first, the preparation and explanation of the activity by the course instructor, second, student preparation of the activity, third, performing the role-play and fourth, the debriefing or discussion after the role-play activity.

Role-playing is definitely effective, but like any one teaching method, should not be used too often. The key to being an effective teacher is to use a variety of teaching techniques. Traditional teaching technique such as lecturing do not help students make connection or feel empathy towards the material like role-playing does, but is necessary at times. For some material there is no other way to teach it than to lecture.

The key to not making lectures so mundane and boring is to add activities and projects in between the lectures. Marcus (2007:105) suggests:

taking students to museums, historic sites and memorials to enhance and build on the material taught. The artifacts they display, narratives they tell, and re-creations of the past they exhibit potentially engage students with content in ways unavailable in a classroom setting or by reading a textbook.

Going to places like this help students develop historical empathy by allowing them to experience history and make personal connections to people in the past.

Going to museums, historic sites and memorials helps students make connections and feel empathy just like role-playing does. This technique is a nice alternative to role-playing and produces similar outcomes.

Another teaching technique that can produce a similar outcome as role-playing is having students write narratives. Once a teacher is done lecturing on a topic, each student could be assigned to pretend to be a person in that time period and write a story about that person, including, how they feel, what they are doing and what their life is like in general (Harris, 2007:111). According to Harris (2007:111):

stories resonate with life experiences and remind people of how they fit into their culture and connect to others' culture. By writing stories, students get to use their own life experiences and compare and contrast them to a person of the past. Storytelling enables them to connect to the material and feel empathy to the person living in that time period.

Writing narratives is often done in English classes, but should be done more in Social Studies classes as well. Akmal and Ayre-Svingen (2002:272) said:

allowing students to construct a biographical narrative of figures of interest to them enables them to make sense of their biographical subjects' lives and connects their lives to those who went before them. Writing narratives in Social Studies classes has been tested and proved effective at helping students learn about historical figures in a challenging and enjoyable way.

Discussion is another teaching technique that can be effective because they can be challenging, promote learning and encourage tolerance. It is well reported that gaining student attention and engagement during class is very challenging. The primary method to bring about active learning is discussion, according to Svinicki

and McKeachie (2011). But the purpose of discussion is not just to have students discuss; the purpose of discussion is to provide practice and feedback for the kinds of thinking that are the goal of the course. Social Studies teachers are charged with giving students an understanding of what democracy entails, and accepting other ideas and opinions different than the majority is a key aspect of democracy (McMurray, 2007:49). McMurray (2007:49) states “meaningful discussion should be promoted in a manner to ensure that learning is occurring, beliefs are substantiated by evidence, and minority opinions are protected”. Discussions can make learning meaningful like role-playing does if they are done correctly.

Just as no one would expect to be able to watch someone perform a complicated dance and then be able to stand up and emulate it themselves, learning to think and work within the parameters of a discipline is more complicated than generally recognised. Students can hone their disciplinary skills by actively participating in structured activities where they can practice aspects of critical thinking with their peers, and gauge their own proficiency (Shopkow, Diaz, Middendorf, & Pace, 2012). Discussion can motivate students, especially when the activity involves authentic learning - that is, real world and messy - allowing students to collaborate, reflect on, and synthesise their learning. When planning the structure for a discussion look for one that will hold students accountable to their peers, not just the instructor, in a public way (Bass & Elmendorf, 2011).

Cooperative learning has been found to be an effective strategy for Social Studies classes. Several studies have linked cooperative learning to improved student

achievement across grade levels and subject areas (Edvantia, 2007:90). Several of the methods mentioned earlier are types of cooperative learning activities. Role-playing itself can be a cooperative learning activity.

Critical thinking is the most important skill for problem solving, inquiry and discovery in Social Studies. It is the systematic approach of skilfully evaluating information to arrive at the most feasible solution to a variety of structured and ill-structured problems (Winch, 2006; Laxman, 2010; Shah, 2010). Yet teaching Social Studies does not always result in this outcome. In fact research (Paul, Elder & Bartell, 1997) reveals that many teachers who include promotion of critical thinking skills as a learning outcome for their teaching could not define the construct nor distinguish between critical thinking and content coverage. Teaching for critical thinking competence necessitates a philosophical shift in focus from learning to thinking (Chun, 2010), drill and practice to problem-based learning (Savery, 2009), subject isolation to subject integration, output to process, what is convenient to what is needed, and now to the future (Peddiwell, 1939).

Guiding students through the process of thinking like researchers and participating in activities helped them to appreciate the importance of not jumping to conclusions (Parker, 2009). Role play is commonly applied in problem-based learning (Savery, 2009). Although problem-based learning is primarily used in the teaching of science and technology, students may also be encouraged to assume the role of linguists, paleontologists, cartographers, meteorologists, and archeologists to motivate them to unearth information that explains unfamiliar ideas. “To encourage active engagement,



teachers must design authentic tasks that reflect the complexity of the environment” (Mandernach, 2006:4). A classroom culture that fosters inquiry is likely to nurture students to become intellectually curious.

Although traditional and contemporary theories have provided a base for teaching for critical thinking in Social Studies, many schools are still graduating students who are ill-equipped to problem-solving. This may be due to a variety of factors including; how teachers interpret critical thinking (Kennedy et al., 1991; Jones, 2004), their feeling of self-efficacy to support students to develop problem solving competences (Goddard & Goddard, 2001; Wheatley, 2002), the students’ own self-efficacy regarding their critical thinking abilities (Bandura, 1993; Zimmerman, 2000; Caliskan 2010), students’ inadequate information-searching skills (Laxman, 2010), and teachers’ preference for more behaviourist than constructivist approaches to teaching.

Certainly a paper that requires students to annotate, outline, summarise, synthesise, contextualise, explore the use of figurative language, identify patterns of opposition and evaluate the logic of arguments before taking a reasoned perspective and arriving at a conclusion will engage students in similar critical thinking processes (Ikuenobe 2001; Jonassen, 2010). In addition to projects and written papers, verbal techniques such as argumentation, is an excellent way for students to demonstrate their ability to think critically. According to Jonassen (2010:440) “argumentation is valued for its role in facilitating conceptual change particularly for less structured problems. That is, learners alter their comprehension or adjust their frames of reference to accommodate new perspectives”. Above all, a holistic approach to teaching for

critical thinking in Social Studies should involve a set of appropriate goal-oriented assessment tasks that enable students to manipulate both affective and cognitive skills.

Also, persuasive messages in lesson can be used by Social Studies teachers to instil the right ideals in students - positive attitude building and behavioural change. Learning theories of attitude change, no longer as popular as they once were, focus on reinforced behaviour as the primary factor responsible for attitude development. Early research on attitude change drew on Festinger's cognitive dissonance theory, which posits that, when a person is persuaded to act in a way that is not congruent with a pre-existing attitude, he or she may change the attitude to reduce dissonance (Smith & Ragan, 1999). To use dissonance to produce attitude change, the persuader must first establish the dissonance, and then provide a method to reduce it. Ideally, this will involve making the chosen alternative attractive, showing a social group with the desired attitude, demonstrating the issue's importance, providing free choice, and establishing a wide latitude of acceptance through successive approximation (Martin & Briggs, 1986). This shows that teachers presenting lesson in Social Studies should focus on using practical things in life and allow their students to come out with repercussions associated with each chosen and why such things must not be repeated by them or be emulated in life.

Similarly, consistency theories assume that individuals need to have consistency between and among their attitudes and behaviours and will modify one or both to achieve this balance (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991). Affective-cognitive consistency

theory examines the relationship between attitudes and beliefs and posits that individuals are in an unstable state when their attitudes towards an object, event or person and their knowledge about that object, event, or person are inconsistent (Simonson & Maushak, 2001). The theory suggests that the affective component of the attitude system may be changed by providing new information (changing the cognitive component) via a persuasive message. Once the individual has processed the new information, he or she will undergo an attitude change to bring the knowledge and the affective into harmony. Processing the message requires that the audience pay attention to and comprehend the message, then accept and retain it (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991). Affective-cognitive consistency theory suggests that the affective component of the attitude system may be changed by first changing the cognitive component through providing new information. It does not matter how the new cognition is produced, only that it occurs. Thus, any of the learning theories discussed in this write up may be used in conjunction with this approach when wanted to effect change and develop positive attitude in students.

The fact that attitudes are stored separately from their related cognitions means that a person may experience a feeling without remembering the information or event that triggered it, attitudes will generally be stronger when the link between their cognitive and affective components is consciously recalled (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991). For this to work, of course, the recipient must attend to the message providing that information. A tendency toward passive viewing of mediated messages may be reduced by instructing students to attend and alerting them to the fact that the content will be tested (Wetzel, 1994). According to Zimbardo and Leippe, (1991:188):

a persuasive message is most likely to cause attitude and behaviour change if it can shape both beliefs about its topic and beliefs about what important individuals and social groups think about the topic and how they behave toward it.

The most effective persuasive messages are those "that get the audience to think about an issue or object in concrete, vivid images that have definite implications for behaviour" (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991:194). This shows that in Social Studies, students will hold on to ideals of society if seen done by important individuals around them and social groups.

Apart from using persuasive messages and the affective-cognitive consistency theory to build attitude and behaviour change in students, there are other theories of learning that help in attitude development. Social judgment theories also emphasise the role of prior attitudes in shaping attitude formation and change. Smith and Ragan (1999) described attitude as a kind of spectrum with latitude of acceptance surrounding a current attitude; a new position is more likely to be accepted if it falls within this latitude and is less likely to be accepted if it does not. In Social Studies, this theory suggests that change in attitude position might be greater in response to the presentation of a moderate persuasive position than in response to a more extreme message. As with dissonance theory, social judgment theory presents attitude change as a response to the receipt of a message that is not entirely congruent with the currently held attitude. Acceptance of the new position is contingent upon its falling within the latitude of acceptance of the receiver. "The use of successive approximations can expand the latitude of acceptance and thereby permit greater attitude change than might otherwise be possible" (Bednar & Levie, 1993:295).

Social learning theory is also a learning theory that can be used by a Social Studies teacher to effect positive attitude building and concrete change in students. Social learning theory focuses on the development of cognitions related to the expected outcome of behaviour. This theory suggests that an individual learns attitudes by observing the behaviours of others and modelling or imitating them (McDonald & Kielsmeier, 1970). An observed behaviour does not have to be reinforced to be learned (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991), and the model "can be presented on film, by television, in a novel, or by other vicarious means" (Martin & Briggs, 1986:28). The model must be credible to the target audience (Bednar & Levie, 1993). Credibility is largely a function of expertise and trustworthiness. Observational learning is greater when models are perceived as powerful and/or warm and supportive, and "imitative behaviour is more likely when there are multiple models doing the same thing" (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991:51). While "attitudes formed through direct experience with the attitude object or issue are more predictive of behaviour than those formed more indirectly" (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991:193), "media can be substitutes for many live experiences" (Wetzel, 1994:26). Thus, observing a model via video is a viable method of learning a new attitude. For passive learners, instruction delivered by media may facilitate the rapid acquisition of complex affective behaviours more effectively than live demonstrations (McDonald & Kielsmeier, 1970). However, receivers may attend mediated messages less closely than those presented directly, thereby diminishing their effectiveness (Bednar & Levie, 1993). Social learning theories of attitude change are closely related to theories that emphasise the role of social learning in cognitive development.

Finally, functional theories suggest that attitudes serve a variety of psychological needs and that changing an attitude requires an understanding of its purpose in the life of the individual who holds it. The utility of this theory is limited by the fact that attitude research in this area has not produced a consistent set of categories relating attitudes to psychological needs (Bednar & Levie, 1993). Research has shown that attitudes related to self-concept frequently perform an ego-defensive function and that ego-defensive attitudes are particularly difficult to change (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991). This implies that in Social Studies apart from the extrinsically motivated issues leading to positive attitudinal change, students need to be motivated intrinsically before a behavioural change can be effected positively.

Apart from using persuasive messages and the learning theories to build positive attitude and effect behavioural change in students, there are other instructional approaches that can be used by the Social Studies teacher to help his/her students in developing positive attitude. Instructional technology findings do generally suggest that “mediated instruction does contribute to desired attitudinal outcomes in learners, especially when the instruction is designed specifically to produce certain attitudes or attitude change” (Simonson & Maushak, 2001:1010). Their findings also indicate that the three most important qualities such instructions should have are: the use of follow-up activities and open-ended questions; the use of realistic types of media devoid of contradictory cues; and the creation of an aroused state in the learner through emotional and intellectual involvement.

Simonson and Maushak (2001) also drew on findings from a number of studies to create a series of six guidelines for effective design of attitude instruction. These are: make the instruction realistic, relevant, and technically stimulating; present new information; present persuasive messages in a credible manner; elicit purposeful emotional involvement; involve the learner in planning production or delivery of the message; and provide post-instruction discussion or critique opportunities.

Smith and Ragan (1999) focused on the behavioural aspect of attitude learning and emphasise the importance of three key instructional approaches: demonstration of the desired behaviour by a respected role model; practice of the desired behaviour, often through role playing; and reinforcement of the desired behaviour. Bednar and Levie (1993:282) made similar recommendations:

When designing instruction for attitude change, three approaches emerge from the theoretical literature: providing a persuasive message; modelling and reinforcing appropriate behaviour; and inducing dissonance between the cognitive, affective, and behavioural components of the attitude. These approaches are ideally used in tandem.

Summary from the number of studies on guidelines for effective design of attitude instruction from the above suggest that children should take integral part in teaching and learning activities and without their involvement in classroom activities implies learning has not taken place.

There is, at present, no firm agreement about the optimal order in which to present the various cognitive and affective messages contained in a given unit of instruction. Some researchers have found that "knowledge about a topic was often a necessary prerequisite for a positive attitude position toward the idea" (Simonson & Maushak,

2001). This implies that Social Studies must always be taught by those trained in the subjects, who are taught to imbue the ideals of citizenship education and be able to activate students' background knowledge in the teaching and learning process if we really want bad attitudes to change and positive ones develop.

Others suggest that "more educated people are better equipped to counter argue and hence less likely to accept or be persuaded by new information" (Ansolabehere, 1993:151). That is why we must teach them and do so actively, consistently and most of all early to imbue in them positive attitude development. This implies that the consequence will be minimal if we provide children with an environment conducive to the learning about, practising of, and valuing of good citizenship and responsible involvement in national life. This can help to unearth a nation of new crop of worthwhile generation. The former theory would suggest that learners will experience more attitude change if the cognitive aspects of a lesson are presented before the affective aspects are introduced, while the latter suggests the opposite effect. The ability of a persuasive message to produce attitude change is closely linked to its strength, and "dry statistical information has less effect than vivid and concrete examples" (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991:337). However, studies of home television viewing have shown that stories that "deal with topics about which viewers already have some knowledge tend to be remembered better" (Wetzel, 1994:53). This shows that presenting first the general and then the particular, first the abstract and then the concrete would seem to be sound instructional design for both cognitive and affective domains.



Since the presentation of credible and persuasive messages is a key component of attitude instruction, further exploration of what makes instruction persuasive and credible may be of use to the ardent Social Studies teacher who is always bent on effecting positive change in society. Acceptance of a given message is “not so much about the content of the message as the cognitions - in the form of evaluative responses - that the receiver has in response to it” (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991:150). If a given topic is of low salience or high complexity, message acceptance and attitude formation is often guided by a heuristic, most commonly source credibility. The effectiveness of a persuasive message is contingent upon the receiver's perception of the source's credibility, and credibility is a function of expertise and trustworthiness. This implies that a source or model that appears to argue against his or her self-interest is often perceived as relatively trustworthy.

When the information presented is important to the viewer and familiarity is low, an intellectual message will likely be more persuasive, and encouraging objectivity can help overcome resistance to attitude change. Conversely, when the message's importance is relatively low and familiarity is higher, emotional appeals are more successful. “Emotional images need the sight, sound, and movement quality that television offers” (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991:149). “The trick with designing the ideal persuasive message is that it has to be of such quality that the recipients' own cognitive responses to it are numerous as well as favourable” (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991:182). For example, studies conducted by Wade and Pool, 1983; and Bage, 1997 have found that persuasive videos were more likely to produce attitude change when post-viewing discussions were held. If the instructional unit begins with an emphasis

on cognitive outcomes, continues with the persuasive media message, and concludes with a discussion session, then students will be challenged with several opportunities to develop and express their own cognitive responses to the information presented. Each phase of the instruction should present “plausible, important messages with new information in order to provoke more cognitions and hence increase attitude change” (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991:150). Thus, the persuasive component should not merely restate the information provided earlier, but should elaborate and expand upon it.

Mediated instruction is also of paramount importance as it can help in building positive attitudes of students. One advantage of mediated instruction is its exact replicability: the same affective attitude instruction can be delivered exactly to multiple groups (McDonald & Kielsmeier, 1970). Following the cognitive and persuasive components with a discussion may help to make the attitude change more permanent, since self-generated messages are more memorable than received ones (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991). “People become more mindful when they encounter novel stimuli that do not fit established categories and when they are motivated to engage in systematic thinking, rather than lapse into mindless processing” (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991:259). The importance of this cognitive engagement for attitude change should not be underestimated. “Attitude changes that result from active and systematic mental processing are the most durable, persisting changes” (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991:181). This implies that students must be motivated when seen doing worthwhile things in class as this will compel others to follow suit.

As discussed above, affective components are often already present in many lesson plans. Adding affective objectives to other instruction need not take an overwhelming amount of time. A meta-analysis of attitude change studies relating to bias and prejudice has shown that shorter treatments generally produced more attitude change than did longer ones. In other words, “less treatment time was apparently more conducive to prejudice reduction” (Underleiger & McGregor, 1993:222). The implications of this finding are greatest for interventions where attitude change is the principal goal. If a teacher perceives that his or her students' attitudes are already aligned with the objectives, he or she may be tempted not to address the affective component of the lesson. However, reinforcement remains important.” Lack of resistance (to persuasion) is likely when attitudes and beliefs are still in formative stages or when the individual is cast into a new and vastly different social environment" (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991:225). Thus, the importance of confirming and strengthening existing positive attitudes should not be overlooked. The more thought-through an attitude is, the more resistant it is to change (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991). The implication here is that as students are motivated it reflects on their attitudes and instruction may lead to an increase in their intensity and permanence.

Teachers must not only be abreast with teaching skills in the affective but must also be knowledgeable on how to assess attitude learning. While general attitudes are good predictors of general behaviours, and specific attitudes are good predictors of specific behaviours, the general does not reliably predict the specific or the specific the general (Simonson & Maushak, 2000). Therefore, in assessing attitude learning, any Likert-type scale or similar closed-ended measurements should be used in tandem

with more open-ended instruments. This will help the teacher to ascertain where the students are lacking in terms of positive attitude building and remedial measures given out to forestall any future moral decadence.

## **2.5 Theories underpinning the Research - Curriculum Evaluation Models**

There does exist a range of curriculum evaluation models which can provide a useful structure for teachers wishing to make more effective their role as curriculum implementers and act as evaluators.

Models are useful because they help you define the parameters of an evaluation, what concepts to study and the procedures to be used to extract important data. Numerous evaluation models have been proposed but three models are discussed here. The scope and focus of evaluation generally, and of curriculum evaluation in particular, has changed markedly over recent times. With the move towards school-based curriculum development attention has shifted away from measurement and testing alone. More emphasis is now being placed upon a growing number of facets of curriculum development, reflecting the need to collect information and make judgements about all aspects of curriculum activities from planning to implementation (Stake, 2004:36).

Stake's Countenance model of 1967 and the Standards-Based and Responsive Evaluation model of 2004 also proposed by Stake are discussed here.

According to Stake (1967), there were two primary models for programme evaluation in 1965, and there are two today. One is the informal study, perhaps a self-study, usually using information already available, relying on the insights of professional persons and respected authorities. The other models: this one is referred to as the school accreditation model. To him, most educators are partial to this evaluation model, and researchers do not like it because it relies so much on second-hand

information. But there is much good about the model. Most researchers have preferred the other model, the pre-test/post-test model, what Stake (1967) has referred to as the prototype sheet of Ralph Tyler's model. It often uses pre-specified statements of behavioural objectives. The focus of attention with this model is primarily on student performance (Stake, 1967). Cronbach (1963) argues that there should be preference to have evaluation studies considered applied research on instruction, to learn what could be learned in general about curriculum development, as was done on Hilda Taba's Social Studies curriculum project.

As a result, another evaluation model known as the countenance model was proposed by Stake. Stake (1967) suggests three phases of curriculum evaluation: the antecedent phase, the transaction phase and the outcome phase. The antecedent phase includes conditions existing prior to instruction that may relate to outcomes. The transaction phase constitutes the process of instruction while the outcome phase relates to the effects of the programme. This is indicated below:

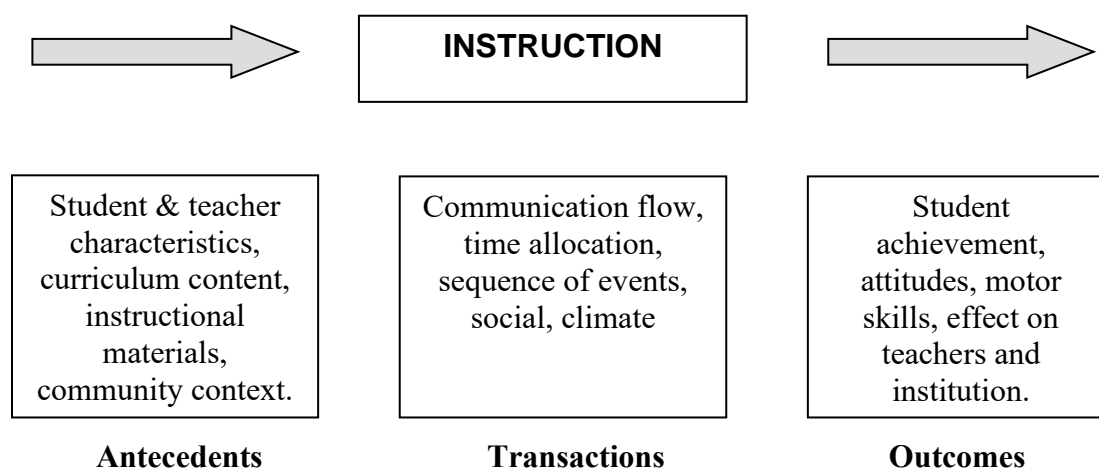


Figure 2.3 Stake's Countenance model.

On this, Stake (1967) emphasises the settings where learning occurs; teaching transactions, judgement data, holistic reporting, and giving assistance to educators. With the standards-based and responsive evaluation, Stake (2004) emphasises two operations; descriptions and judgements. To him, descriptions are divided according to whether they refer to what was intended or what actually was observed. Judgements are separated according to whether they refer to standards used in arriving at the judgements or to the actual judgements.

The theory of evaluation according to Stake (2004) emphasises the distinction between a pre-ordinate approach and a responsive approach. In the recent past the major distinction being made by methodologists is between what Scriven (1973) called formative and summative evaluation. He gave attention to the difference between developing and already-developed programmes, and implicitly to evaluation for a local audience of a programme in specific setting as contrasted to evaluation for many audiences of a potentially generalizable programme. These are important distinctions, but it is even more important to distinguish between pre-ordinate evaluation studies and responsive evaluation studies.

To be of service and to emphasise evaluation issues that are important for each particular programme, Stake (2004) recommend the responsive evaluation approach which is an approach that sacrifices some precision in measurement, hopefully to increase the usefulness of the findings to persons in and around the programme. Many evaluation plans are more "pre-ordinate," emphasising (1) statement of goals, (2) use of objective tests, (3) standards held by programme personnel, and (4) research-type

reports. Responsive education is less reliant on formal communication, more reliant on natural communication. Responsive evaluation is an alternative, an old alternative. It is evaluation based on what people do naturally to evaluate things: they observe and react. The approach is not new. But it has been avoided in planning documents and institutional regulations because, Stake (2004) believes, it is subjective, poorly suited to formal contracts, and a little too likely to raise the more embarrassing questions. Subjectivity can be reduced by replication and operational definition of ambiguous terms, even while we are relying heavily on the insights of personal observation. It was in the light of this that in the present study I decided to observe the final year teacher-trainees in a classroom setting while they teach to ascertain whether their cognition of Social Studies is helping to implement the Basic School Social Studies curriculum in Ghana.

An educational evaluation is responsive evaluation (1) if it orients more directly to programme activities than to programme intents, (2) if it responds to audience requirements for information, and (3) if the different value-perspectives of the people at hand are referred to in reporting the success and failure of the programme. In these three separate ways an evaluation plan can be responsive (Stakes, 2004).

Instead of objectives, or hypotheses as "advanced organisers" for an evaluation study, Stake (2004) preferred issues which better reflect a sense of complexity, immediacy, and valuing. Responsive-evaluation procedures allow the evaluator to respond to emerging issues as well as to preconceived issues as there are changing conceptions of teaching and learning.

There has been changing conceptions of learning and teaching over the years. The relationship between conceptions of learning and teaching has implications for educational change (Tutty et al., 2008). Change towards more sophisticated forms of teaching is only possible if the teacher's curriculum conceptions of teaching are addressed first (Ho, Watkins et al., 2001). There is evidence that teacher's conceptions of teaching develop with increasing teaching experience or from formal training (Richardson, 2005). Teacher's approaches to teaching change slowly, with some change coming after a sustained training process (Postareff et al., 1997).

Changing pedagogues' conceptions of teaching, however, are a necessary but not sufficient condition for improved student learning. While teachers are likely to adopt teaching approaches that are consistent with their conceptions of teaching there may be differences between espoused theories and theories in use (Leveson, 2004). While pedagogues may hold higher-level view of teaching, other contextual factors may prevent use of those conceptions (Leveson, 2004).

While teachers' conceptions of curriculum may influence approaches to teaching, other factors such as institutional influence and the nature of students, curriculum and discipline may also influence teaching approaches (Kember & Kwan, 2000). Environmental, institutional, or other issues may impel teachers to teach in a way that is against their preferred approach (Samuelowicz & Bain, 2001). Other contextual factors that frustrate pedagogues' intended approaches to teaching may include senior staff with traditional teacher-focused conceptions raising issues about standards and curriculum coverage and students who induce teachers to adopt a more didactic



approach (Richardson 2005). In addition, teachers who experience different contexts may adopt different approaches to teaching in those different contexts (Lindblom-Ylance et al., 2006).

Efforts to improve teaching have often failed because the complexity of teaching has been underestimated and such attempts should consider the integrated system of relationships that constitute the teaching experience as a whole (Leveson, 2004). One such important complicating influence is differences that are found between discipline areas (Lindblom-Ylance et al., 2006), which suggest a need to understand teaching from both a general and discipline-specific perspective (Leveson, 2004). Beliefs about teaching vary markedly across different disciplines and these variations are related to the pedagogue's beliefs about the nature of the discipline they are teaching (Richardson, 2005).

There is a lack of empirical evidence that development in conceptions of teaching will result in prompt improvement in teaching practice (Ho et al., 2001). There is at least one alternate model (Guskey, 1986; Guskey, 2002) of teacher change that suggests it is the experience of successful implementation that changes the attitudes and beliefs of teachers. Pedagogues believe change will work because they have seen it work and this experience is what changes their conceptions of teaching and learning (Guskey, 2002). Existing research informs us of the static relationship between existing conceptions and teaching practice, but has limited findings in terms of the dynamics of the way changes in teaching conceptions are transferred to changes in teaching practice and at what rate (Ho et al., 2001).

This implies that responsive-evaluation procedures need to be carried out to allow curriculum implementers and evaluators to respond to emerging issues as well as to preconceived issues as there are changing conceptions of teaching and learning.

## **2.6 Appraisal of Reviewed Literature**

The conclusion of this chapter is that the growth of Social Studies across the different parts of the world has been informed by a variety of reasons and factors. For instance, it has been used as a partial solution for social problem in many countries of the worlds. In Germany, it was initiated after the Second World War, as a means of developing a new political order. In Britain, Social Studies was used to legitimatise the teaching of social sciences particularly sociology, while preparing students for their role in the society. By the Butler Act of 1944, Britain eventually looked up to the integrated Social Studies programme as an avenue for promoting in her youths the socio-cultural values which Britain tradition has held in esteem for a long time. In United States of America, Social Studies has continued its primary function of preparing students for effective citizenship in democratic society and instilling patriotic ideals in the young ones (Kissock, 1981).

Among the African nations, Social Studies has been used to improve the self-image of people in the society after a colonial rule and heritage. In Sierra Leone, it was used to learn ways of improving the economy. In Ghana, it was aimed at transforming the society, especially political culture. In Ethiopia, it came to inculcate the concepts of nationalism, unity and inter-dependency among citizenry of a new nation with diverse

population. In Nigeria, it is aimed at helping to build a foundation for a democratic society. In spite of many conferences, seminars and workshops for Social Studies, the subject did not receive the blessing of so many scholars immediately. Some were scared because of its newness, or lack of understanding of its nature, scope, and dynamism. Others saw the development as a great challenge to their discipline and therefore campaigned against it (Lawal, Obebe, James, & Fatimeyin, n. d.).

Social Studies as a subject has been conceptualised differently by its practitioners since its inception. At all levels of education, however, the goals of Social Studies have been characterised by Martorella (1985) as: (1) transmission of the cultural heritage; (2) methods of inquiry; (3) reflective inquiry; (4) informed social criticism; and (5) personal development. Personal development has traditionally received the greatest emphasis at the elementary level; at the high school level, methods of inquiry have received more emphasis. As phrased in the curriculum guidelines released by the NCSS (1979:262), “the basic goal of Social Studies education is to prepare young people to be humane, rational, participating citizens in a world that is becoming increasingly interdependent”.

The objectives which are spelt in the definition of a discipline form the bases for developing a curriculum. However, lack of consensus in defining a subject may sway away and turn the various components of a discipline. Meanwhile, Social Studies as a subject has been conceptualised differently by its practitioners over the years since its inception (i.e. amalgamation of the social sciences; citizenship education etc.), however it seems that there is an agreement of its being seen as a problem solving

subject based on the literature reviewed. This shows that there is the need for definition of a subject since that determines the goal and objectives, and the content of the subject (Ediger, 2007). This will serve as a guide to enable the teacher to select appropriate techniques to be presented in a lesson. To define Social Studies will not only aim at giving out knowledge but it will emphasise on inculcating a certain distillate knowledge which will assist the individual in acquiring the tools necessary for life (Quartey, 1984). These tools include knowledge, values, attitudes and skills which should help the child in solving both personal and community related problems. The accepted definition should in a large measure influence the kind of knowledge to be taught and even the methods to be used in the teaching and learning process. The various conceptions of Social Studies through time and space have gone to influence trained Social Studies teachers teaching the subject. The implications of the varying conceptions of Social Studies through time and space is that those who conceptualise it as the amalgamation of the social sciences are compelled to teach it by presenting bootleg facts from the social sciences whilst those pedagogues who conceptualise it as citizenship education (i.e. issue-oriented) will teach the subject helping their students to be problem solvers. Akinlaye (2003:115) summarises it by asserting that “all over the world, the value of instruction depends; to a large extent on the quality of professional training of teachers and the perceptions they hold about their subject areas”. According to him, the education level of a nation cannot rise above the levels of the educational standard of the teachers; their quality and competency. To him, teachers hold the live-wire of a sound educational system of any nation. This shows that there is indeed the need for effective teaching of Social

Studies, and if the purpose of its introduction is to be realised, then more premium must be placed on how it is conceptualised and taught by teachers trained to teach it, for every nation needs citizens who are informed, autonomous, respectful of others, who can participate in the political process, make reasoned decision and act responsibly not for his / her common good but for the immediate community, nation and the world.

Having completed what is believed to be the literature review of teachers' conceptions in the teaching of Social Studies, it is left with many questions and some future research directions. Over a decade ago, Freeman and Johnson (1998:398) stated, "teacher education has been animated more by tradition and opinion than by theoretical definitions, documented study, or research understandings." Little has changed when it comes to teaching and curricular reforms in Social Studies which will result in nation building. In particular, empirical research that will analyse the knowledge of Social Studies teacher-trainees in connection with their sense of efficacy in actual teaching practices in Social Studies lessons at the Basic School level in Ghana is sorely needed. This is because it is through Social Studies that learners learn directly about their varied environments in order to develop sound knowledge, skills, attitudes and values (Arisi, 2011).

## CHAPTER THREE

### METHODOLOGY

#### 3.0 Introduction

This chapter describes the research procedures and techniques used for the study. The issues considered include the research design, population, sample and sampling procedure, instruments for data collection and their validity and reliability, and data collection procedure. Finally, data analysis procedure is described.

#### 3.1 Research Design

The research approaches chosen for this study are; both qualitative and quantitative (mixed method). According to Hantrais (2005:399) “attempts to make sense of diversity have led to a blurring of the traditional methodological divide between quantitative and qualitative paradigms, opening up new perspectives and creating opportunities for synergies and complementarities”.

There are two major types of mixed research. These are the mixed-model research and mixed-method research. In mixed model research, quantitative and qualitative approaches are mixed within or across the stages of the research process.

Mixed method research designs are classified according to two major dimensions: Time order (i.e., concurrent versus sequential) and Paradigm emphasis (i.e., equal status versus dominant status) (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). A sequential mixed method design was thus used to explore the final year teacher-trainees ideas about College and School Social Studies and their sense of efficacy in implementing

Ghana's Basic School Social Studies curriculum. Since a design is seen as the blue print that spells out how data relating to a problem should be collected and analysed, I considered the mixed-method as the most suitable design for the study as data collected were of both quantitative and qualitative in nature.

The two methods were used sequentially, with the documentary analysis of Colleges of Education Social Studies curriculum vis-à-vis the JHS syllabus undertaken before the questionnaire, the focus group discussion, interviews and the observation conducted on a classroom setting while the final year teacher-trainees teach a JHS class. The two methods were given equal priority. In terms of the purposes of combining methods; methods were combined both for triangulation and complementarity, where each method addressed a different aspect of the research question and for development where the qualitative component facilitated the analysis for the quantitative component. Triangulation was used to test the consistency of findings obtained through different instruments used, whilst complementarity clarifies and illustrates results from one method with the use of another method.

### **3.2 Population**

The population for this study included all final year teacher-trainees offering the general programme for Diploma in Basic Education (DBE) certificate in the three Colleges of Education in the Western Region of the Republic of Ghana. The accessed population was one hundred and fifty final year teacher-trainees.

### 3.3 Sample and Sampling Procedure

One hundred and fifty final year teacher-trainees were sampled from the three Colleges of Education in the Western Region of the Republic of Ghana. Estimating an adequate number of respondents is critical to the success of a research. According to High (2000), the size of the study sample is critical to producing meaningful results. When there are too few subjects, it may be difficult to detect the effect or phenomenon understudied, thus providing inconclusive inference-making. On the other hand, if there are too many subjects, even trivially small effect can be detected, but the findings will be of insignificant value, wasting valuable time and resources.

Non-probability sampling methods (purposive and convenience sampling techniques) were used to select the region, sample of districts, colleges and respondents for the study. In all there are thirty-eight (38) public Colleges of Education in Ghana, according to document made available by the Teacher Education Division (TED). The convenience sampling technique was used to select Western Region out of the ten regions with Colleges of Education in Ghana; the reason being that the researcher resides in the region. Purposive sampling technique was used to sample the three districts and their colleges out of the 22 districts in the region. The reason for selecting the three districts was that they have the Colleges of Education in the region. The districts are Aowin District where Enchi College of Education is situated, Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis where Holy Child College of Education is located and Sefwi Wiawso District where Wiawso College of Education is sited.



Purposive sampling technique was used to sample the general programme where Social Studies is one of the compulsory subjects taught, whilst convenience sampling technique was used to select the final year teacher-trainees offering the subject from the three Colleges of Education for the study. Having in mind the number for fair representation and the calibre of teacher-trainees for the study, I selected 50 final year teacher-trainees from each of the three colleges to make up the 150 sample size. In all, 150 final-year teacher trainees were selected from those offering the general programme as they are those required to offer Social Studies as a course of study.

Out of the 150 final year teacher-trainees sampled, convenience sampling technique was used to select 30 of them, 10 from each of the three colleges, for interviews. Eighteen final year teacher-trainees: six from each of the three Colleges of Education were also engaged in a focus group discussion.

Out of the 30 teacher-trainees interviewed, 15 were conveniently selected; five trainees from each of the three colleges were observed in a classroom setting, while they taught a JHS Social Studies class. This was done to cross-check the outcome of what they said during the interview and the focus group discussion conducted earlier. Final year JHS Social Studies class was chosen in the sense that the students might be in a better position to have formed a concept of the subject and for that matter would be able to contribute meaningfully to the classroom situation to be observed. Table 3.1 shows the public Colleges of Education in the Western Region of Ghana, the Diploma in Basic Education (DBE) programmes offered and their final year teacher-trainees selected for the study.

**Table 3.1 Public Colleges of Education in the Western Region of Ghana, programmes offered and their final year teacher-trainees selected for the study**

College	Programmes Offered	Total per Programme	Total for Programme(s) Offered	Trainees Selected
Enchi	General	166	166	50
Holy Child	General	96		
	Early Childhood	90	186	50
	General	121		
Wiawso	Mathematics, Science & Technical	122	243	50
Total			595	150

### 3.4 Instruments for Data Collection

I used the following in gathering the data:

- a. Social Studies curriculum documents of the College of Education and the Junior High School (Appendix B).
- b. Questionnaires made up of 77 close-ended Likert scale structured items were administered to 150 final year teacher-trainees from the three Colleges of Education (Appendix C).
- c. Focus group discussion checklists made up of 15 items were administered to 16 trainees (three groups of six trainees) (Appendix D).
- d. Interview guide made up of 34 semi-structured items were administered to 30 final year teacher-trainees (Appendix E).
- e. Observation guide (using teachers' sense of efficacy scale) made up of 30 structured classroom setting checklists were used to assess 15 final year teacher-trainees while they teach a JHS class (Appendix F).

### **3.4.1 Validity and reliability**

Validity is the best available approximation to the truth of a given proposition, inference, or conclusion. To ensure validity in this research, the questionnaire, focus group discussion and semi-structured interview guides were first discussed with colleagues, some lecturers of the Social Sciences Education Faculty and the Department of Social Studies Education. This led to some items being scrapped off and reframed before handing them over to my supervisors for scrutiny. This enabled them to look at the protocols to ensure that they were guided by the research questions.

According to Wisker (2008:322), “A research is considered reliable if another researcher carrying out the same research activities with the same group would be likely to replicate findings - although their findings need not be identical.” Concerning the semi-structured interview, it was conducted on one-on-one basis with the researcher. To ensure accuracy in data collection, interviews were tape-recorded with the permission of the participants. By doing so, the interviewer could be more attentive to the participants (Patton, 2002). Reliability of data from the semi-structured interview and focus group discussion of this research was ensured by playing back recorded interview to each interviewee and members of the discussion groups that there has been true recording of proceedings. The transcript was read out in the presence of each interviewee to be sure of its transcription. To reduce the likelihood of misinterpretation, I employed the procedures for “triangulation” (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998). To ensure reliability of the study, the documents, and outcome

from questionnaire, interview, focus group discussion and the observation were triangulated in a pilot study.

With the internal consistency, a Cronbach alpha coefficient was used to check the degree to which the questionnaire items that make the scale hang together. The reliability of the 53 items questionnaire is shown in Table 3.3 with a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of .845. Ideally, the Cronbach alpha coefficient of a scale should be above .70 and values above .80 are preferable (De Vellis, 2003 & Kline, 2005) to help answer the question: are they all measuring the same underlying construct? The case processing summary and the reliability statistics are shown in the Tables 3.2 & 3.3 below:

**Table 3.2 Scale: Social Studies trainees' curriculum conceptions case processing summary**

		N	%
Cases	Valid	150	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	150	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

**Table 3.3 Reliability statistics of Self Made Questionnaire (SMQ)**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.845	53

Reliability statistics for the 24-item Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) adopted from Megan Tschannen-Moran and Anita Woolfolk Hoy show values above .8. This makes it more reliable to be used. The TSES is sometimes referred to as the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale (OSTES) because it was developed at the Ohio

State University. Factor analysis consistently found three moderately correlated factors for the adopted scale: (1) efficacy in student engagement, (2) efficacy in instructional practices, and (3) efficacy in classroom management.

To determine the efficacy in student engagement, efficacy in instructional practices, and efficacy in classroom management subscale scores, unweighted means of the items that load on each factor were computed. This is shown in Table 3.4.

**Table 3.4: Reliability statistics of the teachers' sense of efficacy scale**

Scale	Mean	SD	Alpha
TSES (OSTES)	7.1	.94	.94
<i>Engagement</i>	7.3	1.1	.87
<i>Instruction</i>	7.3	1.1	.91
<i>Management</i>	6.7	1.1	.90

Table 3.4 shows reliability statistics for the nine point Likert scale teachers' sense of efficacy scale adopted from Megan Tschannen-Moran and Anita Woolfolk Hoy.

### 3.5 Data Collection Procedure

Data Collection was facilitated through the administration of questionnaire, interview, focus group discussion and classroom observation.

#### 3.5.1 Questionnaire administration

Seventy-seven fixed response questions were administered to 150 final year teacher-trainees. Questions consisted of four sections. The first section asked respondents to provide their background information. The next three sections dwelt on the Self-Made Questionnaire (SMQ), modified questionnaire, and adopted questionnaire; focus

group discussion; and observation checklists. These sought to establish whether there are definite conceptions about Social Studies by final year teacher-trainees of Colleges of Education in Ghana; determine whether Social Studies conceptions by final year teacher trainees of Colleges of Education in Ghana differ from how the Basic Social Studies curriculum is structured; and determine whether differences in the conceptions and curricula structures of Social Studies at Colleges of Education and the basic level influence teacher trainees' sense of efficacy in implementing the Basic School curriculum.

The questionnaire (shown in appendix C) was used to determine the extent of agreement or disagreement on issues about the problem. The numerical ratings used for the three-point Likert scale SMQ are: Agree (SA) (3); Uncertain (U) (2); and Disagree (D) (1). Questionnaires on Section E were adopted from Megan Tschannen-Moran and Anita Woolfolk Hoy teachers' sense of efficacy scale. This questionnaire is designed to help in better understanding of the kinds of things that create difficulties for pre-service teachers in their school activities. Items on the adopted questionnaire on teachers' sense of efficacy scale are on a 9-point scale anchored at *nothing, very little, some influence, quite a bit, and a great deal* but was adapted into a five-point scale.

### **3.5.2 Focus group discussion**

Three groups of six final-year trainees from the three colleges were used for the focus group discussion. This was done to ascertain whether what they said really goes with the outcome of the trainees' understanding of the term "Social Studies". It dwelt on

items whose results showed significant relationship and others that needed some highlights for clarification purposes. This can be seen in Appendix D.

### **3.5.3 Interviews**

Thirty teacher-trainees were interviewed based on 34 semi-structured interview guide (shown in Appendix E). This implies that specific questions were prepared but there was an opening for additional questions and room for elaboration when something relevant comes up during the interview. I did not use a uniform time-frame in interviewing the respondents because of the structure of the interview. For ethical reasons, I decided to change information such as names concerning some of the teacher-trainees to ensure my informants' anonymity.

### **3.5.4 Observation**

For the observation checklist to be in line with effective Social Studies teaching it was based on the scope of research by a number of scholars. Some of the checklists were created; others were adopted and modified to suit the nature of the research. On this, teachers' sense of efficacy scale were adopted from Megan Tschannen-Moran and some modifications made on what Smith and Ragan (1999), Bednar and Levie (1993), Zimbardo and Leippe (1991), Wetzels (1994), Simonson and Maushak (2001), had drawn on findings from a number of studies to create a series of guidelines for designing effective instructional approaches for right attitudinal change, developing positive attitude, values and skills in learners. This in the view of Fageyimba (2002) depends on the selection of content, teaching and assessment techniques, which the

ideal Social Studies teacher must be competent enough to possess. This can be seen in Appendix F.

I observed 15 teacher-trainees using sense of efficacy scale checklists. Each teacher-trainee chosen was observed twice, on different occasions; first, in Week One and second in Week Two. While observing teacher-trainees and pupils during lessons, the researcher recorded and wrote down salient points. This was cross-checked with the responses given by trainees when they were interviewed for clarification of ratings given. The final-year JHS class was used for the observation on the assumption that the pupils would be able to contribute to the teaching and learning because they might have formed concepts about the subject. The schedule for the observation is presented below:

**Table 3.5 Observation schedule for round one and round two (duration-six weeks)**

Day & Duration used in each College		College 1 Observation		College 2 Observation		College 3 Observation	
Day	Time	Wiawso	Date	Holy Child	Date	Enchi	Date
Monday	1 hr	Trainee 1	11/2/13	Trainee 1	11/3/13	Trainee 1	08/4/13
Tuesday	1 hr	Trainee 2	12/2/13	Trainee 2	12/3/13	Trainee 2	09/4/13
Wednesday	1 hr	Trainee 3	13/2/13	Trainee 3	13/3/13	Trainee 3	10/4/13
Thursday	1 hr	Trainee 4	14/2/13	Trainee 4	14/3/13	Trainee 4	11/4/13
Friday	1 hr	Trainee 5	15/2/13	Trainee 5	15/3/13	Trainee 5	12/4/13

The procedure of observation used in the first round (week one) was repeated, using the same final year teacher-trainees from Enchi, Wiawso and Holy Child Colleges of Education. Two weeks were spent in each of the three colleges for the observation.



### **3.6 Ethical Issues**

Final year teacher-trainees were not forced to be observed in a classroom setting, to open up during the interviews, the focus group discussion and the answering of questionnaires. I discussed with them the purpose for the research and they availed themselves. For ethical reasons, I decided to change information such as names, and sex of teacher-trainees to ensure their anonymity. They were also assured that information provided would be treated confidential. Trainees selected for the observation were given assurance that they can withdraw at any time.

### **3.7 Data Analysis**

The quantitative data entry and analysis was done by using the SPSS software package. The data was edited, coded and analysed into tables, frequencies, percentages, weighted mean with interpretations. The qualitative data was analysed by the use of the interpretative method based on the themes arrived at during the data collection. The themes were related to the research questions and interpreted on the number of issues raised by respondents. These were based on questions on the semi-structured interviews, focus group discussions and the observation of final year teacher trainees' while they teach the subject in a classroom setting using teacher's efficacy scale.

Interpretation technique was used to analyse the documents on Social Studies curriculum of Colleges of Education in relation to the JHS Social Studies syllabus. This was based on the two comparative analytical process created by the researcher:

1. The course description and objectives for offering the Social Studies programme at Colleges of Education vis-à-vis the rational and objectives of the JHS syllabus; and
2. Content and nature of Colleges of Education Social Studies vis-à-vis the JHS Social Studies syllabus.

### **3.8 Summary**

In this chapter, the steps that were used by the researcher to carry out the study are presented. It described the design and how the districts, colleges and their teacher-trainees were selected for the study. It also described the instruments used to collect the data, how the data were collected, processed and analysed. Ethical consideration was carried out to ensure the reliability of the data and integrity of participants. The next chapter presents the results that emerged from the research process and the discussion of findings derived from the data collected.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

#### 4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings based on the analyses of data collected for the study. The researcher blended discussion with the presentation of results.

#### 4.1 Characteristics of Respondents

Respondents' demographic characteristics include the institution final year teacher-trainees (mentees) were schooling for their teaching qualification-Diploma in Basic Education (DBE); the sex of respondents; and their age.

##### 4.1.1 College respondents were attending

One hundred and fifty final year teacher-trainees were used for the study. Out of this, 50 representing 33.3% were selected from each of the three Colleges of Education; namely, Enchi, Wiawso and Holy Child.

##### 4.1.2 Sex of Respondents

The sex of respondents sampled from the three Colleges of Education is shown in Table 4.1.1.

**Table 4.1.1 Institutions of the respondents and their sex**

Name of College	Sex of Respondents		Total (%)
	Male (%)	Female (%)	
Enchi	25 (50.0)	25 (50.0)	50 (33.3)
Wiawso	38 (76.0)	12 (24.0)	50 (33.3)
Holy Child	0 (0.0)	50 (100.0)	50 (33.3)
Total	63 (42.0)	87 (58.0)	150 (100.0)

The above table shows the institutions of the respondents and their sex. Out of the 150 final year teacher-trainees, 63 were males, whilst 87 were females. Out of the 50 final year teacher-trainees selected from Enchi College of Education, 25 were males, whilst 25 were females. Out of the 50 selected from Wiawso College of Education, 38 were males, whilst 12 were females. Fifty female mentees were selected from Holy Child College of Education because it is a college for females.

### 4.1.3 Age of Respondents

Number of respondents and their age is shown in Table 4.1.2.

**Table 4.1.2 Age of the final year teacher-trainees**

Age of Trainees	Name of College of Education			Total (%)
	Enchi	Wiawso	Holy Child	
21-25 years	40 (33.9%)	34 (28.8%)	44 (37.3%)	118 (100)
26-30 years	9 (30.0%)	15 (50.0%)	6 (20.0%)	30 (100)
31 years and above	1 (50.0%)	1 (50.0%)	0 (0.0%)	2(100)
Total	50 (33.3%)	50 (33.3%)	50 (33.3%)	150 (100)

One hundred and eighteen final year teacher-trainees fall within the 21-25 age bracket. Out of the 118, 40 (33.9%) were from Enchi College, 34 (28.8%) were from Wiawso, whilst 44 (37.3%) were from Holy Child College. Thirty final year teacher-trainees fall within 26-30 years bracket. Out of the 30, 9 (30.0%) were from Enchi, 15 (50.0%), were from Wiawso, whilst 6 (20.0%) were from Holy Child College. Two

final year teacher-trainees fall within 31 years and above. Out of the 2, 1 (50%) each was from Enchi, and Wiawso College respectively. This shows that generally, teacher trainees from Holy Child College of Education were younger than those from Enchi and Wiawso.

#### **4.2 Conceptions of Social Studies by Colleges of Education (CoEs) in Relation to the JHS Syllabus in Ghana**

Interpretatively, the structures of Social Studies curriculum in the CoE in relation to the JHS Syllabus are presented under this section. The main objective is to determine whether there are differences in the conceptions of the subject in Colleges of Education in relation to how the JHS Social Studies is structured at the JHS level in Ghana.

Social Studies curriculum documents of Colleges of Education are some of the complementing data employed for the study. I compared documents from Colleges of Education and the JHS Social Studies syllabus to ascertain how the Social Studies curriculum has been structured at these two levels. The interpretative technique was used to analyse the documents on Social Studies curriculum of Colleges of Education in relation to the JHS Social Studies syllabus. This was based on the two comparative analytical processes that I created:

1. The course description and objectives for offering the Social Studies programme at Colleges of Education vis-à-vis the rationale and objectives of the JHS syllabus; and

2. Content and nature of Colleges of Education Social Studies syllabus vis-à-vis the JHS Social Studies syllabus.

The documents on Colleges of Education Social Studies curriculum in relation to the JHS Social Studies syllabus were analysed based on the Research Question 1:

*What are the major differences in notions about Social Studies in terms of its purpose, nature and methods of teaching as contained in the Colleges of Education curriculum and the Junior High School teaching syllabus?*

#### **4.2.1 Rationale for offering Social Studies in Colleges of Education and the JHS**

The course description and objectives for offering the Social Studies programme at the CoE vis-à-vis the rationale and objectives of the JHS syllabus are analysed under this section. Environmental/Social Studies at Colleges of Education is run by Institute of Education-University of Cape Coast, whilst JHS Social Studies curriculum was prepared by Curriculum Research and Development Division (CRDD). Environmental/Social Studies is studied for four semesters at the Colleges of Education. The CoEs have the following as their course description and objectives for Social Studies from year 1 and year 2:

The Year 1, Semester 1 has its course description to examine the concept Environmental and Social Studies, the environment and its components buttressed with basic mapping skills. It also examines the various economic roles individuals play to prop up society and the roles of the financial institutions in supporting the various activities. The objectives are to: Create an awareness of the components of the environment; Equip students with basic mapping skills; Help students to develop

the ability to make rational decisions; Provide opportunities for students to participate in projects and activities; and Encourage students with the knowledge and skills required to handle the subject effectively at the Basic School level.

The Year 1, Semester 2 course has its course description to examine the purpose and content of this course which is closely related to citizenship education which is cherished in many societies. It emphasises holistic approach to relevant issues such as gender, attitudes, values, beliefs, the skills of problem solving, and the role of community institutions in the development of society. The course also provides opportunity for students to acquire further knowledge in mapping skills. The course aims at: Creating an awareness of the important roles community institutions play in the development of society; Inculcating in students desirable social attitudes and values for good citizenship; Creating an awareness of the signals that the environment gives about its degradation; Making students aware of the way in which the environment can be protected from being degraded; and Enabling students to acquire further mapping skills.

The Year 2, Semester 1 deals with the Methods of Teaching Environmental and Social Studies. It has its course description to examine the concept integration, spiral and expanding environment approaches to curriculum design in Environmental and Social Studies. It brings to the fore the meaning of methods, techniques and strategies used in teaching the subject. It also looks at the various teaching techniques such as brainstorming, role-playing, simulation, discussion and debate. It also emphasises the need for other resources such as resource room, resource person and community

resource that go to enhance teaching and learning. It finally affords the student the opportunity to plan lessons on given topics in the subject. The objective are: Making students aware of the various teaching techniques that are applied in the teaching-learning process of the subject; Making students aware of the rationale for the choice or selection of a particular teaching and learning method or technique; and Provides students the skills that will enable them use the methods and techniques.

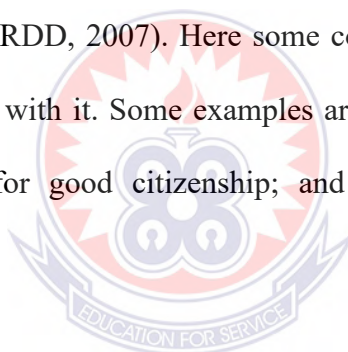
The Year 2, Semester 2 course has its course description to provide opportunities for students to discuss how society protects the individual to ensure peace and stability for sustainable national development; Issues on constitutional rule and provision of human rights; health services; food security and Ghana's relations with international organisations and agencies are examined. Map reading and interpretation which is an importance academic or study skill is also highlighted in the course. The objectives of the course is designed to: Prepare students to participate successfully in the civic life of their community; Inculcate in students desirable attitudes and values for good citizenship; Encourage students to lead healthy lives; Acquaint students with skills to influence policy; Provide opportunities for students to appreciate the importance of Ghana's relations with international organisations and agencies; and Encourage students to make reflective decisions through map reading and interpretation.

The JHS syllabus was examined based on the rationale for teaching and the general aims of Social Studies. The designers of Social Studies Syllabus for the JHS programme (2007) see the rationale for teaching Social Studies as the study of society and its problems thereby prepares the individual by equipping him or her with



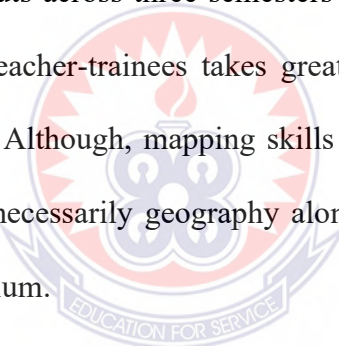
knowledge about the culture and ways of life of their society, its problems, its values and its hopes for the future. Here majority of the CoE course description and objectives go with the JHS syllabus, while few do not (i.e. acquisition of mapping skills; Map reading and interpretation etc.) which span through three out of the four semesters for the two years “In” and one year “Out” Policy of the In-In-Out Programme of teacher preparation for Colleges of Education in Ghana.

As a subject, Social Studies should help pupils/students to understand their society better; helps them to investigate how their society functions and hence assists them to develop that critical and at the same time developmental kind of mind that will transform societies (CRDD, 2007). Here some course description and objectives of CoE Social Studies go with it. Some examples are to inculcate in students desirable attitudes and values for good citizenship; and acquaint students with skills to influence policy.



General aims of Social Studies Syllabus (2007) for the JHS programme is to help the pupil to: understand the interrelationships between the social and the physical environment and their impact on the development of Ghana; appreciate the impact of history on current and future development efforts of the country; appreciate the various components of the environment and how these could be maintained to ensure sustainable development; recognise the major challenges facing Ghana and be able to develop basic knowledge and skills for dealing with such challenges; understand the dynamics of development in the world and their impact on development in Ghana; develop the knowledge, skills and attitudes needed for personal growth, peaceful co-

existence, and respect for peoples of other nations; and develop a sense of national consciousness and national identity. Here majority of the objectives of the Colleges of Education Social Studies curriculum are in line with the general aims of the JHS Social Studies syllabus. Example is to provide the opportunities for students to appreciate the importance of Ghana's relations with international organisations and agencies. However, there are no history topics in the CoE Social Studies curriculum that will help trainees appreciate the impact of history on current and future development efforts of the country. History topics are not found in the CoE Social Studies curriculum. Also, the acquisition of mapping skills which falls within the domain of geography cuts across three semesters out of the four. The acquisition of pedagogical skills by teacher-trainees takes greater content coverage of the Social Studies course content. Although, mapping skills are generic skills that can be used across disciplines, not necessarily geography alone, its acquisition is not a focus of the basic school curriculum.



#### **4.2.2 Content of Colleges of Education Social Studies vis-à-vis the JHS Syllabus**

There was the need to ascertain whether the nature and content of Social Studies curriculum of Colleges of Education fall in line with or differ from the Junior High School Social Studies syllabus. This has become a matter of interest as teachers trained from teacher training institutions will find themselves teaching in the first cycle institutions (Primary and JHS) in Ghana. It is of paramount importance as this may influence one's art of teaching as concept formation in teaching and learning will

become very difficult to erase. The Colleges of Education has the following as the content and nature of Social Studies from Year 1 to Year 2:

The topics for Year I, semester 1 course are - the subject Environmental and Social Studies; Component of the environment; Maps and scales; Resources and their utilisation for sustainable development in Ghana; Various types of occupations/productions; and Financial institutions. The topics for year I, semester 2 course are - The role of community institutions in the development of society; Human resource and development; Environmental degradation; Methods of showing relief on maps; Representation of direction, and position and conventional signs used on Ghana maps.

The topics for Year 2, Semester 1 courses are - Integration/Integrated approach to the designing of Environmental and Social Studies curriculum; The spiral approach to the designing of Environmental and Social Studies programme; the Concentric/Expanding horizon approach to the designing of Environmental and Social Studies programme; Brainstorming technique; Role-play; Simulation; Debate; Discussion; Teaching and learning resources; Community resources; Resource person/guest speaker; Resource room; and Lesson planning and presentation. The topics for Year 2, Semester 2 course are: Constitutional rule and provision of human right; Health issues: Reproductive health and significance of reproductive health education; Food security; Ghana's relationship with international organisations and agencies; Map interpretation; and Statistical mapping.

The scope of content of the current JHS Social Studies syllabus (2007) reflects the tools needed by individual to solve personal and societal problems. This means that the subject is supposed to be problem solving oriented, theme based and trans-disciplinary in nature. These do not fall in line with the College of Education Social Studies course structure. The courses examine under the Colleges of Education programme are mainly facts, concepts and topics lifted from the discrete subjects in the social sciences with geography taking precedence. Examples are maps and scales; methods of showing relief on maps; representation of direction, position and conventional signs used on Ghana maps; methods of showing relief and drainage on maps; slopes; inter-visibility and gradient; map interpretation; and statistical diagrams/mapping (pie chart, bar graphs, line graphs) etc.

The scope of content of Social Studies Syllabus (2007) for the Junior High School is concerned with equipping the pupil with an integrated knowledge, skills and attitudes that will help the pupil develop a broader perspective of Ghana and the world. Here, the Colleges of Education Curriculum, although equipped students with integrated knowledge it is done by bootlegging facts, concepts and generalisations in the cross-disciplinary perspective from the social sciences almost showing its distinctive parts and it is not problem solving oriented. As a result of this it is not in line with the Scope of content of the 2007 Social Studies Syllabus for JHS level.

According to CRDD, (2007) the integration in Social Studies is to be achieved in the three sections of the syllabus each of which focuses respectively on: Governance, Politics and Stability; the Environment; and Social and Economic Development. This

shows that courses in Social Studies of Colleges of Education should be centred on issues around the Environment; Government, Politics and Stability; and Social and Economic Development that will help the pupil develop a broader perspective of Ghana and the world. From the syllabus, it then shows that the integration of Social Studies should be trans-disciplinary in nature and must not be shown in separate subjects or cross-disciplinary perspective in the social sciences but should be theme-based and problem-solving oriented. With this, the College of Education Social Studies curriculum saw it right, but the facts, concepts and generalisation are taken from the social sciences showing its distinctive parts in a cross-disciplinary manner (examples are Geography of Social Studies, Government of Social Studies, Economics of Social Studies, Sociology of Social Studies, etc) or multidisciplinary than trans-disciplinary in nature. Here it is deduced that both levels see it as integration but there is a problem of acceptable level of integration. That is the source of confusion in the Social Studies wars.

Colleges of Education see the integration as showing distinctive subject areas in a cross-disciplinary approach as greater number of topics are Geography packed, followed by Economics, Government and Sociology. The level of integration is the source of confusion because every subject borrows from other subjects just like Social Studies. But the facts and ideas borrowed by Social Studies are so utilised that they assist in producing reflective, competent and concerned citizen who can live effectively in the society (Martorella, 1994). The Colleges of Education Social Studies programme does not just borrow facts and whole topics from Geography, Economics, and Sociology. This created the source of confusion. A teacher who has

an in-depth knowledge in Social Studies will not present facts from the social sciences but the distillate part which must rather be used to solve threatening individual problems and that of society (Quartey, 1984). This distillate part will develop the positive attitudes, values and skills needed to make critical and informed decisions in life as responsible citizens.

The subject is multi-disciplinary and takes its source from Geography, History, Sociology, Psychology, Economics, Civic Education and Science (CRDD, 2007). The essential knowledge and principles from these disciplines are integrated into a subject that stands on its own and the topics should reflect the problems of the individual and society (CRDD, 2007). Examples are managing and preventing conflicts, problems of development in Ghana and mapping our environment. This means that the essential elements of the knowledge and principles from the various disciplines in the social sciences should have been integrated into a subject that stands on its own in a single subject that will make it to be seen as problem oriented, theme based and trans-disciplinary in nature and not in a cross-disciplinary perspective or almost the discrete subjects in the social sciences. Here the CoE Social Studies curriculum saw it right but the acceptable level of integration of the social sciences is the problem as the various parts are clearly seen as facts, concepts and generalisation bootlegged from the social sciences. Some of the topics have no bearing on teaching and learning at the JHS level.

From the documents on Social Studies curriculum at Colleges of Education and the JHS, one can deduce that Social Studies at Colleges of Education is meant to produce

trained and qualified teachers who have subject matter knowledge in some subject areas such as Geography as many topics are lifted from it (i.e. map work, slopes, statistical mappings etc) which are not taught at the JHS level. The JHS syllabus rather shows that the programme is to equip students with relevant knowledge which form the basis for enquiry into issues and how to solve one's problem and that of society; inculcate in students the attributes of good citizenship.

The above suggests that Colleges of Education curriculum goes with the 1987 Social Studies syllabus which has more geography topics, whilst the JHS syllabus is rather packed as a single subject which is problem solving, theme - based and trans-disciplinary in nature. Also, interestingly Environmental Studies perceived by Colleges of Education course structure as a subject being taught in the basic school is a total misplacement. Rather, Citizenship Education is currently the subject taught at the upper primary schools in Ghana and not Environmental Studies as the curriculum document depicts.

The Colleges of Education Social Studies course content is more of Geography. Out of the thirty three topics for the two years "In" Policy of the In-In-Out Programme of the Colleges of Education in Ghana, 15 of the topics dwelt on professional topics (methods of teaching social studies), whilst 10 were broad geography topics, that is over 55% (see Appendix B) which most of them have no bearing to the basic teaching and learning of Social Studies. This was done by taking the fifteen professional topics from the thirty-three topics and striking the percentage of the 10 broad topics of the remaining 18 topics for the three semesters (see Appendix B). Most of the topics for

the three semesters where content is taught are found not to be in the ideal curriculum in use at the JHS level. The curriculum is rather in consonance of the 1987 JHS Social Studies syllabus. Therefore subject content has no bearing with the JHS Social Studies syllabus. Whilst Social Studies / Environmental Studies is taught at the colleges, Citizenship Education and Social Studies is taught at the Upper Primary and JHS respectively. This means that teachers will be found wanting teaching Citizenship Education at the upper primary, since they were taught Environmental Studies while in college. Also Social Studies at the colleges is full of geography topics, whilst at the JHS it is issue oriented and how problems can be tackled and solved. This means there is a gap that needs to be filled if Social Studies is seen as an issue oriented subject with a transdisciplinary approach to its teaching and learning.

#### **4.3 Final Year Teacher-Trainees' Conceptions of Social Studies**

Conceptions of final year teacher-trainees (mentees) are presented under this section. The main focus of this section is to establish whether Social Studies conceptions by final year teacher-trainees of CoEs are different from how the Basic Social Studies curriculum is structured in Ghana. The above theme was used in order to arrive at answers to the Research Question 2:

*What differences in structure have final year teacher trainees encountered from their experiences with the College of Education Social Studies curriculum and the Junior High School teaching syllabus?*

Some items were placed in the questionnaire to elicit mentees' views on the issue. Research Question 2 is discussed under two sub-themes: 4.3.1 final year teacher-trainees' understanding of the term 'Social Studies'; and 4.3.2 final year teacher-



trainees' conceptions of the scope of content of Social Studies. Questionnaire outcomes using simple percentages were triangulated with focus group discussion on some of the concepts discussed.

#### **4.3.1 Final year teacher-trainees' understanding of the term "Social Studies"**

The understanding of final year teacher-trainees' conceptions of the term 'Social Studies' is discussed here. Some items were placed in the questionnaire to elicit final year teacher-trainees' views on the issue. The responses are presented in the Table 4.2 below:



**Table 4.2 Final year teacher-trainees' understanding of the term "Social Studies"**

Items	Responses from Questionnaire			
	D. (%)	U. (%)	A. (%)	Total (%)
1. Social Studies is an amalgamation of the social sciences.	8 (5.3)	12 (8.0)	130 (86.7)	150 (100)
2. Social Studies is a method of teaching.	83 (55.3)	20 (13.3)	47 (31.3)	150 (100)
3. Social Studies is Citizenship Education.	0 (.0)	2 (1.3)	148 (98.7)	150 (100)
4. Social Studies is Global Citizenship Education.	4 (2.7)	15 (10.0)	131 (87.3)	150 (100)
5. Social Studies can be seen as civic engagement / participatory citizen.	3 (2.0)	11 (7.3)	136 (90.7)	150 (100)
6. Social Studies can be seen as Multicultural Education.	6 (4.0)	16 (10.7)	128 (85.3)	150 (100)
7. Social Studies can be seen as Human Rights Education.	2 (1.3)	3 (2.0)	145 (96.7)	150 (100)
8. Social Studies can be seen as Political Education.	2 (1.3)	13 (8.7)	135 (90.0)	150 (100)
9. Social Studies can be seen as Economic Education.	8 (5.3)	14 (9.3)	128 (85.3)	150 (100)
10. Social Studies can be seen as Peace Education.	5 (3.3)	4 (2.7)	141 (94.0)	150 (100)
11. Social Studies can be seen as Moral Education.	11 (7.3)	18 (12.0)	121 (80.7)	150 (100)
12. Social Studies can be seen as the teaching of geographical concepts.	2 (1.3)	4 (2.7)	144 (96.0)	150 (100)
13. Social Studies can be seen as the teaching of historical facts.	74 (49.3)	11 (7.3)	65 (43.3)	150 (100)

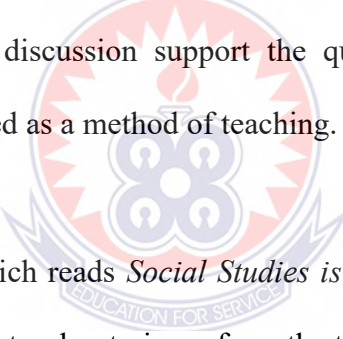
A. - *Agree*, U. - *Uncertain*, D. - *Disagree*. Figures in bracket are percentages.

Item 1 of Table 4.2 which reads - *Social Studies is an Amalgamation of the Social Sciences* shows that out of the 150 respondents from the three Colleges, 130 (86.7%) agreed, 12 (8.0%) were not certain, whilst 8 (5.3%) disagreed. The 130 (86.7%) agreeing out of the 150 mentees implies that greater percentage of the trainees agreed that Social Studies is an amalgamation of the social sciences. With the focus group

discussion on - *Do you see Social Studies as an amalgamation of the social sciences? Explain your answer.* With the three groups of six students, one group said that “Social Studies is an amalgamation of the social sciences because it draws relevant themes from the social science subjects like history, economics and geography.” Another group said “Social Studies as an amalgamation of the social sciences in the sense that facts, concepts, principles, ideas, generalisations, values etc. are drawn from the social sciences and other fields of study into a given subject.” The third group however, said Social Studies is not necessarily an amalgamation of the social sciences. The reason the group gave was that Social Studies is a problem solving subject that deals with issues. This explains what Shiundu and Mohammed (1994) described as the influence of unique traditions of the institutions that train teachers on the framework of their conceptions about whatever subject they learn during their initial training. This implies that mentees’ conceptions formed about Social Studies will live with them, and it is likely that it will influence their classroom practices. It is highly said that when people are indoctrinated, it becomes very difficult for them to be de-indoctrinated.

The item 2 of Table 4.2 which reads *Social Studies is a Method of Teaching* shows that out of the 150 respondents from the three Colleges, 47 (31.3%) agreed, 20 (13.3%) were not certain, whilst respondents who disagreed were 83 (55.3%). A little greater percentage of the mentees disagreed that Social Studies is a method of teaching. With the focus group discussion on- *Do you see Social Studies as a Method of Teaching?* One group said yes and the reason was, it has distinctive techniques and

strategies college tutors employ in teaching the subject which is different from that of the other subjects. When asked further about the techniques, the group gave examples like simulation, discussion, debate, role-play etc. when asked why? The group said for instance discussion and debates make people to be tolerant as they disagree to agree on issues. The remaining two groups, however, did not see Social Studies as a method of teaching. One of the two remaining group said Social Studies is like any of the subjects taught in the school and does not lend itself to any extraordinary teaching method, whilst the other group said any technique can be used to teach Social Studies and any other subject but it takes only the teacher to use varying techniques and strategies that may result in helping pupils to become problem solvers. The outcomes from the focus group discussion support the questionnaire outcomes that Social Studies cannot be viewed as a method of teaching.

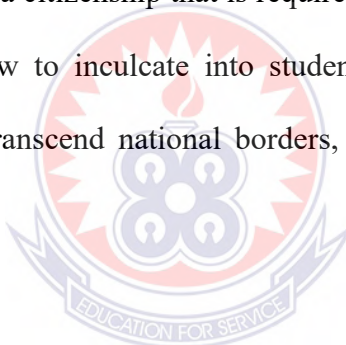


Item 3 of Table 4.2 which reads *Social Studies is Citizenship Education*, shows that out of the 150 final year teacher trainees from the three Colleges, 148 (98.7%) agreed, whilst 2 (1.3%) were not certain whether Social Studies is Citizenship Education. None from the three Colleges disagreed. The 148 (98.7%) agreeing out of the 150 respondents implies that greater percentage of the mentees agreed that Social Studies is Citizenship Education. With the focus group discussion item on - *Do you see Social Studies as Citizenship Education? Give reason for your answer*. All the three groups said yes with varying reasons. Interestingly, one group consensually agreed and the reason is “citizenship education is bringing the relevant themes from the social science subjects together to become Social Studies”. Another group said yes and the

reason was ‘the heart of the subject is building ideal citizens for a country as it equips people to solve today’s and tomorrow’s problems of their community’. The last group said “citizenship education is training citizens who will participate in ideal activities of society”. The views of the respondents supports the views of Thornton (1994:224), that while “most Social Studies leaders and policymakers justify the subject on the grounds of citizenship...it is here that the consensus ends: What does citizenship mean and what, in turn, does this mean for curriculum and instruction?”. This implies that differences may exist in the conceptualisation of Social Studies as Citizenship Education but its focal point must reflect on how contemporary problems could be solved.

Item 4 of Table 4.2 which reads *Social Studies is Global Citizenship* shows that out of the 150 respondents from the three Colleges, 131 (87.3%) agreed, 15 (10.0%) were not certain, whilst 4 (2.7%) disagreed. The 131 (87.3%) agreeing out of the 150 respondents indicates that greater percentage of the mentees agreed that Social Studies is Global Citizenship Education. The responses from the focus group discussion on - *Is Social Studies Global Citizenship? Explain your answer*. Their explanations really speak into the need for global citizenship. To them there is always spill over of civil wars and other disturbances of one’s place or country unto another country. Some said for instance Ghana as a country is having other nationals living here as refugees as a result of political upheavals they faced in their country. Respondents conceptualizing Social Studies as global citizenship supports the views of Obebe (1990) that Social Studies has transformed from citizenship education for

national development by enlarging the vision and meaning of citizenship to include not only the local community, the state and the nation, but also the global community. This is in recognition of the fact that all human beings live in a multi-boundary world; not simply a world of nation-states, but one with a diversity of worldwide systems in which all people affect and are affected by others across the globe. The findings also support McIntosh (2005:23) who related the idea of the global citizen to “habits of mind, heart, body, and soul that have to do with working for and preserving a network of relationships and connections across lines of difference and distinctness, while keeping and deepening a sense of one's own identity and integrity”. To me, it is the logical development of a citizenship that is required for all citizens in the 21st century and learning about how to inculcate into students becoming decision-makers and problem solvers that transcend national borders, simply because we now live in a shrinking world.



Item 5 of Table 4.2 which reads *Social Studies can be seen as civic engagement / participatory citizen* shows that out of the 150 respondents from the three Colleges, 136 (90.7%) agreed, 11 (7.3%) were not certain, whilst respondents who disagreed were 3 (2.0%). The 136 (90.7%) agreeing out of the respondents of 150 implies that greater percentage of the trainees agreed Social Studies can be seen as civic engagement/ participatory citizen. Although, this sounds good, Print and Smith (2000) said to prepare students for active citizenship, it is imperative that the implementation of Social Studies be accompanied by appropriate educational practices and pedagogy that encourage participative skills and values. To me, while

the acquisition of knowledge can enhance awareness, awareness itself does not necessarily lead to effectiveness or a more participative role in shaping Ghana's destiny. The crust of the matter is behavioural change.

Item 6 of Table 4.2 which reads *Social Studies can be seen as Multicultural Education* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher trainees from the three Colleges, 128 (85.3%) agreed, 16 (10.7%) were not certain, whilst 6 (4.0%) disagreed. The 128 (85.3%) agreeing out of the 150 respondents indicate that greater percentage of the mentees agreed that Social Studies can be seen as multicultural education. This shows that students quickly learn things such as attitudes etc. as they watch and learn from what others do and say (Ramsey, 1982). With this Quashigah (2001), cited in Merryfield and Wilson (2005:37) writes that: we need an appreciation of global issues which would lead to the realisation that the world has a common course and then we can talk a common future. We have been emphasising this is America, this is Africa, instead of emphasising this is the world... the U.S. is rich and powerful and exploits resources so it has tons of garbage to be dumped elsewhere. Should that garbage be exported to West Africa? In the framework of citizenship education, Quashigah (2001) uses multicultural perspective and asked for double consciousness that might lead to a common future. This implies that teachers need to play an important role in developing effective multicultural practices in their students.

Item 7 of Table 4.2 which reads *Social Studies can be seen as Human Rights Education* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher trainees from the three

Colleges, 145 (96.7%) agreed, 3 (2.0%) were not certain whether Social Studies can be seen as human rights education, whilst 2 (1.3%) of the respondents disagreed. The 145 (96.7%) agreeing out of the 150 respondents implies that greater percentage of the mentees agreed that Social Studies can be seen as human rights education. With the focus group discussion on - *Do you see Social Studies as Human Rights Education? Explain your answer.* All the three groups said Social Studies can be viewed as human rights education. One group gave the reason as “Social Studies is about development of society and neither can people nor do communities develop when there are disturbances”. Another group concluded that “it is through Social Studies education that one gets to know his/her rights and liberties enshrined in the 1992 constitution of Ghana”. The third group centred their thought on “...Social Studies made them to understand the need for people to live and be lived with one another in peace and unity... that Social Studies deals with provisions of human rights”. The focus group discussions really support the outcome of the questionnaire administered.

Item 8 which reads *Social Studies can be seen as Political Education* shows that 135 (90.0%) agreed out of the 150 respondents. This implies that greater percentage of the mentees agreed that Social Studies can be seen as political education. With the focus group discussion on - *Do you see Social Studies as Political Education? Explain your answer.* All the three focus groups agreed that Social Studies can be seen as political education. They came out with varying reasons like: the subject teaches them how to participate successfully in the civic life of their community; help them acquire skills



to influence policies; sensitise them on how and why to vote in elections; and become aware of issues on constitutional rule and the importance of democracy. Political education was seen as an important conceptual perspective as some cited the need of neither the NDC nor the NPP picking arms in settling the NPP's dissatisfaction of the 2012 election after the electoral commissioner had declared the NDC's presidential candidate the winner, but the aggrieved party petitioned the supreme court of the land for smooth adjudication. Most of the mentees saw the need for the two political parties agreeing to accept the verdict the Supreme Court will pronounce. The outcomes of the questionnaire and the focus group discussion support Westheimer and Kahne (2003) that through Social Studies students can receive the support they need to express their opinions on political, social and controversial issues. In this way, students can develop the ability to critique, analyse and formulate possibilities for action critical for responsive citizenship. This is because Social Studies deals directly with human problems and tries to shape the behaviours of individuals.

Item 9 which reads *Social Studies can be seen as Economic Education* shows that 128 (85.3%) agreed out of the respondents of 150. This implies that greater percentage of the mentees agreed that Social Studies can be seen as economic education (page 149). For better clarification, a focus group discussion was carried out on - *Do you see Social Studies as Economic Education? Explain your answer.* One of the three groups of six, said yes and concluded that “the subject help one to make informed decision for example on buying and selling”. Another group came out that “Social Studies can be seen as economic education because as a subject it is concerned with aspect of

production, distribution and consumption of goods and provision of services”. The third group concluded that “it deals with how to use scarce resources efficiently and effectively to satisfy man’s needs”. Responses from the focus group discussion support the outcomes of the questionnaire administered.

Item 10 of Table 4.2 which reads *Social Studies can be seen as Peace Education* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher trainees from the three Colleges, 141 (94.0%) agreed, 4 (2.7%) were not certain, whilst 5 (3.3%) disagreed. The 141 (94.0%) agreeing out of the 150 respondents implies that greater percentage of the mentees agreed that Social Studies can be seen as peace education. The responses show that peace education can be seen as a conceptual perspective of Social Studies. As a perspective in this regard, Adesina (2010) asserts that the main purpose of its introduction into a country's educational system is to bring about good and socially competent citizens that would live cordially with the members of the society and contribute individually and collectively to the growth and development. This implies that teachers of the subject need to make it their clarion call in their classroom activities.

Item 11 of Table 4.2 which reads *Social Studies can be seen as Moral Education* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher-trainees from the three Colleges, 121 (80.7%) agreed, 18 (12.0%) were not certain, whilst 11 (7.3%) disagreed. The 121 (80.7%) agreeing out of the 150 respondents implies that greater percentage of the mentees agreed that Social Studies can be seen as moral education. The 121 (80.7%)

agreeing out of the 150 respondents implies that greater percentage of the mentees agreed that Social Studies can be seen as moral education. This clearly shows that another conceptual perspective about Social Studies is how morals are imparted to children. In the views of Adesina (2010) moral education was introduced into the school system at the elementary stage in order to inculcate moral uprightness in small children so that by the time they grow up they would not become a menace to the nation. However, according to Adesina (2010) factors such as poor teaching methods, lackadaisical attitudes of the learners to learning because of social influences such as the attitude of the masses especially in regards to looking for money or wealth at all cost, corruption by law enforcement agents and politicians and the inconsistencies of government policies as regards to education militate against the achievement of the goals set for the subject. This really shows that Social Studies education is inextricably linked with Moral Education as both deals with how pupils will grow uprightly based on the norms of society and how corrupted attitudes can be changed.

Item 12 which reads *Social Studies can be seen as the teaching of geographical concepts* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher-trainees from the three Colleges, 144 (96.0%) agreed, 4 (2.7%) were not certain, whilst 2 (1.3%) disagreed. The 144 (96.0%) agreeing out of the 150 respondents implies that greater percentage of the mentees agreed that Social Studies can be seen as the teaching of geographical concepts. For better clarification, a focus group discussion was carried out on - *Do you see Social Studies as the teaching of geographical concepts? Explain your answer.* All the three groups came out that Social Studies can be seen as the teaching

of geographical concepts. When asked why, they concluded that apart from a semester course work on methods of teaching Social Studies, the remaining three semesters for the two years on campus course work are made up of many geography topics (See Appendix B). These go to support the outcome of the documentary analysis of the content and nature of the College of Education Social Studies curriculum vis-à-vis the JHS Social Studies syllabus.

Item 13 of Table 4.2 which reads *Social Studies can be seen as the teaching of historical facts* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher-trainees from the three Colleges, 65 (43.3%) agreed, 11 (7.3%) were not certain, whilst 74 (49.3%) disagreed. The 74 (49.3%) disagreeing against the 65 (43.3%) agreeing out of 150 mentees implies that greater percentage invariably disagreed that Social Studies can be seen as the teaching of historical facts. The responses show that final year teacher-trainees indicated that the teaching of historical facts cannot be seen as a conceptual perspective in Social Studies in the Colleges of Education in Ghana. This outcome supports the outcome of the documentary analysis of the CoE Social Studies curriculum vis-à-vis the JHS Social Studies syllabus. That is, while the JHS Social Studies syllabus contains history topics that of the College of Education does not contain history topics.

Concluding this section on the final year teacher-trainees' understanding of the term "Social Studies, Martorella (1994) holds the view that the field of Social Studies is so caught up in ambiguity, inconsistency and contradiction that it represents a complex educational enigma. In the views of Quartey (1984:13), "In the academic world,

almost every subject has had its changing views.” Lawal and Oyeleye (2003) in support of this view remarked that the definitions, nature and scope of the subject became so restricted to the confinements of the single discipline purview of the Social Sciences. This implies that there has been emerging conceptions of Social Studies through time and space with regards to its meaning, scope, nature, objectives and even the way assessment tools are selected in teaching it.

#### **4.3.2 Final year teacher-trainees’ conceptions of the scope of content of Social Studies**

Conceptions of final year teacher-trainees’ on the scope of content of Social Studies are discussed here. Some items were placed in the questionnaire to elicit teachers’ views on the issue. Some of the analysed questionnaire outcomes using simple percentages were triangulated with focus group discussion or interviews on the said concept discussed. The questionnaire responses are presented in the Table 4.3 below:

**Table 4.3 Final year teacher-trainees' conceptions of the scope of content of Social Studies**

Items	D. (%)	U. (%)	A. (%)	Total
1. Social Studies curriculum of schools should be subject-centred (i.e. Geography, Economics, etc.).	37 (24.7)	17 (11.3)	96 (64.0)	150 (100)
2. Social Studies curriculum should focus on problem-solving skills.	17 (13.3)	10 (6.7)	123 (82.0)	150 (100)
3. Scope of Social Studies Education is based on current issues in society.	61 (40.7)	16 (10.7)	73 (48.7)	150 (100)
4. The scope of Social Studies is based on solving issues that threaten human survival.	24 (13.3)	16.0 (14.0)	105 (70.0)	150 (100)
5. There is significant difference between the content of Social Studies and the social sciences.	39 (26.0)	37 (24.7)	74 (49.3)	150 (100)
6. There is a major difference in the method of teaching Social Studies and the social sciences.	45 (30.0)	36 (24.0)	69 (46.0)	150 (100)
7. There is significant difference between Citizenship Education and education for citizenry.	54 (36.0)	44 (29.3)	52 (34.7)	150 (100)
8. Social Studies curriculum should be separated into individual subject areas rather than organised as integrated disciplines.	50 (33.3)	12 (8.0)	88 (58.7)	150 (100)
9. Social Studies curriculum should be determined by content that is essential for the development of positive attitudes of students.	9 (6.0)	11 (7.3)	130 (88.0)	150 (100)
10. The Social Studies curriculum of the schools should focus on the great thinkers and problem solvers of the past.	78 (52.0)	14 (9.3)	58 (38.7)	150 (100)
11. Social Studies curriculum needs to focus on critical examination of controversial issues.	50 (33.3)	20 (13.3)	80 (53.3)	150 (100)
12. Critical thinking is the most important skill for problem solving, inquiry and discovery in Social Studies.	6 (4.0)	14 (9.3)	130 (86.7)	150 (100)
13. Social Studies curriculum needs to focus on the critical thinking about important social and political issues.	9 (6.0)	10 (6.7)	131 (87.3)	150 (100)
14. Curriculum planners should consider key social and cultural situations in the community in the Social Studies programme.	4 (2.7)	26 (17.3)	120 (80.0)	150 (100)

A. - Agree, U. - Uncertain, D. - Disagree. Figures in bracket are percentages.

Item 1 of Table 4.3 which is - *Social Studies curriculum of schools should be subject-centred (i.e. Geography, History, Economics, Sociology, etc.)* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher-trainees from the three Colleges, 96 (64.0%) agreed, 17

(11.3%) were not certain, whilst 37 (24.7%) disagreed. The 96 (64.0%) agreeing out of the respondents of 150 implies that greater percentage of the mentees agreed that Social Studies curriculum of schools should be subject-centred. With the focus group discussion on - *Do Social Studies curriculum of schools be subject-centred (i.e. Geography, History, Economics, Sociology, etc.)? Explain your answer.* With the three groups of six students, one group said yes with this reason “that in our college different subject teachers are employed with a task to teach different aspects of the subject such as Geography, Economics etc in the name of Social Studies”. Another group said yes with this reason “Social Studies at the college is full of geography and some of us do not do geography in the secondary school making the learning difficulties... and some topics from other subjects which are not familiar...some of us did programmes like Visual Arts, Home Economics, Business...so you now know the reason”. The third group concluded, “Yes in the sense that it sounds difficult for a teacher to be well abreast in teaching both the content and method integration effectively in class...division of labour will be better”. Different conceptions of the subject are likely to influence mentees to adopt teaching approaches that are consistent with their conceptions. Kyle (1999) adds that in many cases student-teachers are taught certain concepts and are expected to embody them in their teachers’ mind set. They are then expected to think in their subject areas and the routines of activities that they are to observe and how they are to behave. This means that efforts to improve teaching in Social Studies will often fail if the complexity of teaching it is underestimated. In teaching the subject there should be the attempts to

rather consider the integrated system of relationships that constitute the teaching experience as a whole.

Item 2 of Table 4.3 which is - *Curriculum of Social Studies should focus on problem-solving skills* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher-trainees from the three Colleges, 123 (82.0%) agreed, 10 (6.7%) were not certain, whilst 17 (11.3.0%) disagreed. The 123 (82.0%) agreeing out of the respondents of 150 implies that greater percentage of the mentees agreed that curriculum of Social Studies should focus on problem-solving skills. When trainees on practice were asked to come out with the core mandate of learning social studies as a subject, they gave responses that merit its problem solving purpose. Their responses really indicated that Social Studies is seen as a subject introduced solely to right the wrong in society and its teaching and learning must be centred on how to identify and solve problems of society.

Item 3 of Table 4.3 which is - *The scope of Social Studies Education is based on current issues in society* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher trainees from the three Colleges, 73 (48.7%) agreed, 16 (10.7%) were not certain, whilst 61 (40.7%) disagreed. The almost split decision of the findings supports Hodson (1999), “that when teachers are presented with a particular teaching/learning task, set within a distinctive educational context, a unique learning context is created”. This explains the mentees’ distinctive personal framework of understanding whether the scope of Social Studies education should be based on current issues in society. This shows that, although, the colleges of education have a homogenous curriculum, the

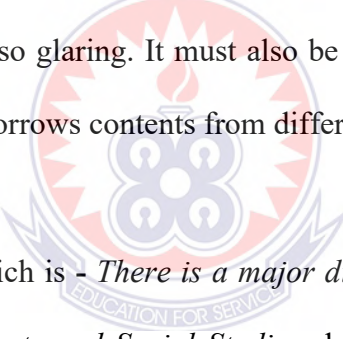


differences in conceptualizing the scope of content to cover current issues in society by mentees, may be as a result of the different modes of delivering the subject to teacher-trainees by tutors. This supports the findings of research conducted by Bekoe and Eshun (2013:111c) that teachers varied conceptions about Social Studies as an amalgamation of the social sciences, citizenship education, reflective inquiry or problem solving have influence on their classroom practices.

Item 4 of Table 4.3 which is - *The scope of Social Studies Education is based on solving issues that threatens human survival* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher trainees from the three Colleges, 105 (70.0%) agreed, 21 (14.0%) were not certain, whilst 24 (16.0%) disagreed. The 105 (70.0%) agreeing out of the 150 respondents implies that greater percentage of the mentees agreed that the scope of Social Studies is based on solving issues that threaten human survival. The findings supports what Quartey (1984) postulated Social Studies to be, as the study that equips the youth with tools necessary in solving personal and community related problems. To him, the main emphasis of Social Studies is on developing the relevant knowledge, skills, attitudes and values that will enable learners to make reflective decisions and act on them to solve both personal and societal problems. This implies that the scope of content of Social Studies should deals with solving the problems of man.

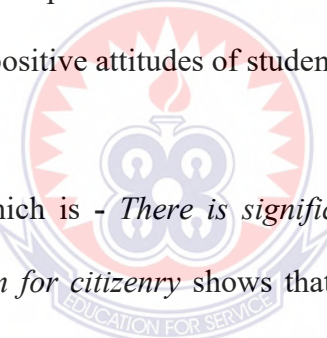
Item 5 of Table 4.3 which reads - *There is significant difference between the content of social science subjects and Social Studies*, shows that out of the 150 final year

teacher-trainees from the three Colleges, 74 (49.3%) agreed, 37 (24.7%) were not certain, whilst 39 (26.0%) disagreed. Those who disagreed and those who were not certain whether there is significant difference between the content of Social Studies and social sciences were more than those who agreed. The responses show that from the perspective of the traditions of Social Studies (Barr, Barth & Shermis, 1977), Social Studies in the Ghanaian context too, is largely conceptualised and taught as citizenship transmission and as a simplified social science. This implies that there is the need to inculcate in students that Social Studies as a subject stands on its own, although borrows relevant themes from the social sciences into a transdisciplinary perspective and not crossdisciplinary, and multidisciplinary perspectives whereby all its distinctive parts are so glaring. It must also be known that Social Studies does so as many subjects also borrows contents from different subjects areas.



Item 6 of Table 4.3 which is - *There is a major difference in the method of teaching the social science subjects and Social Studies* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher trainees from the three Colleges, 69 (46.0%) agreed, 36 (24.0%) were not certain, whilst 45 (30.0%) disagreed. Those who disagreed and those who were not certain whether there is a major difference in the method of teaching Social Studies and the social sciences were more than those who agreed. Respondents were tossed between whether there is a major difference in the method of teaching Social Studies and social sciences. Social Studies as a subject is an issue oriented subject and should be taught to result in students having positive attitudes and acquisition of skills to solve threatening problems. According to Zimbardo and Leippe (1991), "a persuasive

message is most likely to cause attitude and behaviour change if it can shape both beliefs about its topic and beliefs about what important individuals and social groups think about the topic and how they behave towards it". The most effective persuasive messages are those "that get the audience to think about an issue or object in concrete, vivid images that have definite implications for behaviour" (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991). This implies that as a subject the objective of teaching it should be linked to how relevant skills, attitudes and worthwhile knowledge are imparted to young ones so that they will grow with its ideal of becoming responsible and well informed citizens in their communities. This means Social Studies should not be taught by bootlegging facts and concepts from the social sciences but persuasive messages and issues that can develop positive attitudes of students.



Item 7 of Table 4.3 which is - *There is significant difference between citizenship education and education for citizenry* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher-trainees from the three Colleges, 52 (34.7%) agreed, 44 (29.3%) were not certain, whilst 54 (36.0%) disagreed. Those who disagreed and those who were not certain whether there is significant difference between citizenship education and education for citizenry were more than those who agreed. There is a problem as mentees could not agree that there is significant difference between citizenship education and education for citizenry. In seeking to answer such a question, Barr, Barth and Shermis (1977) culled the literature and found three approaches to Social Studies - citizenship transmission, reflective inquiry, and social science method, each of which resulted in a different conception of a citizen and a different approach to prepare young people

for citizenry. This implies that the teaching of Social Studies should be stressed as an issue oriented subject with a transdisciplinary approach and that it is through citizenship education that young people are prepared for citizenry.

Item 8 of Table 4.3 which is - *Social Studies curriculum should be separated into individual subject areas rather than organised as integrated discipline* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher-trainees from the three Colleges, 88 (58.7%) agreed, 12 (8.0%) were not certain, whilst 50 (33.3%) disagreed. The 88 (58.7%) agreeing out of the 150 respondents implies that greater percentage of the mentees agreed that Social Studies curriculum should be separated into individual subject areas rather than organised as integrated discipline. For clarification a focus group discussion on - *Should Social Studies curriculum be separated into individual subject areas rather than organised as integrated discipline? Explain your answer.* Two of the three groups said yes with the following reasons. What the two groups came out can be summarised as, since its scope of content comprised different subject areas then it is important that it is separated into their individual subjects for easy teaching and learning. The third group said no with this reason “it is Social Studies and not Economics - Social Studies or Geography - Social Studies and other subject-social studies... the content and method integration should rather be applied in its teaching”. This shows that respondents were not decisive on Social Studies curriculum being separated into individual subject areas rather than organised as integrated discipline. These clear conceptual differences will go a long way to influence mentees in perceiving the subject, selection of its content, how it will be taught and even the

assessment procedure to be used. According to Senechal, (2008) “integrated approaches motivate and interest students in ways that disciplinary content, delivered by traditional pedagogical means, fail to do”. Parker (2005) sums up the varying definitions of an interdisciplinary or integrated curriculum by describing it “as a curriculum approach that purposefully draws together knowledge, perspectives, and methods of inquiry from more than one discipline to develop a more powerful understanding of a central idea, issue, person, or event. The purpose is not to eliminate the individual disciplines but to use them in combination.” Jenkins (2007) argued that students need better, more realistic ideas about the multiple realities of what constitutes Social Studies in the real world and wonders “whether a subject-based curriculum can provide students with the inter - and cross-disciplinary perspectives required to respond to challenges of this (global) kind”. To me, that is why the content of the curriculum, and the aims and functions of schooling is very imperative that need not to be under emphasised. The issue of what should be taught to students at all levels of education (the issue of curriculum content) obviously is a fundamental one, and it is an extraordinarily difficult one with which to grapple with. Making inferences, it is then very important that, in tackling the ideal Social Studies curriculum, care needs to be taken to distinguish between education and schooling-for-although education can occur in schools, so can miss-education.

Item 9 of Table 4.3 which is *Curriculum should be determined by content that is essential for the development of positive attitudes of students* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher trainees from the three Colleges, 130 (86.7%) agreed, 11

(7.3%) were not certain, whilst 9 (6.0%) disagreed. The 130 (86.7%) agreeing out of the 150 respondents implies that greater percentage of the mentees agreed that Social Studies curriculum should be determined by content that is essential for the development of positive attitudes of students. Teaching and learning about how to inculcate into students how to become competent, reflective and responsible citizens and about critical decision-making must be taken very seriously in Social Studies curricula of institutions as curriculum dictates what is taught in schools. This can be done best when content is packed in attitudes building themes. Simonson and Maushak (2001) have drawn on findings from a number of studies to create a series of six guidelines for effective design of attitude instruction: make the instruction realistic, relevant, and technically stimulating; present new information; present persuasive messages in a credible manner; elicit purposeful emotional involvement; involve the learner in planning production or delivery of the message; and provide post-instruction discussion or critique opportunities.

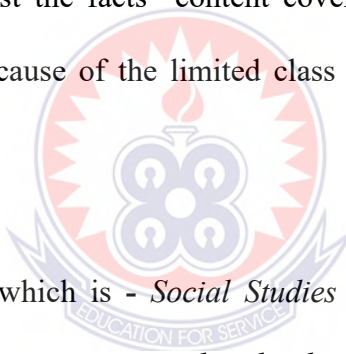
Item 10 of Table 4.3 which is - *Social Studies curriculum of schools should focus on the great thinkers and problem solvers of the past*, shows that out of the 150 final year teacher-trainees from the three Colleges, 58 (38.7%) agreed, 14 (9.3%) were not certain, whilst 78 (52.0%) disagreed. The 78 (52.0%) disagreeing out of the 150 respondents implies that greater percentage of the mentees disagreed that the Social Studies curriculum of the schools should focus on the great thinkers and problem solvers of the past. The responses go to supports the documentary analysis of CoE Social Studies curriculum which shows that themes in history are none existing in the

Colleges of Education Social Studies curriculum as compared to the JHS Social Studies syllabus, let alone those dealing with great thinkers and problem solvers of the past (See Appendix B).

Item 11 of Table 4.3 which is *Social Studies curriculum needs to focus on the critical examination of controversial issues* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher-trainees from the three Colleges, 80 (53.3%) agreed, 20 (13.3%) were not certain, whilst 50 (33.3%) disagreed. The 80 (53.3%) agreeing out of the 150 mentees implies that greater percentage of the trainees agreed that Social Studies curriculum needs to focus on critical examination of controversial issues. The findings shows that the growing amount of comparative research, demonstrates that “the traditional notion of developing democratic understanding needs to be expanded to encompass attention to decision making, controversial issues, and civic action set in multicultural and global contexts” (Hahn, 2001:21). It can therefore be concluded that traditional citizenship education should focuses on critical examination of controversial issues which is well suited to developing some of the intellectual skills necessary for civic and political participation.

Item 12 of Table 4.3 which is - *Critical thinking is the most important skill for problem solving, inquiry and discovery in Social Studies*, shows that out of the 150 final year teacher trainees from the three Colleges, 130 (86.7%) agreed, 14 (9.3%) were not certain, whilst 6 (4.0%) disagreed. The 130 (86.7%) agreeing out of the 150 mentees implies that greater percentage of the mentees agreed that critical thinking is

the most important skill for problem solving, inquiry and discovery in Social Studies. Critical thinking is the systematic approach of skilfully evaluating information to arrive at the most feasible solution to a variety of structured and ill-structured problems (Winch, 2006; Laxman, 2010; Shah, 2010). To begin with, the way Social Studies is taught need to get a makeover. To me, so many Social Studies teachers only teach by lecturing and expect rote memorisation from their students. This happens often because of the “overwhelming amount of material contained in a typical state Social Studies curriculum framework” (Vogler & Virtue, 2007: 55). The teachers have so much information they are required to cover that they “have trouble getting beyond the “just the facts” content coverage and into higher-level, critical thinking, especially because of the limited class time available” (Vogler & Virtue, 2007: 55).



Item 13 of Table 4.3 which is - *Social Studies curriculum needs to focus on the critical thinking about important social and political issues* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher-trainees from the three Colleges, 131 (87.3%) agreed, 10 (6.7%) were not certain, whilst 9 (6.0%) disagreed. The 131 (87.3%) agreeing out of the 150 mentees implies that greater percentage of them agreed that Social Studies curriculum needs to focus on the critical thinking about important social and political issues. Conceptualizing the scope of content of Social Studies curriculum to focus on the critical thinking about important social and political issues, Torney-Purta and Lopez (2006:7) indicated that: schools and other organisations foster civic engagement when they help students to do the following: working with others toward political goal;



interpreting political information; participate in respectful discourse about social and political issues; learn about effective leadership in groups of peers, and how to mitigate the influence of negative experiences such as bullying; join other students and adults to address a community need; assess opportunities to solve community problems; express their views in media forms that are attractive and familiar to them. It can therefore be concluded that traditional citizenship education is well suited to developing some of the intellectual skills necessary for civic and political participation.

Item 14 of Table 4.3 which is - *Social Studies curriculum planners should consider key social and cultural situations in the community in the Social Studies programme*, shows that out of the 150 final year teacher-trainees from the three Colleges, 120 (80.0%) agreed, 26 (17.3%) were not certain, whilst 4 (2.7%) disagreed. The 120 (80.0%) agreeing out of the 150 mentees implies that greater percentage of them agreed that Social Studies curriculum planners should consider key social and cultural situations in the community in the Social Studies programme. Culture is dynamic so it is very important to be abreast with what culture is and why the ideal culture need to be preserved and those objectionable ones like widowhood rites abolished or refined. A citizen cannot be called educated if he or she is trained to misunderstand his or her immediate environment and the world. Rich tradition can be an anchor of stability and a shield to guard one from irresponsibility and hasty decision.

Contextualizing this section on the final year teacher-trainees' conceptions of the scope of content of Social Studies, the subject can be seen as a discipline that has suffered from identity crisis over the years due to many perspective dimensions given to it content. Martorella (1994) for instance, argues that its ambiguous nature has turned it into educational puzzle. This will create differences in conceptions and ultimately influence the content and create confusion as to which direction the particular content has to go. This brings to the fore the different schools of thought about Social Studies through time and space. However, the focuses are the objectives around which the various proponents identified as elements of their conceptual dimensions and given definitions.

#### **4.4 Final Year Teacher-Trainees' Sense of Efficacy in Implementing the Basic School Social Studies Curriculum**

Differences in conceptions and curricula structures of Social Studies in the College of Education vis-à-vis the JHS syllabus and its influence on final year teacher-trainees' sense of efficacy in implementing the Basic School curriculum are discussed under this section. The main objective of this section is to establish whether the differences in conceptions and curricula structures of Social Studies have differential impact on the classroom practices of final year teacher-trainees from the Colleges of Education teaching Social Studies at the first cycle institutions in Ghana. The above theme is used in order to arrive at answers to the Research Question 3:

*What are the levels of efficacy in implementing the Basic School curriculum as a result of the possible differences in conceptions and curricula structures of Social Studies in Ghana?*

Some items were placed in the questionnaire and observation guide to elicit teachers' view on the issue. The observation guide was used to observe Social Studies trained teaching the subject at the basic level to see how their disciplinary conceptions of Social Studies influence their classroom practices. Research Question 3 is discussed under three sub-themes: 4.4.1 Final year teacher-trainees' sense of efficacy, using questionnaire; 4.4.2 Final year teacher-trainees' conceptions of how Social Studies is to be taught, using questionnaire; and 4.4.3 Final year teacher-trainees' conceptions and classroom practices at the basic level, using the observation guide.

#### **4.4.1 Final year teacher-trainees' sense of efficacy in Social Studies lessons**

Final year teacher-trainees' sense of efficacy is discussed here. Outcomes of teachers' sense of efficacy scale were discussed under three sections. These deal with efficacy in student engagement, efficacy in instructional practices, and efficacy in classroom management. Five point Likert scale made up of 24-items were used to elicit answers from final year teacher-trainees on issue of their efficacy in teaching and learning. The questionnaires are designed to help gain a better understanding of the kinds of things that create difficulties for teachers in their school activities.

##### **4.4.1.1 Efficacy in students' engagement**

Efficacy in Social Studies students' engagement by final year teacher trainees in the Colleges of Education in Ghana is discussed under this section. The results are presented in the Table 4.4a below:

**Table 4.4a Efficacy in students' engagement in Social Studies lessons**

<i>How much can you do in your Social Studies lesson?</i>	N (%)	VL (%)	SI (%)	QB (%)	GD (%)	Total (%)
1. How much can you do to get through to the most difficult students in the teaching and learning?	17 (11.3)	5 (3.3)	84 (56.0)	30 (20.0)	14 (9.3)	150 (100)
2. How much can you do to help your students think critically?	12 (8.0)	13 (8.7)	67 (44.7)	40 (26.7)	18 (12.0)	150 (100)
3. How much can you do to control disruptive behaviour in the classroom?	21 (14.0)	74 (49.3)	54 (36.0)	0 (.0)	1 (.7)	150 (100)
4. How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in school work?	8 (5.3)	5 (3.3)	54 (36.0)	44 (29.3)	39 (26.0)	150 (100)
5. To what extent can you make your expectations clear about student behaviour?	10 (6.7)	10 (6.7)	71 (47.3)	45 (30.0)	14 (9.3)	150 (100)
6. How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in school work?	4 (2.7)	5 (3.3)	66 (44.0)	41 (27.3)	34 (22.7)	150 (100)
7. How well can you respond to difficult questions from your students?	8 (5.3)	10 (6.7)	56 (37.3)	47 (31.3)	29 (19.3)	150 (100)
8. How well can you establish routines to keep activities running smoothly?	11 (7.3)	11 (7.3)	58 (38.7)	46 (30.7)	24 (16.0)	150 (100)

N. - *Nothing*, VL.-*Very Little*, SI. - *Some Influence*, QB.-*Quite a Bit*, GD.-*Great Deal*

Figures in bracket are percentages.

Item 1 of Table 4.4a which is - *How much can you do to get through to the most difficult students in the teaching and learning?*, out of the 150 respondents, 17 (11.3%) ticked they will do nothing, 5 (3.3%) ticked they will do very little, 84 (56%) said they will exert some influence, 30 (20.0%) ticked quite a bit, whilst 14 (9.3%) ticked great deal. A weighted mean of 3.1 implies that teacher-trainees will exert some influence to get through to the most difficult students in the teaching and learning.

Item 2 of Table 4.4a which is - *How much can you do to help your students think critically?*, out of the 150 respondents, 12 (8.0%) ticked they will do nothing, 13

(8.7%) ticked they will do very little, 67 (44.7%) ticked they will exert some influence, 40 (26.7%) ticked quite a bit, whilst 18 (12.0%) ticked great deal. A weighted mean of 3.2 implies that teacher-trainees will exert some influence by helping their students to think critically.

Item 3 of Table 4.4a which is - *How much can you do to control disruptive behaviour in the classroom?*, out of the 150 respondents, 21 (14.0%) ticked they will do nothing, 74 (49.3%) ticked they will do very little, 54 (36.0%) ticked they will exert some influence, none of them (.0%) ticked quite a bit, whilst 1 (.7%) ticked great deal. A weighted mean of 2.2 implies that teacher-trainees will do very little to control disruptive behaviour in the classroom.

Item 4 of Table 4.4a which is - *How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in school work?*, out of the 150 respondents, 8 (5.3%) ticked they will do nothing, 5 (3.3%) ticked they will do very little, 54 (36.0%) ticked they will exert some influence, 44 (29.3%) ticked quite a bit, whilst 39 (26.0%) ticked great deal. A weighted mean of 3.6 implies that teacher-trainees will exert some influence to motivate students who show low interest in school work.

Item 5 of Table 4.4a which is - *To what extent can you make your expectations clear about student behaviour?*, out of the 150 respondents, 10 (6.7%) ticked they will do nothing, 10 (6.7%) ticked they will do very little, 71 (47.3%) ticked they will exert some influence, 45 (30.0%) ticked quite a bit, whilst 14 (9.3%) ticked great deal. A

weighted mean of 3.2 implies that teacher-trainees will exert some influence to make their expectations clear about student behaviour.

Item 6 of Table 4.4a which is - *How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in school work?*, out of the 150 respondents, 4 (2.7%) ticked they will do nothing, 5 (3.3%) ticked they will do very little, 66 (44.0%) ticked they will exert some influence, 41 (27.3%) ticked quite a bit, whilst 34 (22.7%) ticked great deal. A weighted mean of 3.6 implies that teacher-trainees will exert some influence to get students to believe they can do well in school work.

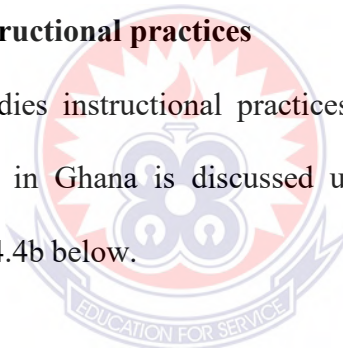
Item 7 of Table 4.4a which is - *How well can you respond to difficult questions from your students?*, out of the 150 respondents, 8 (5.3%) ticked they will do nothing, 10 (6.7%) ticked they will do very little, 56 (44.0%) said they will exert some influence, 47 (31.3%) ticked quite a bit, whilst 29 (19.3%) ticked great deal. A weighted mean of 3.5 implies that teacher-trainees will exert some influence to respond to difficult questions from their students.

Item 8 of Table 4.4a which is - *How well can you establish routines to keep activities running smoothly?*, out of the 150 respondents, 11 (7.3%) ticked they will do nothing, 11 (7.3%) ticked they will do very little, 58 (38.7%) ticked they will exert some influence, 46 (30.7%) ticked quite a bit, whilst 24 (16.0%) ticked great deal. A weighted mean of 3.4 implies that teacher-trainees will exert some influence to establish routines to keep activities running smoothly.

Contextualising the discussion on efficacy in students' engagement it was realised that apart from the question on-How much can you do to control disruptive behaviour in the classroom?, which gave a weighted mean of 2.2 meaning they could do very little; the rest gave weighted mean of 3.1 to 3.6 which indicates that teacher-trainees will exert some influence on the given concepts asked. The outcome of questionnaire administered shows that final year teacher trainees will exert some influence on the efficacy in students' engagement. However, the observation of mentees negate the ideal classroom situation of what they thought would be done by them.

#### **4.4.1.2 Efficacy in instructional practices**

Efficacy in Social Studies instructional practices by final year teacher trainees in Colleges of Education in Ghana is discussed under this section. The results are presented in the Table 4.4b below.



**Table 4.4b Efficacy in Social Studies instructional practices**

<i>How much can you do in your Social Studies lesson?</i>	N	VL	SI	QB	GD	Total
	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)
1. How much can you do to help your students' value learning?	7 (4.7)	7 (4.7)	63 (42.0)	44 (29.3)	29 (19.3)	150 (100)
2. How much can you gauge student comprehension of what you have taught?	4 (2.7)	14 (9.3)	69 (46.0)	42 (28.0)	21 (14.0)	150 (100)
3. To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?	9 (6.0)	2 (1.3)	60 (40.0)	56 (37.3)	23 (15.3)	150 (100)
4. How much can you do to foster student creativity in your lesson?	12 (8.0)	8 (5.3)	59 (39.3)	51 (34.0)	20 (13.3)	150 (100)
5. How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules?	7 (4.7)	4 (2.7)	66 (44.0)	44 (29.3)	29 (19.3)	150 (100)
6. How much can you do to improve the understanding of a student who is failing?	6 (4.0)	3 (2.0)	71 (47.3)	46 (30.7)	24 (16.0)	150 (100)
7. How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies?	7 (4.7)	8 (5.3)	60 (40.0)	55 (36.7)	20 (13.3)	150 (100)
8. To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused?	8 (5.3)	11 (7.3)	54 (36.0)	53 (35.3)	24 (16.0)	150 (100)

N.-Nothing, VL. -Very Little, SI -Some Influence, QB. -Quite a Bit, GD. -Great Deal

Figures in bracket are percentages

Item 1 of Table 4.4b which is - *How much can you do to help your students' value learning?*, out of the 150 respondents, 7 (4.7%) ticked they will do nothing, 7 (4.7%) said they will do very little, 63 (42.0%) ticked they will exert some influence, 44 (29.3%) ticked quite a bit, whilst 29 (19.3%) ticked great deal. A weighted mean of 3.5 implies that teacher-trainees will exert some influence to help their students' value learning.

Item 2 of Table 4.4b which is - *How much can you gauge student comprehension of what you have taught?*, out of the 150 respondents, 4 (2.7%) ticked they will do



nothing, 14 (9.3%) ticked they will do very little, 69 (46.0%) ticked they will exert some influence, 42 (28.0%) ticked quite a bit, whilst 21 (14.0%) ticked great deal. A weighted mean of 3.4 indicates that teacher-trainees will exert some influence to gauge student comprehension of what they have taught.

Item 3 of Table 4.4b which is - *To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?*, out of the 150 respondents, 9 (6.0%) ticked they will do nothing, 2 (1.3%) ticked they will do very little, 60 (40.0%) ticked they will exert some influence, 56 (37.3%) ticked quite a bit, whilst 23 (15.3%) ticked great deal. A weighted mean of 3.5 indicates that teacher-trainees will exert some influence in crafting good questions for their students.

Item 4 of Table 4.4b which is - *How much can you do to foster student creativity in your lesson?*, out of the 150 respondents, 12 (8.0%) said they will do nothing, 8 (5.3%) ticked they will do very little, 59 (39.3%) ticked they will exert some influence, 51 (34.0%) ticked quite a bit, whilst 20 (13.3%) ticked great deal. A weighted mean of 3.3 indicates that teacher-trainees will exert some influence to foster their students' creativity in their lesson delivery.

Item 5 of Table 4.4b which is - *How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules?*, out of the 150 respondents, 7 (4.7%) ticked they will do nothing, 4 (2.7%) ticked they will do very little, 66 (44.0%) ticked they will exert some influence, 44 (29.3%) ticked quite a bit, whilst 29 (19.3%) ticked great deal. A

weighted mean of 3.3 indicates that teacher-trainees will exert some influence to get children to follow classroom rules.

Item 6 of Table 4.4b which is - *How much can you do to improve the understanding of a student who is failing?*, out of the 150 respondents, 6 (4.0%) ticked they will do nothing, 3 (2.0%) ticked they will do very little, 71 (47.3%) ticked they will exert some influence, 46 (30.7%) ticked quite a bit, whilst 24 (16.0%) ticked great deal. A weighted mean of 3.5 indicates that teacher-trainees will exert some influence to improve the understanding of a student who is failing.

Item 7 of Table 4.4b which is - *How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies?*, out of the 150 respondents, 7 (4.7%) ticked they will do nothing, 8 (5.3%) ticked they will do very little, 60 (40.0%) ticked they will exert some influence, 55 (36.7%) ticked quite a bit, whilst 20 (13.3%) ticked great deal. A weighted mean of 3.5 indicates that teacher-trainees will exert some influence on using a variety of assessment strategies.

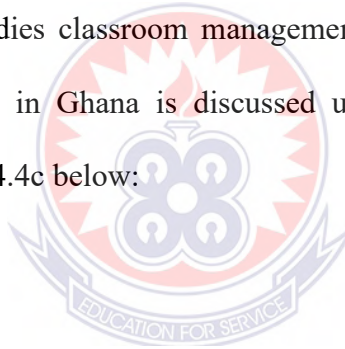
Item 8 of Table 4.4b which is - *To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused?*, out of the 150 respondents, 8 (5.3%) ticked they will do nothing, 11 (7.3%) ticked they will do very little, 54 (36.0%) ticked they will exert some influence, 53 (35.3%) ticked quite a bit, whilst 24 (16.0%) ticked great deal. A weighted mean of 3.5 indicates that teacher-trainees will

exert some influence on providing alternative explanation or example when students are confused.

Contextualizing the discussion on efficacy in instructional practices it was realised that the weighted mean ranged of 3.5 to 3.6 suggests that teacher-trainees will exert some influence on the given concepts asked. However, discrepancies existed between the ideal classroom activities mentees said they will exhibit and what they actually demonstrated in their teaching.

#### **4.4.1.3 Efficacy in classroom management**

Efficacy in Social Studies classroom management by final year teacher-trainees in Colleges of Education in Ghana is discussed under this section. The results are presented in the Table 4.4c below:



**Table 4.4c Efficacy in Social Studies classroom management**

<i>How much can you do in your Social Studies lesson?</i>	N (%)	VL (%)	SI (%)	QB (%)	GD (%)	Total (%)
1. How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy in your class?	6 (4.0)	9 (6.0)	58 (38.7)	48 (32.0)	29 (19.3)	150 (100)
2. How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students?	7 (4.7)	9 (6.0)	69 (46.0)	44 (29.3)	21 (14.0)	150 (100)
3. How much can you do to adjust your lessons to the proper level for individual students?	9 (6.0)	9 (6.0)	59 (39.3)	47 (31.3)	26 (17.3)	150 (100)
4. How well can you keep a few problem students from ruining an entire lesson?	8 (5.3)	11 (7.3)	65 (43.3)	43 (28.7)	23 (15.3)	150 (100)
5. How well can you respond to defiant students?	13 (8.7)	10 (6.7)	67 (44.7)	43 (28.7)	17 (11.3)	150 (100)
6. How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in school?	12 (8.0)	13 (8.7)	58 (38.7)	48 (32.0)	19 (12.7)	150 (100)
7. How well can you implement alternative strategies in your classroom?	7 (4.7)	9 (6.0)	69 (46.0)	48 (32.0)	17 (11.3)	150 (100)
8. How well can you provide appropriate challenges for very capable students?	11 (7.3)	6 (4.0)	61 (40.7)	45 (30.0)	27 (18.0)	150 (100)

N.-Nothing, VL.-Very Little, SI.-Some Influence, QB.-Quite a Bit, GD.-Great Deal

Figures in bracket are percentages

Item 1 of Table 4.4c which is - *How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy in your class?*, out of the 150 respondents, 6 (4.0%) ticked they will do nothing, 9 (6.0%) ticked they will do very little, 58 (38.7%) ticked they will exert some influence, 48 (32.0%) ticked quite a bit, whilst 29 (19.3%) ticked great deal. A weighted mean of 3.5 indicates that teacher-trainees will exert some influence to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy in your class.

Item 2 of Table 4.4c which is - *How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students?*, out of the 150 respondents, 7 (4.7%) ticked they will do nothing, 9 (6.0%) ticked they will do very little, 59 (39.3%) ticked they will exert some influence, 47 (31.3%) ticked quite a bit, whilst 26 (1.3%) ticked great deal. A weighted mean of 3.5 indicates that teacher-trainees will exert some influence by establishing a classroom management system with each group of students.

Item 3 of Table 4.4c which is - *How much can you do to adjust your lessons to the proper level for individual students?*, out of the 150 respondents, 9 (6.0%) ticked they will do nothing, 11 (7.3%) ticked they will do very little, 65 (43.3%) said they will exert some influence, 43 (28.7%) ticked quite a bit, whilst 23 (15.3%) ticked great deal. A weighted mean of 3.4 indicates that teacher-trainees will exert some influence by adjusting their lessons to the proper level for individual students.

Item 4 of Table 4.4c which is - *How well can you keep a few problem students from ruining an entire lesson?*, out of the 150 respondents, 8 (5.3%) ticked they will do nothing, 11 (7.3%) ticked they will do very little, 65 (43.3%) ticked they will exert some influence, 43 (28.7%) ticked quite a bit, whilst 23 (15.3%) ticked great deal. A weighted mean of 3.4 indicates that teacher-trainees will exert some influence to keep a few problem students from ruining an entire lesson.

Item 5 of Table 4.4c which is - *How well can you respond to defiant students?*, out of the 150 respondents, 13 (8.7%) ticked they will do nothing, 10 (6.7%) ticked they will

do very little, 67 (44.7%) ticked they will exert some influence, 43 (28.7%) ticked quite a bit, whilst 17 (11.3%) ticked great deal. A weighted mean of 3.2 indicates that teacher-trainees will exert some influence by responding to defiant students.

Item 6 of Table 4.4c which is - *How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in school?*, out of the 150 respondents, 12 (8.0%) said they will do nothing, 13 (8.7%) ticked they will do very little, 58 (38.7%) ticked they will exert some influence, 48 (32.0%) ticked quite a bit, whilst 19 (12.7%) ticked great deal. A weighted mean of 3.3 implies that teacher-trainees will exert some influence by assisting families in helping their children do well in school.

Item 7 of Table 4.4c which is - *How well can you implement alternative strategies in your classroom?*, out of the 150 respondents, 7 (4.7%) ticked they will do nothing, 9 (6.0%) ticked they will do very little, 69 (46.0%) ticked they will exert some influence, 48 (32.0%) ticked quite a bit, whilst 17 (11.3%) ticked great deal. A weighted mean of 3.4 implies that teacher-trainees will exert some influence by implementing alternative strategies in their classroom.

Item 8 of Table 4.4c which is - *How well can you provide appropriate challenges for very capable students?*, out of the 150 respondents, 11 (7.3%) ticked they will do nothing, 6 (4.0%) ticked they will do very little, 61 (40.7%) ticked they will exert some influence, 45 (30.0%) ticked quite a bit, whilst 27 (18.0%) ticked great deal. A

weighted mean of 3.4 implies that teacher-trainees exert some influence by providing appropriate challenges for very capable students.

Contextualizing the discussion on efficacy in instructional practices it was realised that the weighted mean ranged of 3.2 to 3.5 indicates that teacher-trainees will exert some influence on the given concepts asked.

#### **4.4.2 Final year teacher-trainees' conceptions of how Social Studies is to be taught**

The main objective of this section is to establish whether the differences in conceptions and curricula structures of Social Studies have differential impact on the final year teacher-trainees as to how they think the subject ought to be taught at the Junior High School (JHS) level. Some items were placed in the questionnaire to elicit answers to mentees' conceptions of how Social Studies ought to be taught based on research question three. Some of the analysed questionnaire outcomes using simple percentages were triangulated with interviews on the said concept under discussion. The questionnaire items and their corresponding outcomes are presented in Table 4.5 below:

**Table 4.5 Teacher-trainees' conceptions of how Social Studies ought to be taught**

No	Items	D. (%)	U. (%)	A. (%)	Total (%)
1.	Amalgamation of the Social Sciences is the best approach for Social Studies.	27 (18.0)	25 (16.7)	98 (65.3)	150 (100)
2.	Citizenship Education is the best approach for Social Studies.	18 (12.0)	29 (19.3)	103 (68.7)	150 (100)
3.	Method Integration is the best approach for Social Studies.	8 (5.3)	25 (16.7)	117 (78.0)	150 (100)
4.	Content Integration is the best approach for Social Studies.	34 (22.7)	33 (22.0)	83 (55.3)	150 (100)
5.	Presentation of facts from the Social Studies syllabus is the best way for teaching Social Studies.	36 (24.0)	27 (18.0)	87 (58.0)	150 (100)
6.	Writing narratives in Social Studies classes can prove effective at helping students learn about historical figures in a challenging and enjoyable way.	17 (11.3)	30 (20.0)	103 (68.7)	150 (100)
7.	Role-play is the best technique to help pupils grasp the ideals of Social Studies.	15 (10.0)	20 (13.3)	115 (76.6)	150 (100)
8.	Discussion technique can be effective because they can be challenging, promote learning and encourage tolerance.	5 (3.3)	16 (10.7)	129 (86.0)	150 (100)
9.	Argumentation is an excellent way for students to demonstrate their ability to think critically.	29 (19.3)	15 (10.0)	106 (70.7)	150 (100)
10.	Cooperative learning has been found to be an effective strategy for Social Studies classes.	9 (6.0)	13 (8.7)	128 (85.3)	150 (100)
11.	Persuasive messages in lesson can be used by Social Studies teachers to instil the right ideals in students - positive attitude building and behavioural change.	25 (16.7)	36 (24.0)	89 (59.3)	150 (100)
12.	Social Studies professionals should begin educational planning by focusing first on social and political issues that will affect students and society.	21 (14.0)	19 (12.7)	110 (73.3)	150 (100)
13.	There is no objective about what Social Studies should be.	88 (58.7)	40 (26.7)	22 (14.7)	150 (100)
14.	There is no universal reality about what Social Studies should be.	76 (50.7)	29 (19.3)	45 (30.0)	150 (100)
15.	The primary role of a Social Studies teacher is to increase student awareness of social issues.	9 (6.0)	6 (4.0)	135 (90.0)	150 (100)
16.	Primary role of a Social Studies teacher is to help students learn how positive attitude can impact on one's community to develop.	5 (3.3)	10 (6.7)	135 (90.0)	150 (100)
17.	The scope of Social Studies Education is based on current issues in society.	67 (44.7)	20 (13.3)	63 (42.0)	150 (100)

A. - Agree, U. - Uncertain, D. - Disagree. Figures in bracket are percentages.



**Table 4.5 Teacher-trainees' conceptions of how Social Studies ought to be taught (Continued)**

A No	Items	D. (%)	U. (%)	A. (%)	Total. (%)
18.	The scope of Social Studies Education is based on solving issues that threaten human survival.	24 (16.0)	20 (13.3)	106 (70.7)	150 (100)
19.	The aim of Social Studies Education should be to cultivate the rational thinking abilities of students.	8 (5.3)	13 (8.7)	129 (86.0)	150 (100)
20.	Purpose of Social Studies Education is to prepare students for life.	3 (2.0)	15 (10.0)	132 (88.0)	150 (100)
21.	Social Studies Education is designed to help students have positive attitudinal change.	7 (4.7)	3 (2.0)	140 (93.3)	150 (100)
22.	Social Studies is the social science in practice.	11 (7.3)	39 (26.0)	100 (66.7)	150 (100)
23.	Differences between students arise from their particular cultural and social situation and can be minimised as they recognise their common needs and problems through Social Studies Education.	3 (2.0)	35 (23.3)	112 (74.7)	150 (100)
24.	The role of Social Studies teacher is to guide students in their mastery of problem-solving processes.	12 (8.0)	21 (14.0)	117 (78.0)	150 (100)
25.	Effective Social Studies Education is NOT aimed at the immediate needs of the students or society.	58 (38.7)	17 (11.3)	75 (50.0)	150 (100)
26.	The role of Social Studies teachers is to encourage students to examine their values and beliefs and to raise critical questions, especially about societal values.	9 (6.0)	14 (9.3)	127 (84.7)	150 (100)

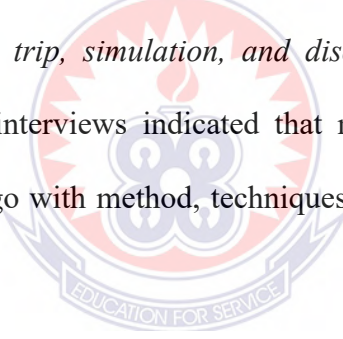
A. - Agree, U. - Uncertain, D. - Disagree. Figures in bracket are percentages.

Item 1 of Table 4.3 which is - *Amalgamation of the social sciences is the best approach for Social Studies* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher trainees from the three Colleges, 98 (65.3%) agreed, 25 (16.7%) were not certain, whilst 27 (18.0%) disagreed. The 98 (65.3%) agreeing out of the 150 of the respondents implies that greater percentage of the trainees agreed amalgamation of the social sciences is the best approach for Social Studies. If mentees should have in mind that amalgamation of the social sciences is the best approach for Social Studies then there is the likelihood that they will teach the subject by bootlegging facts from the social sciences. The findings from the studies of Evans (2004), Todd (2005), and Bekoe and Eshun (2013b) similarly indicated that the decisions of what to teach our students

under Social Studies education often shift and are dependent on the influence of the perception of the teacher about the subject. As a result of this the colleges hold it a duty to help students have better, more realistic ideas about the multiple realities of what constitutes Social Studies in the real world and wonder whether a subject-based curriculum can provide students with the inter-and cross-disciplinary perspectives required to respond to challenges of this 21<sup>st</sup> century world.

Item 2 of Table 4.5 which is - *Citizenship Education is the best approach for Social Studies* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher-trainees from the three Colleges, 103 (68.7%) agreed, 29 (19.3%) were not certain, whilst 18 (12.0%) disagreed. The 103 (68.7%) agreeing out of the 150 of the respondents implies that greater percentage of the mentees agreed that citizenship education is the best approach for Social Studies. Teachers hold the key of sound educational system of any nation and that the educational standard of the teachers, their quality, and competency and above all the conceptions they have about a subject cannot be under emphasised. This shows that teachers need to be sensitized in effective teaching in citizenship education. Citizenship education needs to be done by packing its content with attitude building approaches in teaching and learning. Smith and Ragan (1999) focus on the behavioural aspect of attitude learning and emphasise the importance of three key instructional approaches: demonstration of the desired behaviour by a respected role model; practice of the desired behaviour, often through role playing; and reinforcement of the desired behaviour.

Item 3 of Table 4.5 which is - *Method integration is the best approach for Social Studies* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher-trainees from the three Colleges, 117 (78.0%) agreed, 25 (16.7%) were not certain, whilst 8 (5.3%) disagreed. The 117 (78.0%) agreeing out of the 150 of the respondents implies that greater percentage of the trainees agreed that method integration is the best approach for Social Studies. For clarification, item 3 of the interview guide was asked-*What is “method” integration in designing the Social Studies curriculum and how is it done?* One of the mentees, Ama (not the real name) said *“I think Social Studies has a distinctive approach to teaching different from the other social sciences...so the method integration is going for different techniques of teaching which are unique to the subject...examples are debate, role-play, field trip, simulation, and discussion.”* The outcomes from the questionnaire and the interviews indicated that mentees have in mind that Social Studies teaching must go with method, techniques and strategies that will help solve societal problems.

The logo of the University of Education, Winneba, is a circular emblem. It features a central shield with a book and a lamp, surrounded by a wreath. The text 'UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA' is written around the top inner edge of the circle, and 'EDUCATION FOR SERVICE' is written along the bottom inner edge.

Item 4 of Table 4.5 which is - *Content integration is the best approach for Social Studies* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher-trainees from the three Colleges, 83 (55.3%) agreed, 33 (22.0%) were not certain, whilst 34 (22.7%) disagreed. The 83 (55.3%) agreeing out of the 150 of the respondents implies that greater percentage of the trainees agreed that content integration is the best approach for Social Studies. For clarification, item 3 of the interview guide was asked - *What is “content” integration in designing the Social Studies curriculum and how is it done?* Kweku (not the real name) a lead mentee has this to say *“content integration is going for the important*

*topics from other subjects in the social sciences and a whole lot of other subjects...Social Studies is the essential elements of the knowledge drawn from different subjects...brought together into a given subject.”* Abeiku (not the real name) said *“It deals with relevant themes from many subjects into a given entity called Social Studies...that learning all the subjects makes one to become intelligent...knowing a lot of things around him/her...making one a critical thinker in society.”* However, Affi (not the real name) said *“it is the bringing together the subjects in the social sciences...given it a new name, Social Studies.”* Although, the responses from the questionnaire attest to mentees agreeing on the concept, the interviews conducted show that respondents were having divided conceptions and not a fair idea about the content integration of Social Studies which need to be a holistic subject in nature. This support Bekoe and Eshun (2013:43a) *“Although Social Studies is seen as an integrated body of knowledge of the social sciences, there is an issue of acceptable level of integration. This will result in teachers having varied conceptions about Social Studies as an amalgamation of the social sciences, problem solving or citizenship education”*. Parker (2005) defined interdisciplinary or integrated curriculum by describing it as a curriculum approach that purposefully draws together knowledge, perspectives, and methods of inquiry from more than one discipline to develop a more powerful understanding of a central idea, issue, person, or event. The acceptable level is infusing content of social studies with distillate issues from the social sciences that can result in problem solving.

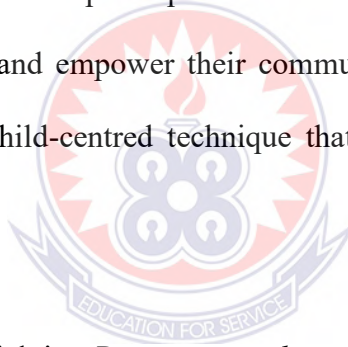
Item 5 of Table 4.5 which is - *Presentation of facts to students from the Social Studies syllabus is the best approach for teaching the subject* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher-trainees from the three Colleges, 87 (58.0%) agreed, 27 (18.0%) were not certain, whilst 36 (24.0%) disagreed. The 87 (58.0%) agreeing out of the 150 of the respondents implies that greater percentage of the mentees agreed that presentation of facts to students from the Social Studies syllabus is the best approach for teaching Social Studies. This is seen as a problem because Social Studies as a subject has been conceptualised differently by its practitioners over the years since its inception (i.e. amalgamation of the social sciences; citizenship education etc.). This shows that there is the need for definition of a subject since that determines the goal and objectives, and the content of the subject (Ediger, 2007). This will serve as a guide to enable the teacher to select appropriate techniques to be presented in a lesson. The accepted definition should in a large measure influence the kind of knowledge to be taught and even the methods to be used in the teaching and learning process. The implications of the varying conceptions of Social Studies through time and space is that those who conceptualise it as the amalgamation of the social sciences are compelled to teach it by presenting bootleg facts from the social sciences, whilst those pedagogues who conceptualise it as citizenship education (i.e. issue-oriented) will teach the subject helping their students to be problem solvers.

Item 6 of Table 4.5 which is - *Writing narratives in Social Studies classes can prove effective at helping students learn about historical figures in a challenging and enjoyable way* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher-trainees from the three

Colleges, 103 (68.7%) agreed, 30 (20.0%) were not certain, whilst 17 (11.3%) disagreed. The 103 (68.7%) agreeing out of the 150 of the respondents implies that greater percentage of the mentees agreed that writing narratives in Social Studies classes can prove effective at helping students learn about historical figures in a challenging and enjoyable way. According to Harris (2007:111) stories resonate with life experiences and remind people of how they fit into their culture and connect to others' culture. By writing stories, students get to use their own life experiences and compare and contrast them to a person of the past. The implication here is that storytelling can enable students to connect to the material and feel empathy to the person living in that time period. To me, although, writing narratives is often done in English classes; it should also be done more in Social Studies classes as well. This is supported by Akmal and Ayre-Svingen (2002:272) that allowing students to construct a biographical narrative of figures of interest to them enables them to make sense of their biographical subjects' lives and connects their lives to those who went before them. Writing narratives in Social Studies classes has been tested and proved effective at helping students learn about historical figures in a challenging and enjoyable way.

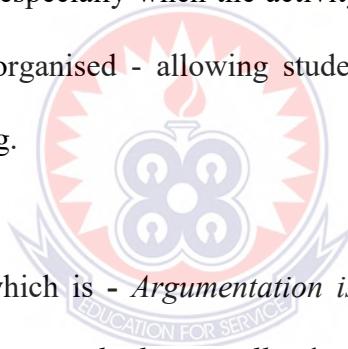
Item 7 of Table 4.5 which is - *Role-play is the best technique to help pupils grasp the ideals of Social Studies* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher trainees from the three Colleges, 115 (76.7%) agreed, 20 (13.3%) were not certain, whilst 15 (10.0%) disagreed. The 115 (76.7%) agreeing out of the 150 of the respondents implies that greater percentage of the mentees agreed that role-play is the best technique to help

pupils grasp the ideals of Social Studies. The outcome supports Schaap (2005:50) that by using role-playing technique students have a high level of energy and excitement, they are encouraged to express ideas and they are able to get immediate feedback on ideas. Schaap assertion is also supported by Chan (2012) that role-play makes the classroom more dynamic through various verbal and non-verbal acts of the students in addition to their cognitive process that is required to understand, interpret and analyse the meanings of the role play. Riera, Cibanal & Mora (2010) mentioned that learning with role-playing enables students to gain confidence while reduces their anxiety. This really means that role-playing encourages creativity, sharpens one's perception and enables the participants to understand group dynamics, personal freedom and improve and empower their communication skills. This indicates that role-play is an ideal child-centred technique that must be used in teaching Social Studies lessons.



Item 8 of Table 4.5 which is - *Discussion technique can be effective because they can be challenging, promote learning and encourage tolerance* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher-trainees from the three Colleges, 129 (86.0%) agreed, 16 (10.7%) were not certain, whilst 5 (3.3%) disagreed. The 129 (86.0%) agreeing out of the 150 of the respondents implies that greater percentage of the mentees agreed that discussion technique can be effective because they can be challenging, promote learning and encourage tolerance. It is well reported that gaining student attention and engagement during class is very challenging. The primary method to bring about active learning is discussion according to Svinicki and McKeachie (2011). But the

purpose of discussion is not just to have students discuss; the purpose of discussion is to provide practice and feedback for the kinds of thinking that are the goal of the course. Social Studies teachers are charged with giving students an understanding of what democracy entails, and accepting other ideas and opinions different than the majority is a key aspect of democracy (McMurray, 2007:49). McMurray (2007:49) states “meaningful discussion should be promoted in a manner to ensure that learning is occurring, beliefs are substantiated by evidence, and minority opinions are protected”. This implies that discussions can make learning meaningful as child-centred approach if they are done correctly in Social Studies class. To me, discussion can motivate students, especially when the activity involves authentic learning - that is, real world and disorganised - allowing students to collaborate, reflect on, and synthesise their learning.



Item 9 of Table 4.5 which is - *Argumentation is an excellent way for students to demonstrate their ability to think critically* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher-trainees from the three Colleges, 106 (70.7%) agreed, 15 (10.0%) were not certain, whilst 29 (19.3%) disagreed. The 106 (70.7%) agreeing out of the 150 of the respondents implies that greater percentage of the mentees agreed that argumentation is an excellent way for students to demonstrate their ability to think critically. Certainly a paper that requires students to annotate, outline, summarise, synthesise, contextualise, explore the use of figurative language, identify patterns of opposition and evaluate the logic of arguments before taking a reasoned perspective and arriving at a conclusion will engage students in similar critical thinking processes (Ikuenobe



2001; Jonassen, 2010). According to Jonassen (2010:440) “argumentation is valued for its role in facilitating conceptual change particularly for less structured problems. That is, learners alter their comprehension or adjust their frames of reference to accommodate new perspectives”. The above indicate that verbal techniques such as argumentation, is an excellent way for students to demonstrate their ability to think critically. Above all, it is a holistic approach to teaching for critical thinking in Social Studies which involve a set of appropriate goal-oriented assessment tasks that enable students to manipulate both affective and cognitive skills, thereby imbuing in them tolerance - coping with varied views even when entirely different from theirs. The implication is students who go through this process are supposed to acquire the skills of disagreeing to agree on issue in an amicable way.

Item 10 of Table 4.5 which is - *Cooperative learning has been found to be an effective strategy for Social Studies classes* shows that out of the 150 mentees from the three Colleges, 128 (85.3%) agreed, 13 (8.7%) were not certain, whilst 9 (6.0%) disagreed. The 128 (85.3%) agreeing out of the 150 of the respondents implies that greater percentage of the mentees agreed that cooperative learning has been found to be an effective strategy for Social Studies classes. Several studies have linked cooperative learning to improved students achievement across grade levels and subject areas (Edvantia, 2007:90). This implies that the several child-centred techniques like role-playing, debate, discussion which are types of cooperative learning activities should be used in teaching and learning in Social Studies class.

Cooperative learning has been found to be an effective strategy for Social Studies classes.

Item 11 of Table 4.5 which is - *Persuasive messages in lesson can be used by Social Studies teachers to instil the right ideals in students - positive attitude building and behavioural change* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher-trainees from the three Colleges, 89 (59.3%) agreed, 36 (24.0%) were not certain, whilst 25 (16.7%) disagreed. The 89 (59.3%) agreeing out of the 150 of the respondents implies that greater percentage of the final year teacher-trainees agreed that persuasive messages in lesson can be used by Social Studies teachers to instil the right ideals in students - positive attitude building and behavioural change. Learning theories of attitude change, no longer as popular as they once were, focus on reinforced behaviour as the primary factor responsible for attitude development. Early research on attitude change drew on Festinger's cognitive dissonance theory, which posits that, when a person is persuaded to act in a way that is not congruent with a pre-existing attitude, he or she may change the attitude to reduce dissonance (Smith & Ragan, 1999). Smith and Ragan (1999) described attitude as a kind of spectrum with latitude of acceptance surrounding a current attitude; a new position is more likely to be accepted if it falls within this latitude and is less likely to be accepted if it does not. In Social Studies, this theory suggests that change in attitude position might be greater in response to the presentation of a moderate persuasive position than in response to a more extreme message. As with dissonance theory, social judgment theory presents attitude change as a response to the receipt of a message that is not entirely congruent with the

currently held attitude. Acceptance of the new position is contingent upon its falling within the latitude of acceptance of the receiver. "The use of successive approximations can expand the latitude of acceptance and thereby permit greater attitude change than might otherwise be possible" (Bednar & Levie, 1993:295). This shows that Social Studies teachers should be well abreast with learning theories of attitude change and incorporate them into their classroom activities.

Item 12 of Table 4.5 which is - *Social Studies professionals should begin educational planning by focusing first on social and political issues that will affect students and society* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher-trainees from the three Colleges, 110 (73.3%) agreed, 19 (12.7%) were not certain, whilst 21 (14.0%) disagreed. The 110 (73.3%) agreeing out of the 150 of the respondents implies that greater percentage of the mentees agreed that Social Studies professionals should begin educational planning by focusing first on social and political issues that will affect students and society.

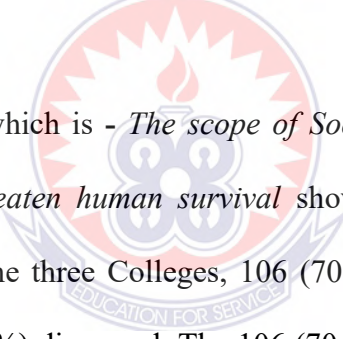
Item 13 of Table 4.5 which is - *There is no objective about what Social Studies should be* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher trainees from the three colleges, 22 (14.7%) agreed, 40 (26.7%) were not certain, whilst 88 (58.7%) disagreed. The 88 (58.7%) disagreeing out of the 150 of the respondents implies that greater percentage of the mentees disagreed that there is no objective about what Social Studies should be.

Item 14 of Table 4.5 which is - *There is no universal reality about what Social Studies should be* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher-trainees from the three Colleges, 45 (30.0%) agreed, 29 (19.3%) were not certain, whilst 76 (50.7%) disagreed. The 76 (50.7%) disagreeing out of the 150 of the respondents implies that greater percentage of the mentees disagreed that there is no universal reality about what Social Studies should be.

Item 15 of Table 4.5 which is - *The primary role of a Social Studies teacher is to increase student's awareness of social issues* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher-trainees from the three Colleges, 135 (90.0%) agreed, 6 (4.0%) were not certain, whilst 9 (6.0%) disagreed. The 135 (90.0%) agreeing out of the 150 of the respondents implies that greater percentage of the mentees agreed that the primary role of a Social Studies teacher is to increase student's awareness of social issues.

Item 16 of Table 4.5 which is - *Primary role of a Social Studies teacher is to help students learn how positive attitude can impact on one's community to develop* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher trainees from the three Colleges, 135 (90.0%) agreed, 10 (6.7%) were not certain, whilst 5 (3.3%) disagreed. The 135 (90.0%) agreeing out of the 150 of the respondents implies that greater percentage of the mentees agreed that primary role of a Social Studies teacher is to help students learn how positive attitude can impact on one's community to develop. To increase students' awareness of social issues and to help students learn how positive attitude can impact on one's community to develop, Chiodo and Byford (2004), and Bekoe

and Eshun (2013c) studies revealed that teachers' conceptions towards Social Studies education have unique influence on the Social Studies curriculum. To inculcate the right skills, values, knowledge, and attitudes in students to see Social Studies as problem-solving which can impact on one's community to develop, then there is the need for effective teaching in Social Studies. In the view of Parkay and Stanford (2001), effective teachers use a repertoire of teaching models and assessment strategies, depending upon their situations and the goals and objectives they wish to attain. This goes to say that an effective teacher plans his or her lessons with some objectives to achieve at the end of the lesson in order to instil in the students the desirable knowledge, attitudes, values and skills.



Item 18 of Table 4.5 which is - *The scope of Social Studies education is based on solving issues that threaten human survival* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher-trainees from the three Colleges, 106 (70.7%) agreed, 20 (13.3%) were not certain, whilst 24 (16.0%) disagreed. The 106 (70.7%) agreeing out of the 150 of the respondents implies that greater percentage of the mentees agreed that the scope of Social Studies education is based on solving issues that threaten human survival.

Item 19 of Table 4.5 which is - *The aim of Social Studies Education should be to cultivate the rational thinking abilities of students*, shows that out of the 150 final year teacher-trainees from the three Colleges, 129 (86.0%) agreed, 13 (8.7%) were not certain, whilst 8 (5.3%) disagreed. The 129 (86.0%) agreeing out of the 150 of the respondents implies that greater percentage of the mentees agreed that the aim of

Social Studies education should be to cultivate the rational thinking abilities of students.

Item 20 of Table 4.5 which is - *The purpose of Social Studies education is to prepare students for life* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher-trainees from the three Colleges, 132 (88.0%) agreed, 15 (10.0%) were not certain, whilst 3 (2.0%) disagreed. The 132 (88.0%) agreeing out of the 150 of the respondents implies that greater percentage of the mentees agreed that the purpose of Social Studies education is to prepare students for life. The above responses are supported by the interview item 29 on - *Are you a change person undergoing a course in Social Studies? Explain your answer.* With the above question, the respondents have the following to say: Amoah (not the real name) said “*yes because nowadays I do things that I think is normal as a result of learning the subject ... at first I will even drink “pure water” and dump the sachet rubber anywhere...now I know it is very bad to do a whole lot of things... I am now a happy person...I have inner joy anytime I get to know that I am doing something good and I get appreciated*”. Nhyiraba, (not the real name) has this to say “*yes, it is making me a problem solver... I now think in a positive way and try to do the right things as expected of me by society*”. However, Kojo, said “*because I studied the subject well I was able to pass all my ESS examination and will be happy teaching it after graduating from the college*”. Almost all of the interviewees responded yes with varying reasons that undergoing a course in Social Studies has helped them to be changed persons. Social Studies curricula of teacher training institutions should aim at equipping individuals to pursue good life. Thus, for

example, if our view of human flourishing includes the capacity to act rationally and/or autonomously, then the case can be made that educational institutions-and their curricula should aim to prepare, or help to prepare autonomous individuals.

Item 21 of Table 4.5 which is - *Social Studies education is designed to help students have positive attitudinal change* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher-trainees from the three Colleges, 140 (93.3%) agreed, 3 (2.0%) were not certain, whilst 7 (4.7%) disagreed. The 140 (93.3%) agreeing out of the 150 of the respondents implies that greater percentage of the mentees agreed that Social Studies education is designed to help students have positive attitudinal change. If the pith and core of Social Studies is seen as citizenship education then its instruction must be done in a way to help students have positive attitudinal change. With this, Bednar and Levie (1993) recommended three approaches in designing instruction for attitude change: providing a persuasive message; modelling and reinforcing appropriate behaviour; and inducing dissonance between the cognitive, affective, and behavioural components of the attitude.

Item 22 of Table 4.5 which is - *Social Studies is the social science in practice* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher trainees from the three Colleges, 100 (66.7%) agreed, 39 (26.0%) were not certain, whilst 11 (7.3%) disagreed. The 100 (66.7%) agreeing out of the 150 of the respondents implies that greater percentage of the mentees agreed that Social Studies is the social science in practice.

Item 23 of Table 4.5 which is - *Differences between students arise from their particular cultural and social situation and can be minimised as they recognise their common needs and problems through Social Studies education* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher trainees from the three Colleges, 112 (74.7%) agreed, 35 (23.3%) were not certain, whilst 3 (2.0%) disagreed. The 112 (74.7%) agreeing out of the 150 of the respondents implies that greater percentage of the final year teacher-trainees agreed that differences between students arise from their particular cultural and social situation and can be minimised as they recognise their common needs and problems through Social Studies education.

Item 24 of Table 4.5 which is - *The role of the Social Studies teacher is to guide students in their mastery of problem-solving processes* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher-trainees from the three Colleges, 117 (78.0%) agreed, 21 (14.0%) were not certain, whilst 12 (8.0%) disagreed. The 117 (78.0%) agreeing out of the 150 of the respondents implies that greater percentage of the trainees agreed that the role of the Social Studies teacher is to guide students in their mastery of problem-solving processes. The Social Studies teacher guiding students in their mastery of problem-solving processes, means inculcating the right skills, values, knowledge, and attitudes in students to see Social Studies as problem-solving. This can be done through effective teaching in social studies. In the view of Parkay and Stanford (2001), effective teachers use a repertoire of teaching models and assessment strategies, depending upon their situations and the goals and objectives they wish to attain.



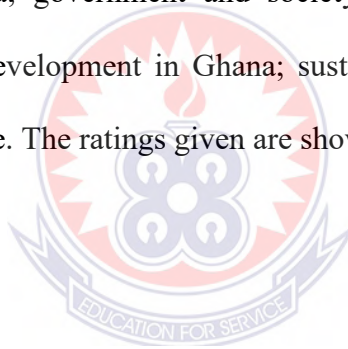
Item 26 of Table 4.5 which is - *Social Studies professionals should encourage students to examine their values and beliefs and to raise critical questions, especially about societal values* shows that out of the 150 final year teacher-trainees from the three Colleges, 127 (84.7%) agreed, 14 (9.3%) were not certain, whilst 9 (6.0%) disagreed. The 127 (84.7%) agreeing out of the 150 of the respondents implies that greater percentage of the final year teacher-trainees agreed that Social Studies professionals should encourage students to examine their values and beliefs and to raise critical questions, especially about societal values.

#### **4.4.3 Final year teacher-trainees' conceptions and their classroom practices.**

The main objective of this section is to establish whether the differences in conceptions and curricula structures of Social Studies have differential impact on the classroom practices of final year teacher-trainees on teaching practice at the Junior High School (JHS) level. Observation checklists of thirty (30) items were used to observe Social Studies final year teacher-trainees teaching the subject at the JHS level on two different occasions. While observing teacher-trainees and pupils during lessons, the researcher recorded and wrote down salient points. To ascertain whether there was consistency, outcomes from the observation were cross-checked with the responses given by trainees when they were interviewed. Thus, for clarifications of ratings given, checklists were ticked based on what was observed, documented and the interviews conducted.

For the observation checklist to be in line with effective Social Studies teaching it was based on the scope of a number of scholars. Some of the checklists were created;

others were adopted and modified to suit the nature of the research. Teachers' sense of efficacy scale were modified from Megan Tschannen-Moran and on what Smith and Ragan (1999), Bednar and Levie (1993), Zimbardo and Leippe (1991), Wetzel (1994), Simonson and Maushak (2001), had drawn on findings from a number of studies to create a series of guidelines for designing effective instructional approaches for right attitudinal change, developing positive attitude, values and skills in learners. Some of the units under which topics were selected from the JHS Social Studies syllabus, taught by mentees and observed by the researcher in the three Colleges are significance of some natural features of the earth; population growth and development in Ghana; government and society; promoting political stability in Ghana; problems of development in Ghana; sustainable national development; and the youth and discipline. The ratings given are shown in Table 4.6 below:



**Table 4.6 Observation of final year teacher-trainees' conceptions and their classroom practices**

Structured observation checklist of areas observed on Social Studies teaching								
No	Observation Checklist	Observation ratings						Total (%)
		A (%)	W (%)	Av (%)	G (%)	VG (%)	Ex (%)	
1.	Mentee's lesson presentation focuses on practical things in life.	8 (53.3)	2 (13.3)	4 (26.7)	1 (6.7)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	15 (100)
2.	Lesson focuses on desired behaviour by respected role model; Teacher uses modelling.	8 (53.3)	6 (40.0)	1 (6.7)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	15 (100)
3.	Lesson presentation focuses on how to practice desired behaviour.	4 (26.7)	5 (33.3)	4 (26.7)	2 (13.3)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	15 (100)
4.	Teacher-trainee uses most effective persuasive messages in a credible manner that get students to think about an issue or object in concrete, vivid images that have definite implications for behaviour.	10 (66.7)	4 (26.7)	1 (6.7)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	15 (100)
5.	Teacher - trainee uses follow-up activities in lesson presentation.	5 (33.3)	3 (20.0)	3 (20.0)	3 (20.0)	1 (6.7)	0 (.0)	15 (100)
6.	Teacher - trainee uses open-ended questions in teaching.	10 (66.7)	3 (20.0)	2 (13.3)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	15 (100)
7.	Mentee creates an aroused state in the learners through purposeful emotional involvement.	9 (60.0)	3 (20.0)	2 (13.3)	1 (6.7)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	15 (100)
8.	Lesson was presented through purposeful intellectual involvement.	7 (46.7)	2 (13.3)	3 (20.0)	3 (20.0)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	15 (100)
9.	Teacher - trainee involves students in role - play.	11 (73.3)	2 (13.3)	0 (.0)	1 (6.7)	0 (.0)	1 (6.7)	15 (100)
10.	Teacher-trainee involves students in discussion.	5 (33.3)	6 (40.0)	2 (13.3)	2 (13.3)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	15 (100)
11.	Teacher - trainee involves students in brainstorming.	12 (80.0)	2 (13.3)	1 (6.7)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	15 (100)
12.	Teacher-trainee involves pupils in writing narratives.	14 (93.3)	1 (6.7)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	15 (100)
13.	Mentee uses lecturing technique in lesson delivery.	2 (13.3)	2 (13.3)	2 (13.3)	3 (20.0)	4 (26.7)	2 (13.3)	15 (100)
14.	Instruction was presented with relevant TLM(s).	2 (13.3)	10 (66.7)	2 (13.3)	1 (6.7)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	15 (100)
15.	Instruction presented was technically stimulating with problem solving approach.	10 (66.7)	5 (33.3)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	15 (100)
16.	Instruction presented was attitude development packed.	12 (80.0)	3 (20.0)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	15 (100)

A. - Absent, W. - Weak, Av.- Average, G.-Good, V. G.-Very Good, Ex.-Excellent.

Figures in bracket are percentages

**Table 4.6 Observation of teacher-trainees' conceptions and their classroom practices (Continued)**

Structured observation checklist of areas observed on Social Studies teaching								
No	Observation Checklist	Observation ratings						Total (%)
		A (%)	W (%)	Av (%)	G (%)	VG (%)	Ex (%)	
17.	Teacher - trainee provides post-instruction discussion or critique opportunities.	8 (53.3)	5 (33.3)	2 (13.3)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	15 (100)
18.	Mentee reinforces appropriate or desired behaviour by pupils.	8 (53.3)	6 (40.0)	1 (6.7)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	15 (100)
19.	Teacher - trainee presents first the general and then the particular.	10 (66.7)	4 (26.7)	1 (6.7)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	15 (100)
20.	Teacher - trainee presents first the abstract and then the concrete.	2 (13.3)	12 (80.0)	1 (6.7)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	15 (100)
21.	Teacher - trainee motivated students to engage in systematic thinking, rather than lapse into mindless processing.	9 (60.0)	3 (20.0)	1 (6.7)	2 (13.3)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	15 (100)
22.	School Based Assessment (SBA) was essentially focused on attitudes and values; that is, affective skills development.	13 (86.7)	2 (13.3)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	15 (100)
23.	Mentee could foster student creativity in answering questions.	8 (53.3)	5 (33.3)	1 (6.7)	1 (6.7)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	15 (100)
24.	Mentee could provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused.	11 (73.3)	2 (13.3)	1 (6.7)	1 (6.7)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	15 (100)
25.	Mentee could implement alternative techniques and strategies in teaching Social Studies.	10 (66.7)	3 (20)	2 (13.3)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	15 (100)
26.	Mentee uses a variety of assessment strategies in teaching.	9 (60.0)	6 (40.0)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	15 (100)
27.	Mentee can confidently teach all the integrated aspects (i.e. content & method) of the Social Studies curr.	12 (80.0)	3 (20.0)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	15 (100)
28.	Mentee is aware of the philosophy of Social Studies at the Colleges of Education and this is portrayed in their teaching.	7 (46.7)	6 (40.0)	2 (13.3)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	15 (100)
29.	Mentee has the needed skills to plan and implement the Social Studies Curriculum.	6 (40.0)	5 (33.3)	4 (26.7)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	15 (100)
30.	Teacher-trainee has the needed knowledge to plan and implement the Social Studies Curriculum.	1 (6.7)	10 (66.7)	4 (26.7)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	0 (.0)	15 (100)

A. - *Absent*, W. - *Weak*, Av.- *Average*, G.-*Good*, V. G.-*Very Good*, Ex.-*Excellent*.

Figures in bracket are percentages

Item 1 of Table 4.6 which is - *Mentee lesson presentation focuses on practical things in life* shows that out of the 15 teacher-trainees observed in a classroom setting from the three Colleges, 8 (53.3%) were rated Absent, 2 (13.3%) were rated Weak, whilst 4 (26.7%) were rated Average. None of the mentees was rated Good, Very Good, or Excellent. Ratings were based on the following: most of the mentees were not seen citing practical examples that have implication for positive attitudes and behaviour; it was also documented that most of the mentees observed were seen presenting facts and not citing problems with practical examples on how such challenges could be solved. The knowledge base of mentees on their lesson presentation focusing on practical things in life was very weak. This could be as a result of how the subject is conceptualised by the mentees. This shows that teachers presenting lesson in Social Studies should focus on using practical things in life and allow their pupils to come out with examples of bad behaviours and its associated repercussions as this will deter them from committing the same.

Item 2 of Table 4.6 which is - *Lesson focuses on desired behaviour by respected role model; Teacher uses modelling* shows that out of the 15 teacher-trainees observed in a classroom setting from the three Colleges, 8 (53.3%) were rated Absent, 6 (40.0%) were rated Weak, whilst 1 (6.7%) was rated Average. None of the mentees was rated Good, Very Good, nor Excellent. Most of the mentees observed were not using modelling, for instance when this topic “the concept of discipline, and identifying activities of indiscipline in society” was observed it was realised that, those who taught the topic were not citing examples of personalities who were disciplined and

whose life need to emulated in society. If Social Studies is seen as an attitudinal subject then lessons of that nature must focuses on desired behaviour by respected role model. It is suggested that an individual learns attitudes by observing the behaviours of others and modelling or imitating them (McDonald & Kielsmeier, 1970). An observed behaviour does not have to be reinforced to be learned (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991), and the model "can be presented on film, by television, in a novel, or by other vicarious means" (Martin & Briggs, 1986:28). The model must be credible to the target audience (Bednar & Levie, 1993). The above shows that social learning theory should be used by Social Studies teachers to effect positive attitude building and concrete change in students. Social learning theory focuses on the development of cognitions related to the expected outcome of behaviour. Observational learning is greater when models are perceived as powerful and/or warm and supportive, and "imitative behaviour is more likely when there are multiple models doing the same thing" (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991:51). While "attitudes formed through direct experience with the attitude object or issue are more predictive of behaviour than those formed more indirectly" (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991:193), "media can be substitutes for many live experiences" (Wetzel, 1994:26). Social learning theories of attitude change are closely related to theories that emphasise the role of social learning in cognitive development.

Item 3 of Table 4.6 which is - *Lesson presentation focuses on how to practice desired behaviour; why some things must not be repeated in life* shows that out of the 15 teacher-trainees observed in a classroom setting from the three Colleges, 4 (26.7%)

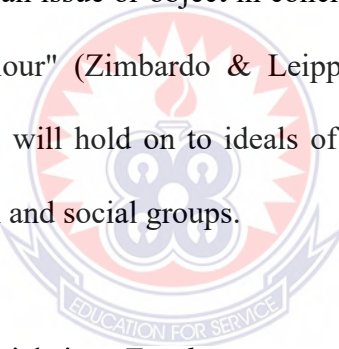
were rated Absent, 5 (33.3%) were rated Weak, 4 (26.7%) were rated Average, whilst 2 (13.3%) were rated Good. None of the mentees was rated Very Good or Excellent. Observing mentees on the topic “examine the factors that promote the operation of democracy” which is one of the ideals by which one can practice some desired behaviours like respect of the rights of people. It was realised that they were not up to the task of teaching and explaining properly the following: a good and workable constitution; respect for the rights and freedoms of the people; observance of the rule of law; the existence of political parties; and free and fair elections. On practising desired behaviour and why some things must not be repeated in life, there has been the need of using dissonance to produce attitude change. Using dissonance to produce attitude change, the persuader must first establish the dissonance, and then provide a method to reduce it. Ideally, this will involve making the chosen alternative attractive, showing a social group with the desired attitude, demonstrating the issue's importance, providing free choice, and establishing a wide latitude of acceptance through successive approximation (Martin & Briggs, 1986). This shows that teachers presenting lesson in Social Studies should focus on using practical things in life and allow their students to come out with repercussions associated with each chosen and why such things must not be repeated by them or be emulated in life.

Item 4 of Table 4.6 which is - *Teacher-trainee uses most effective persuasive messages in a credible manner that gets students to think about an issue or object in concrete, and vivid images that have definite implications for behaviour* shows that out of the 15 teacher-trainees observed in a classroom setting from the three Colleges,

10 (66.7%) were rated Absent, 4 (26.7%) were rated Weak, whilst 1 (6.7%) was rated Average. None of the mentees was rated Good, Very Good or Excellent. Teachers observed were also interviewed for proper clarification of ratings given them by asking this question - *Must Social Studies teacher use credible persuasive messages to get students to think about an issue or object in concrete, vivid images that have definite implications for behaviour? Give reasons for your answer.* With the above question, the respondents have the following to say: Kweku Abeiku, (not the real name) said *“no why should I teach always by using persuasions...will that make my pupils learn...then the very day they will see I am not using it...means they will not learn...also, because the JHS pupils are matured they can learn without real objects...Concrete materials usage must be concentrated at the early childhood stage of education and the primary schools”*. However, Kwamena, (not the real name) said *“yes because persuasive messages and real objects can make students to think about issues under discussions in a concrete manner...This makes the lesson real and practical, hence reduce teacher’s talking time in lesson presentation and thereby make pupils to be involved in the lesson delivery”*. Mansa, (not the real name) said *“yes because the use of concrete materials and creating persuasive messages can create a conducive atmosphere in class which can propel students to contribute to classroom activities...This helps students to understand topics treated better”*. The findings show that most of the mentees observed were rated Absent on the usage of credible persuasive messages to get students to think about an issue or object in concrete, vivid images that have definite implications for behaviour. The varying reasons given in the interviews conducted, although did not give a full support for the



classroom activities observed, the fact is attitudes are stored separately from their related cognitions means that a person may experience a feeling without remembering the information or event that triggered it. Attitudes will generally be stronger when the link between their cognitive and affective components is consciously recalled (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991). For this to work, of course, the recipient must attend to the message providing that information with vivid concrete objects. With this, Wetzel (1994) asserts that tendency toward passive viewing of mediated messages may be reduced by instructing students to attend and alerting them to the fact that the content will be tested. The most effective persuasive messages are those "that get the audience to think about an issue or object in concrete, vivid images that have definite implications for behaviour" (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991:194). This shows that in Social Studies, students will hold on to ideals of society if seen done by important individuals around them and social groups.



Item 5 of Table 4.6 which is - *Teacher-trainee uses follow-up activities in lesson presentation* shows that out of the 15 teacher-trainees observed in a classroom setting from the three Colleges, 5 (33.3%) were rated Absent, 3 (20.0%) were rated Weak, 3 (20.0%) were rated Average, 3 (20.0%) were rated Good, whilst 1 (6.7%) was rated Very Good. None of the mentees was rated Excellent. Mentees observed were also interviewed for proper clarification of ratings given them by asking this question - *Should Social Studies teacher use follow-up activities that have definite implications for behaviour and why?* With this question, Francis (not the real name) has this to say *“the use of follow-up activities in teaching can help a lot... this can help pupils*

*understand things taught very well...the need for re-call is brought to the fore*". Edward, (not the real name) has this to say "yes, because without asking your students questions on what you think they know... How will you get to know if they really got what you taught within the day or a day before that lesson?". The assertions made during the interviews on the theme supports the observation, especially as mentees were observed using previous relevant knowledge especially on what they had already taught their pupils in introducing their lessons. This really shows that "mediated instruction does contribute to desired attitudinal outcomes in learners, especially when the instruction is designed specifically to produce certain attitudes or attitude change" (Simonson & Maushak, 2001:1010). Their findings also indicate that the three most important qualities Social Studies instructions should have are: the use of follow-up activities and open-ended questions; the use of realistic types of media devoid of contradictory cues; and the creation of an aroused state in the learner through emotional and intellectual involvement.

Item 6 of Table 4.6 which is - *Teacher-trainee uses open-ended questions in lesson presentation* shows that out of the 15 teacher-trainees observed in a classroom setting from the three Colleges, 10 (66.7%) were rated Absent, 3 (20.0%) were rated Weak, whilst 2 (13.3%) were rated Average. None of the mentees was rated Good, Very Good or Excellent. Ratings show that most of the mentees were not seen using open-ended questions in lesson presentation. Mentees observed were also interviewed for proper clarification of ratings given them by asking this question - *Should Social Studies teacher use open-ended questions that have definite implications for*

*behaviour and why?* With this question, greater number of the interviewees said although open-ended questions can have implications for behaviour, using it while teaching pupils can consume a lot of one's instructional time, especially when the class is large and many pupils are prepared to answer questions orally. Others said its marking is subjective and very difficult; thus make them prefer setting objective questions and close ended questions. The teaching of Social Studies must be taken serious by incorporating open ended questions in assessing concepts taught in class as this will make pupils to come out with divergent views that will help remedial measures to be carried out by the class teacher.

Item 7 of Table 4.6 which is - *Teacher-trainee creates an aroused state in the learners through purposeful emotional involvement* shows that out of the 15 teacher-trainees observed in a classroom setting from the three Colleges, 9 (60.0%) were rated Absent, 3 (20.0%) were rated Weak, 2 (13.3%) were rated Average, whilst 1 (6.7%) was rated Good. None of the mentees was rated Very Good or Excellent. Ratings given really show that there are challenges associated with the teaching of the subject. According to Rosenfield (1988), emotions have an important connection to memory; emotions help to store information and also trigger its recall. This implies that if Social Studies actually is to modify and change students' behaviour in the direction of acceptable norms, values, beliefs, attitudes and practices of the society, then much effort should be made to deal with selection of content, effective instructional strategies and concrete perceptual formation of the subject by its pedagogues.

Item 8 of Table 4.6 which is - *Lesson was presented through purposeful intellectual involvement* shows that out of the 15 teacher-trainees observed in a classroom setting from the three Colleges, 7 (46.7%) were rated Absent, 2 (13.3%) were rated Weak, 3 (20.0%) were rated Average, whilst 3 (20.0%) were rated Good. None of the mentees was rated Very Good or Excellent. Teacher-trainees observed were also interviewed for proper clarification of ratings given them by asking this question – *Must Social Studies mentee elicits and creates an aroused state in learners through intellectual involvement in class and why?* Maanan, (not the real name) said “*I am fond of involving my pupils in teaching and learning... this makes them to be direct participants in the teaching and learning process...it encourages them to learn and discover more knowledge for themselves as they have in mind that any time I enter their class they will be made to contribute to my lesson...I always motivate them...even the weaker ones*”. With this wonderful assertion, however, it was concluded from the observation and interviews conducted that majority of the mentees were not abreast with the trend, as to how it can be carried out and the need for it. It is therefore, necessary that students are involved in the teaching and learning process in order to enable them to learn better, discover knowledge for themselves, retain information better, and apply the knowledge gained in new situations.

Item 9 of Table 4.6 which is - *Teacher-trainee involves students in role-play* shows that out of the 15 teacher-trainees observed in a classroom setting from the three Colleges, 11 (73.3%) were rated Absent, 2 (13.3%) were rated Weak, none was rated

Average, 1 (6.7%) was rated Good, none was rated Very Good, whilst 1 (6.7%) was rated Excellent. The ratings were based on the following: most of the mentees were seen using teacher-centred techniques instead of child-centred techniques. Ama, (not the real name) one of the mentees whose lesson presentation was solely on role-play; did very well in the observation and was also interviewed on why she used such an approach and technique in teaching? The response was *“I used the pupils-centred approach in the sense that it makes lesson lively and as pupils get to know that activities are performed by their own colleagues...they tend to pay attention, and contribute to the classroom situation... This makes things observed become an imprint in the mind, knowledge shared and activity displayed is retained...transfer of knowledge can be done...can be applied in other situations in life”*. However, the majority of the mentees observed and interviewed were not involving their students in role-play as a teaching technique and do not see the reason why they should do so since it can be time consuming. This makes them to resort to other conventions of teaching. This goes to attest to what Vogler & Virtue (2007: 55) assert that “to begin with, the way Social Studies is taught need to get a makeover. So many Social Studies teachers only teach by lecturing and expect rote memorisation from their students. This happens often because of the “overwhelming amount of material contained in a typical Social Studies curriculum framework”. The teachers have so much information they are required to cover that they “have trouble getting beyond the “just the facts” content coverage and into higher-level, critical thinking, especially because of the limited class time available” (Vogler & Virtue, 2007: 55).

Item 10 of Table 4.6 which is - *Teacher-trainee involves students in discussion* shows that out of the 15 teacher-trainees observed in a classroom setting from the three Colleges, 5 (33.3%) were rated Absent, 6 (40.0%) were rated Weak, 2 (13.3%) were rated Average, whilst 2 (13.3%) were rated Good. None of the mentees was rated Very Good or Excellent. Teacher-trainees observed were also interviewed for proper clarification of ratings given them by asking this question – *Must Social Studies mentees involves students in discussion? Explain your answer.* Ike (not the real name) said “*not necessarily yes, but the most important thing is using a technique either child-centred or teacher-centred that will help your pupils to understand the topic taught...one thing about discussion I like is that it help pupils to share ideas and tolerating one another*”. Eduafuaa (not the real name) said “*it is said that when pupils hear they may forget, when they see their teacher performing an activity they will remember, but when they are involve in the teaching like using discussion it will help them to retain what was taught for a long time...using discussion is very good*”. It is well reported that gaining students attention and engagement during class is very challenging. According to Svinicki and McKeachie (2011) the primary method to bring about active learning is discussion. But the purpose of discussion is not just to have students discuss; the purpose of discussion is to provide practice and feedback for the kinds of thinking that are the goal of the course. McMurray (2007:49) states “*meaningful discussion should be promoted in a manner to ensure that learning is occurring, beliefs are substantiated by evidence, and minority opinions are protected*”. Students can hone their disciplinary skills by actively participating in structured activities where they can practice aspects of critical thinking with their peers, and

gauge their own proficiency (Shopkow, Diaz, Middendorf, & Pace, 2012). This implies that discussion can motivate students, especially when the activity involves authentic learning, which is, allowing students to collaborate, reflect on, and synthesise their learning.

Item 11 of Table 4.6 which is – *Teacher-trainee involves students in brainstorming* shows that out of the 15 teacher-trainees observed in a classroom setting from the three colleges, 12 (80%) were rated Absent, 2 (13.3%) were rated Weak, 1 (6.7%) was rated Average. None of the mentees was rated Good, Very Good or Excellent. Teacher-trainees observed were also interviewed for proper clarification of ratings given them by asking this question - *Must Social Studies mentees involves students in brainstorming and why?* Kweku, (not the real name) said “*brainstorming as a child centred technique makes students involve themselves in the teaching and learning process and this enables them to think and help them to discover things on their own...however, there are difficulties associated in its usage...this notwithstanding I use it rarely*”. Kwame (not the real name) said “*it will be good using it but I see it to be wasting of instructional time, especially the class I am teaching are not of good academic standings...in your lesson note you are to use the technique but will abandoned it and go for teacher-centred technique like lecturing when they do not contribute in the lesson delivery*”. The observation coupled with the interviews indicated that most mentees are not fond of using brainstorming as a teaching technique even when the technique is stated in their lesson notes. Mandernach (2006:4) asserts that “to encourage active engagement, teachers must design authentic

tasks that reflect the complexity of the environment”. There are indications that in teaching Social Studies a classroom culture that fosters inquiry is likely to nurture students to become intellectually curious.

Item 12 of Table 4.6 which is – *Teacher-trainee involves pupils in writing narratives* shows that out of the 15 teacher-trainees observed in a classroom setting from the three Colleges, 14 (93.3%) were rated Absent, whilst 1 (6.7%) was rated Weak. None of the mentees was rated Average, Good, Very Good or Excellent. Writing narratives is often done in English classes, but should be done more in Social Studies classes as well. Akmal and Ayre-Svingen (2002:272) said allowing students to construct a biographical narrative of figures of interest to them enables them to make sense of their biographical subjects’ lives and connects their lives to those who went before them. Writing narratives in Social Studies classes has been tested and proved effective at helping students to become analytical thinkers.

Item 13 of Table 4.6 which is – *Mentee uses lecturing technique in lesson delivery* shows that out of the 15 teacher-trainees observed in a classroom setting from the three Colleges, 2 (13.3%) were rated Absent, 2 (13.3%) were rated Weak, 2 (13.3%) were rated Average, 3 (20.0%) were rated Good, 4 (26.7%) were rated Very Good, whilst 2 (13.3%) were rated Excellent. Final year teacher-trainees observed were also interviewed for proper clarification of ratings given them by asking this question - *Why did you use that teaching technique in your lesson delivery?* Kofi, (not the real name) said “*the teacher-centred technique help teachers to complete the tasks given*



*by their lead mentor on time...this gives more room for remedial teaching to be carried out". Abena, (not the real name) said "although lecturing at times makes pupils bored and wanted to sleep in class,...it does not help students to be active participants in lesson presentation at times and also makes them feel that they do not belong to the class...one can still manage his /her class well and motivate the students to follow the lesson...content are well covered when used...even our college tutors use the same thing...supervising or assessing your teaching at teaching practice in the out-programme you are then told you were using teacher-centred approach, next time used child-centred approach for better class participation...we learn from them".* The findings from the observation supported by the interviews conducted can make one draw inferences that most of the respondents preferred using teacher-centred technique (i.e. lecture) in teaching Social Studies. Traditional teaching methods such as lecturing do not help students make connection or feel empathy towards the material like role-playing and other child-centred techniques do, but is necessary at times. For some material there is no other way to teach it than to lecture. The key to not making lectures so mundane and boring is to add activities and projects in between the lectures. Marcus (2007:105) suggests: taking students to museums, historic sites and memorials to enhance and build on the material taught need to be considered. This implies that using child participatory techniques in teaching Social Studies helps students to make connections between what they see, hear and do in class and outside classroom teaching and learning.

Item 14 of Table 4.6 which is - *Instruction was presented with relevant Teaching and Learning Materials (TLMs)* shows that out of the 15 teacher-trainees observed in a classroom setting from the three Colleges, 2 (13.3%) were rated Absent, 10 (66.7%) were rated Weak, 2 (13.3%) were rated Average, whilst 1 (6.7%) was rated Good. None of the mentees was rated Very Good or Excellent. Final year teacher-trainees observed were also interviewed for proper clarification of ratings given them by asking this question - *Do you present your lessons with Teaching and Learning Materials (TLMs) in every lesson? Explain your answer.* Araba (not the real name) said *“Teaching and learning material is very essential in teaching as it reduces your talking time, make lesson interesting and understandable... but I am not an artist so cannot draw or sketch better things on manila cards... I quite remember I once pasted a TLM on the “bb” and asked my pupils to look and say what they see... Surprisingly some of the pupils said it does not resemble what I think the drawing is supposed to be...it was a time that a link tutor was assessing my teaching... It was an embarrassment, since then I decided to go for either pictures in pupils textbook or any other source and not to draw them myself again...I normally use them...not every lesson...you took me by surprise that is why you did not see me using TLM”.* Emmanuel (not the real name) the mentee who was rated “Good” said *“there are TLMs you can improvised, whilst others you either buy them or get them freely from the environment... you see the school I am doing my teaching practice do not even see the need to store TLMs for teaching and learning...asks your mentor or the lead mentor and you would be told we do not have them here...you will be discouraged...so it is not all lessons that I use TLM... Anytime I get information that*

*link tutors will becoming for supervision then I will do everything possible to get TLM for teaching... you see it is your life”* Majority of the mentees observed used TLM(s) in teaching, but some were not attractive, so they were not appealing to students. Some of the colours used were not matching the background colour of the manila card so they were not highly visible to be seen from the extreme end of the class. Teaching materials are very important in curriculum implementation. Implementation takes place when the teacher-constructed syllabus, the teacher’s personality, the teaching materials and the teaching environment interact with the learner (University of Zimbabwe, 1995:9). This shows the need for worthwhile TLMs to be used in teaching and learning of Social Studies.

Item 15 of Table 4.6 which is - *Instruction presented was technically stimulating with problem solving approach* shows that out of the 15 teacher-trainees observed in a classroom setting from the three Colleges, 10 (66.7%) were rated Absent, whilst 5 (33.3%) were rated Weak. None of the mentees was rated Average, Good, Very Good or Excellent. Although traditional and contemporary theories have provided a base for teaching for critical thinking in Social Studies, many schools are still graduating students who are ill-equipped to problem-solving. This may be due to a variety of factors including; how teachers interpret critical thinking (Kennedy et al., 1991; Jones, 2004), their feeling of self-efficacy to support students to develop problem solving competences (Goddard & Goddard, 2001; Wheatley, 2002), the students’ own self-efficacy regarding their critical thinking abilities (Bandura, 1993; Zimmerman, 2000; Caliskan 2010), students’ inadequate information-searching skills (Laxman,

2010), and teachers' preference for more behaviourist than constructivist approaches to teaching. These suggest in teaching and learning of Social Studies problem solving approach must be stressed and used by teachers.

Item 16 of Table 4.6 which is – *Instruction presented was attitude development packed* shows that out of the 15 teacher-trainees observed in a classroom setting from the three Colleges, 12 (80.0%) were rated Absent, whilst 3 (20.0%) were rated Weak. None of the mentees was rated Average, Good, Very Good or Excellent. Final year teacher-trainees observed were also interviewed for clarification on this question- *is Social Studies supposed to be taught with the aim of developing positive attitude of pupils? Give reasons.* With this question, the interviewees have the following to say: Adjoa, (not the real name) came out that “*Social Studies is like any other subject which need to be taught in class for pupils to learn and pass for them to progress from one level of their education career to another but not necessarily building attitudes...basically if it is about attitudes then HIV/AIDS, Integrated Science course and P.E in the Colleges can do that too...it is like a compulsory ladder in education that one need to climb from the JHS to SHS, training college...students even at times need to pass it to gain admission to the university*”. Efua, (not the real name) said “*it is not important to teach Social Studies with the aim of developing positive attitude of pupils... How can such a thing be done? I will teach it like teaching any subject...attitude is within and it will only be seen through interaction with one another*”. This implies that there is a problem on how mentees come to conceptualise Social Studies in terms of its meaning, content, and whether it is an attitude building

subject. Others suggest that "more educated people are better equipped to counter argue and hence less likely to accept or be persuaded by new information" (Ansolabehere, 1993:151). That is why we must teach children and do so actively, consistently and most of all early to imbue in them positive attitude development. To me, the consequence will be minimal if we provide children with an environment conducive to the learning about, practising of, and valuing of good citizenship and responsible involvement in national life. This can help to unearth a nation of new crop of worthwhile generation.

Item 17 of Table 4.6 which is – *Teacher-trainee provides post-instruction discussion or critique opportunities* shows that out of the 15 teacher-trainees observed in a classroom setting from the three Colleges, 8 (53.3%) were rated Absent, 5 (33.3%) were rated Weak, whilst 2 (13.3%) were rated Average. None of the mentees was rated Good, Very Good or Excellent. Final year teacher-trainees observed were also interviewed for clarification on this question- *Do you provide post-instruction discussion or critique opportunities and why?* Adom (not the real name) said “*Oh ending my period, the next important thing which is a must that as a mentee I need to do is to evaluate my lesson by giving my pupils some class exercise to do...that is all...it must be based on the objective set in my lesson note*”. Ayeyi (not the real name) said “*it is good that you ask them if they have some difficulties for further explanation to be given...before oral or written exercises are given...teaching goes with exercise...after that you can tell them their strengths and weaknesses...there is limited time for all this...teaching practice is teaching for marks*”. The outcome of

the observation proved that most mentees were not providing post-instruction discussion or critique opportunities with their pupils. However, when they were interviewed it revealed otherwise; their comment depicted that it is normally done when there is an external assessor. This indicates that mentees do come out that they will practice an activity and do otherwise in the real classroom practices. Invariably in the real classroom practices mentees were not providing post-instruction discussion or critique opportunities with their pupils.

Item 18 of Table 4.6 which is - *Mentee reinforces appropriate or desired behaviour* shows that out of the 15 teacher-trainees observed in a classroom setting from the three Colleges, 8 (53.3%) were rated Absent, 6 (40.0%) were rated Weak, whilst 1 (13.3%) was rated Average. None of the mentees was rated Good, Very Good or Excellent. Teacher-trainees observed were also interviewed for clarification on this question - *Must Social Studies teacher teach learners to model and reinforce desired behaviours? Give reasons for your answer.* With the above question, most of the respondents said yes with varying reasons. They gave examples of people who are worthy of emulation like the late Osagyefo Dr. Kwame Nkrumah, Mr. Kofi Annan and other renowned personalities in society. To them it will help pupils mould their lives in a positive manner by avoiding behaviours that will not help them to achieve the feat of their role models. This implies that what was observed was different from what trainees said during the interview. To help pupils change bad attitude and model the lifestyle of important personalities in society, Zimbardo and Leippe (1991:337) suggested that “the ability of a persuasive message to produce attitude change is

closely linked to its strength, and “dry statistical information has less effect than vivid and concrete examples”.

Item 19 of Table 4.6 which is – *Teacher-trainee presents first the general and then the particular* shows that out of the 15 teacher-trainees observed in a classroom setting from the three Colleges, 10 (66.7%) were rated Absent, 4 (26.7%) were rated Weak, whilst 1 (13.3%) was rated Average. None of the mentees was rated Good, Very Good or Excellent. Teachers observed were also interviewed for proper clarification of ratings given them by asking this question- *Do you teach pupils by first presenting the general and then the particular and why?* With the above question, the respondents have the following to say: Kweku, (not the real name) said “*I was taught by my college tutors to use concentric approach in teaching... I cannot tell whether it is almost the same thing...it is like first presenting the things pupils are familiar with...it is highly confusing but I will say I am coping with it...you know this JHS pupils find it difficult to understand...it is indeed a hard task to perform...it helps, not that I always do it because, not all topics can this approach be used*”. Based on this and other interview outcomes coupled with documented observation proves that mentees rarely teach pupils by first presenting the general concept and then the particular. Documented literature shows that this strategy helps pupils to become critical thinkers.

Item 20 of Table 4.6 which is - *Teacher-trainee presents first the abstract and then the concrete* shows that out of the 15 teacher-trainees observed in a classroom setting

from the three Colleges, 2 (13.3%) were rated Absent, 12 (80%) were rated Weak, whilst 1 (6.7%) was rated Average. None of the mentees was rated Good, Very Good or Excellent. For clarification on the ratings given for the observed traits, a question was asked - *Do you presents first the abstract and then the concrete in teaching pupils and why?* Mansa (not the real name) said “*at times I do start teaching in abstract that is when I want to test whether my pupils can think very critical...if I realise that responses are not forthcoming then I bring concrete materials to elaborate the points I am trying to make*”. Atta (not the real name) said “*it is not all lessons that as a teacher you need to start with an abstract approach and then concrete...some topics may demand teaching in abstract, while some may demand using concrete objects...teaching is a skill and one can do anything provided the pupils will understand the topic...even at times it is even difficult assessing students even with concrete materials...that is why I said teaching is a skill that one need to be trained to acquire*”. These notwithstanding, most of the responses from the interview and the observation ratings really depicted that mentees were not at good standings in terms of methodology, content knowledge and skills in teaching Social Studies.

Item 21 of Table 4.6 which is – *Teacher-trainee motivated students to engage in systematic thinking, rather than lapse into mindless processing* shows that out of the 15 teacher-trainees observed in a classroom setting from the three Colleges, 9 (60.0%) were rated Absent, 3 (20.0%) were rated Weak, 1 (13.3%) was rated Average, whilst 2 (13.3%) were rated Good. None of the mentees was rated Very Good or Excellent. For clarification for the theme observed, interview item 26 was



asked – *Is motivation important in teaching and learning of Social Studies? Explain your answer.* One of the trainees, Mansa (not the real name) who was rated “Good” said *“yes with the following reason “I do not think my JHS Social Studies teacher had any idea what an impact he had on my life... He was my class six teacher's opposite and taught me much about how motivation could help one... He was consistent and concerned, always motivating...while my class six teacher was drunk or ignored me by not motivating me in class... He praised me while my class six teacher criticised... He prized my mind and my accomplishments; my class six teacher cared only about abusing; by insulting and caning... I learned a great deal from that teacher about who I was...and that I was an important person... I think I am becoming a teacher myself to be like him, so that I could make a difference for some other child.”* This implies that the positive influence of an educator on the life of a child can be significant. Following the cognitive and persuasive components with a discussion may help to make the attitude change more permanent, since self-generated messages are more memorable than received ones (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991). “People become more mindful when they encounter novel stimuli that do not fit established categories and when they are motivated to engage in systematic thinking, rather than lapse into mindless processing” (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991:259). The importance of this cognitive engagement for attitude change should not be underestimated. “Attitude changes that result from active and systematic mental processing are the most durable, persisting changes” (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991:181). This implies that students must be motivated when seen doing worthwhile things in class as this will compel others to follow suit. The more thought-through an attitude is, the more

resistant it is to change (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991). The implication here is that as students are motivated it reflects on their attitudes and instruction may lead to an increase in their intensity and permanence.

Item 22 of Table 4.6 which is – *School Based Assessment (SBA) was essentially focused on attitudes and values; that is, affective skills development* shows that out of the 15 teacher-trainees observed in a classroom setting from the three Colleges, 13 (86.7%) were rated Absent, whilst 2 (20.0%) were rated Weak. None of the mentees was rated Average, Good, Very Good or Excellent. Mentees observed were also interviewed for proper clarification of ratings given them by asking this question – *Must Social Studies School Based Assessment (SBA) essentially focused on how to solve problems or dealing with the affective skills development and what do you want your Social Studies pupils to achieve after teaching?* With the question, the respondents have the following to say: Narkwa, (not the real name) has this to say “*since I was taught the subject is finding answers to challenges... I will also tell my pupils that Social Studies is solving problems we face in life... I will ask them questions based on how they will solve problems...this will help them to become great people in future*”. However, most of the mentees said they will be happy when they see their students understand what they teach them, passing their exams and not about how to solve problems or dealing with the affective skills development. These support Quashigah, Eshun and Mensah’s (2013:84) assertion that the pedagogical content knowledge of Social Studies teachers do influence the way they assess their lessons. The implication from this result is that most of the respondents were not

concerned with inculcating into the students the right knowledge, values, attitudes and skills which is the ultimate goal of Social Studies.

Item 23 of Table 4.6 which is – *Mentee could foster student creativity in answering questions* shows that out of the 15 teacher-trainees observed in a classroom setting from the three Colleges, 8 (53.3%) were rated Absent, 5 (33.3%) were rated Weak, 1 (6.7%) was rated Average and another 1 (6.7%) was rated Good. None of the mentees was rated Very Good or Excellent. The observation ratings was based on the following: most of the mentees were not seen motivating their students to ask questions; some also said the questions pupils asked will be answered later; others gave the questions asked by the pupils as an assignment; and a pupil’s question was harshly rebutted when a mentee was heard saying - “*you see...this is not a sensible question since it is not within the area of what we are learning this morning...our topic is different from the question you just asked...okay*”. This comment and others really show that most of the mentees observed were not fostering students’ creativity in answering questions.

Item 24 of Table 4.6 which is - *Mentee could provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused* shows that out of the 15 teacher-trainees observed in a classroom setting from the three Colleges, 11 (73.3%) were rated Absent, 2 (13.3%) were rated Weak, 1 (6.7%) was rated Average and another 1 (6.7%) rated Good. None of the mentees was rated Very Good or Excellent. After the observation, interviews were also carried out using the theme to cross-check ratings

given. Aba (not the real name) said *“In teaching pupils, one of the importance (sic) of setting objectives is that by the end majority of them will understand the lesson taught...there are some pupils whatever explanation or examples you give they will not follow your lesson...so if there is time you can give them one-one attention or lesson taught again...and if not, then, there is nothing that I can do... We are just supporting our mentors...difficult things will be tackled by them”*. Outcome of the other mentees interviewed shows that majority are not having the skills of giving alternative explanation or example when their pupils are confused in the teaching and learning process. The outcomes support the observation ratings given.

Item 25 of Table 4.6 which is – *Mentee could implement alternative methods, techniques and strategies in teaching Social Studies* shows that out of the 15 teacher-trainees observed in a classroom setting from the three Colleges, 10 (66.7%) were rated Absent, 3 (20.0%) were rated Weak, whilst 2 (13.3%) were rated Average. None of the mentees was rated Good, Very Good or Excellent. What is disturbing about these facts is that educators propose that teachers must use learner-centred pedagogies and techniques like debate, panel discussion, simulation, drama and role-play, and oral reports to develop positive skills and values in students (CRDD, 2007). This when practice will let information becomes more meaningful to pupils; therefore, they will retain it for longer period of time. “Brain research has found that the brain searches for patterns and connections as its way of building meaning, if students are not actively engaged in their learning, then they are unable to make the connections necessary to make learning meaningful” (Cuthrell & Yates, 2007:22).

Cuthrell and Yates (2007) found that Social Studies content should be in-depth with lessons and activities.

Item 26 of Table 4.6 which is – *Mentee uses a variety of assessment strategies in teaching* shows that out of the 15 teacher-trainees observed in a classroom setting from the three Colleges, 9 (60.0%) were rated Absent, whilst 6 (40.0%) were rated Weak. None of the mentees was rated Average, Good, Very Good or Excellent. Observation ratings were based on the following: most of the mentees were not assessing pupils in the affective domain and how to acquire problem solving skills. What was documented were mainly of the cognitive domain; which were of mainly lower level of understanding like knowledge and comprehension. Even with the cognitive domain, mentees observed were not assessing their pupils in application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation which may help them to become analytical thinkers. Teachers must not only be abreast with teaching skills in the cognitive but must also be knowledgeable on how to assess attitude learning. This supports Eshun and Mensah (2013b) that test items addressed in the end of term examination in Social Studies were mainly those measuring cognitive outcomes. The findings are also supported by Bekoe et al. (2013:28) that due to hasty nature in formulating formative assessment and scoring, tutors rather laid emphasis on cognitive domain to the neglect of affective and psychomotor domains which are also of paramount importance. While general attitudes are good predictors of general behaviours, and specific attitudes are good predictors of specific behaviours, the general does not reliably predict the specific or the specific the general (Simonson & Maushak, 2000).

Therefore, in assessing attitude learning, any Likert-type scale or similar closed-ended measurements should be used in tandem with more open-ended instruments. This will help the teacher to ascertain where the students are lacking in terms of positive attitude building and remedial measures given out to forestall any future moral decadence.

Item 27 of Table 4.6 which is - *Teacher-trainee can confidently teach all the integrated aspects (i.e. content & method) of the Social Studies curriculum* shows that out of the 15 teacher-trainees observed in a classroom setting from the three Colleges, 12 (80.0%) were rated Absent, whilst 3 (20.0%) were rated Weak. None of the mentees was rated Average, Good, Very Good or Excellent. There were striking revelations here as most teacher-trainees interviewed did not even know the exact method, in what manner, or exactly how the subject should be taught, while few could not be specific where its scope of content can be drawn from. Probing further it was revealed that they were rather making a changeover of what they know Social Studies to be while in college to a new concept. To them, it was a challenge as they need to learn hard before teaching. As a result some said they teach the subject based on the memorisation of facts and their main reason for doing so is that the syllabus there are using is entirely different from what they were taught in college. One gave a solution of bridging the gap by either introducing the scope of content from the syllabus into the college programme so that they can teach it easily when they go out. The essential knowledge and principles from the disciplines where Social Studies has its scope and content from are supposed to be integrated into a subject that stands on

its own and the topics from the syllabus reflect the problems of the individual and society (CRDD, 2007). According to Senechal, (2008) “integrated approaches motivate and interest students in ways that disciplinary content, delivered by traditional pedagogical means, fail to do”. It was highly witnessed that mentees were not up to the task in teaching all the integrated aspects (i.e. content & method) of the Social Studies curriculum at the JHS level.

Item 28 of Table 4.6 which is – *Mentee is aware of the philosophy of Social Studies curriculum at the Colleges of Education and this is portrayed in their teaching* shows that out of the 15 teacher-trainees observed in a classroom setting from the three Colleges, 7 (46.7%) were rated Absent, 6 (40.0%) were rated Weak, whilst 2 (13.3%) were rated Average. None of the mentees was rated Good, Very Good or Excellent. Mentees observed were also interviewed for proper clarification of ratings given them by asking this question - *Are you aware of the philosophy of Social Studies curriculum at the Colleges of Education and how this is portrayed in your teaching?* Kobena (not the real name) said “*the philosophy of the subject is to teach and teach it well... It is like any other subjects we were taught at college to go out there to teach...teaching our primary and JHS pupils to understand and pass their BECE examination...that will be the joy of any mentee-a teacher to be*”. Araba (not the real name) out of the fifteen mentees, however, hit the nail on the head by saying “*the main idea for teaching the subject at the college is to equip us with the needed knowledge for us to be able to mould pupils to be respectful, obedient and tolerant... I mean guiding pupils to behave well... do what the community they live is expected of*

*them...good behaviour is what I am talking about here... to me that is the philosophy of the subject*". However, the outcome of the observation and that of the interviews depicted that most of the mentees were not aware of the philosophy of Social Studies curriculum at the Colleges of Education. This means that Social Studies tutors should be sensitised to let trainees understand the underpinning reasons for introducing the subject in schools in Ghana.

Item 29 of Table 4.6 which is - *Teacher-trainee have the needed skills to plan and implement the Social Studies curriculum* shows that out of the 15 teacher-trainees observed in a classroom setting from the three Colleges, 6 (40.0%) were rated Absent, 5 (33.3%) were rated Weak, whilst 4 (26.7%) were rated Average. None of the mentees was rated Good, Very Good or Excellent. Most trainees observed and interviewed showed that they were not employing critical thinking, which is the most important skill for problem solving, inquiry and discovery in Social Studies. It is the systematic approach of skilfully evaluating information to arrive at the most feasible solution to a variety of structured and ill-structured problems (Winch, 2006; Laxman, 2010; Shah, 2010). Yet teaching Social Studies does not always result in this outcome. Teaching for critical thinking competence necessitates a philosophical shift in focus from learning to thinking (Chun, 2010), drill and practice to problem-based learning (Savery, 2009), subject isolation to subject integration, output to process, what is convenient to what is needed, and now to the future (Peddiwell, 1939).

Guiding students through the process of thinking like researchers and participating in activities helped them to appreciate the importance of not jumping to conclusions



(Parker, 2009). It can be concluded that most of the teacher-trainees are not having the needed skills to plan and implement the Basic School Social Studies curriculum.

Item 30 of Table 4.6 which is – *Teacher-trainees have the needed knowledge to plan and implement the Social Studies curriculum* shows that out of the 15 teacher-trainees observed in a classroom setting from the three Colleges, 1 (6.7%) were rated Absent, 10 (66.7%) were rated Weak, whilst 4 (26.7%) were rated Average. None of the mentees was rated Good, Very Good or Excellent. Mentees observed were also interviewed for proper clarification of ratings given them by asking this question – *How do you find the teaching and learning of Social Studies while at college and the teaching of the subject at the JHS?* For this question, Fiifi (not the real name) a lead mentee said “*most of the topics we are asked to teach are just new to us... This makes us to do a whole lot of research...it is difficult and time consuming to grasp the new ideas*”. Kuuku (not the real name) said “*it is very interesting, although, I am pursuing the general programme, there are many topics I will not be able to teach them properly since such topics have no link with what I was taught while at college... Although, one needs to be resourceful as a teacher... I am trying...*” Majority of the interviewees said many of the topics in the Basic School Social Studies syllabus have no bearing on what they were taught in Social Studies while at College. They went on to say that the CoE curriculum which is geography concentrated do not reflect the content of the JHS syllabus. This really implies that teacher-trainees were not having fair knowledge to plan and implement the Social Studies curriculum. The problem is created as a result of the differences in College of Education Social Studies

curriculum and that of the Basic School Social Studies syllabus. The finding here is supported by the outcome of the comparative documentary analysis of the JHS syllabus and the Colleges of Education Social Studies curriculum. Contextualizing this section, mentees were found presenting facts to pupils than delivering concepts using pupil-centred techniques like discussion, role-play, debate/argumentation, simulation, and other cooperative learning techniques by bringing on board how problems related to a given topic would be solved.

#### **4.5 Summary**

The outcomes of the demographic data are:

1. One hundred and fifty mentees were used for the study. Out of this, 50 representing 33.3% of the mentees were selected from each of the three colleges, namely, Enchi; Wiawso; and the Holy Child College of Education.
2. Out of the 150 mentees, 63 were males, whilst 87 were females. Out of the 50 mentees selected from Enchi College of Education, 25 were males, whilst 25 were females. Out of the 50 selected from Wiawso CoE, 38 were males, whilst 12 were females. Fifty females were selected from Holy Child CoE as a female college.
3. With their age, one hundred and eighteen final year teacher-trainees fall within the 21-25 age bracket. Out of the 118, 40 (33.9%) were from Enchi College, 34 (28.8%) were from Wiawso College, whilst 44 (37.3%) were from Holy Child College. Thirty mentees fall within 26-30 age bracket. Out of the 30, 9 (30.0%) were from Enchi College, 15 (50.0%) were from Wiawso College, whilst 6 (20.0%) were from Holy Child College. Two mentees fall within 31 years and

above. Out of the 2, 1 (50%) was from Enchi College, whilst 1 (50%) was from Wiawso College.

The following are some of the outcomes derived from the discussion of the various sources of data based on the research questions used in the study:

*Research Question One*

1. Differences exist in the curricula structures of Social Studies at the Colleges of Education and the JHS level in Ghana.
2. JHS syllabus concerns skills, attitudes but that of Colleges of Education concerns facts, concepts and generalisations mainly in geography with no history topics.
3. Differences exist in the conceptions of the subject in Colleges of Education in relation to how the JHS Social Studies is structured in Ghana.
4. Whilst the JHS syllabus is transdisciplinary in nature or problem solving oriented that of the Colleges of Education is packed in crossdisciplinary perspective.
5. Both levels see Social Studies as integration.
6. Environmental Studies is not a subject taught at the primary schools; rather citizenship education is taught at the upper primary schools.

*Research Question Two*

7. Mentees have varied conceptions about the scope of content of Social Studies.
8. Different conceptual perspectives exist in the teaching and learning of Social Studies in the CoE in Ghana. Mentees understand Social Studies as an amalgamation of the social sciences; citizenship education; global citizenship

education; civic engagement / participatory citizen; multicultural education; human rights education; political education; economic education; peace education; moral education; and as the teaching of geographical concepts.

9. Mentees conceptualise the content of Social Studies to cover: subject-centred; acquisition of problem-solving skills; solving issues that threaten human survival; separated into individual subject areas rather than organised as integrated discipline; development of positive attitudes of students; critical examination of controversial issues; on the critical thinking about important social and political issues; and the key social and cultural situations in the community.

### *Research Question Three*

10. Mentees' conceptions about Social Studies have great impacts on their classroom activities (the way they select content, set objectives, teach and assess pupils).
11. Mentees prefer setting objective questions to those demanding subjective responses.
12. Mentees were not at good standings in terms of methodology, content knowledge and skills in teaching Social Studies.
13. Mentees are not using a variety of assessment strategies in teaching. Mentees' School Based Assessment (SBA) was essentially not focused on attitudes and values; that is, affective skills development.
14. Mentees preferred using teacher-centred technique in teaching Social Studies to pupil-centred techniques.

15. Mentees are not having the needed knowledge to plan and implement the Social Studies curriculum.



## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.0 Introduction

The presentation in this concluding chapter covers summary and implications for teaching; limitations of the study; conclusions; recommendations; and suggestions for further research.

#### 5.1 Summary and Implications for Teaching

The purpose of the study was to ascertain the final year teacher-trainees' ideas about the College and School Social Studies and their sense of efficacy in implementing Ghana's Basic School Social Studies curriculum. The following research questions were formulated to guide the study: (1) What are the major differences in notions about Social Studies in terms of its purpose, nature and methods of teaching as contained in the Colleges of Education curriculum and the Junior High School teaching syllabus? (2) What differences in structure have final year teacher trainees encountered from their experiences with the College of Education Social Studies curriculum and the Junior High School teaching syllabus? And (3) What are the levels of efficacy in implementing the Basic School curriculum as a result of the possible differences in conceptions and curricula structures of Social Studies in Ghana?

The research approaches chosen for this study are; both qualitative and quantitative (mixed method). The population for this study included all final year teacher-trainees

offering the general programme for Diploma in Basic Education (DBE) certificate in the three Colleges of Education in the Western Region of the Republic of Ghana.

One hundred and fifty final year teacher-trainees were sampled from the three Colleges of Education in the Western Region of the Republic of Ghana. Non-probability sampling methods (purposive and convenience sampling techniques) were used to select the region, sample of districts, colleges and respondents for the study. Data Collection was facilitated through the administration of questionnaire, interview, focus group discussion, classroom observation and documentary analysis.

The quantitative data entry and analysis was done by using the SPSS software package. The data was edited, coded and analysed into tables, frequencies, percentages, weighted mean with interpretations. The qualitative data was analysed by the use of the interpretative method based on the themes arrived at during the data collection. The themes were related to the research questions and interpreted on the number of issues raised by respondents. These were based on questions on the semi-structured interviews, focus group discussions and the observation of final year teacher trainees' while they teach the subject in a classroom setting using teacher's efficacy scale. Interpretation technique was used to analyse the documents on Social Studies curriculum of Colleges of Education in relation to the JHS Social Studies syllabus. This was based on the two comparative analytical process created by the researcher: (1) The course description and objectives for offering the Social Studies programme at Colleges of Education vis-à-vis the rational and objectives of the JHS

syllabus; and (2) Content and nature of Colleges of Education Social Studies vis-à-vis the JHS Social Studies syllabus.

Teacher training colleges having different curriculum content and modes of delivering Social Studies contrast to the current JHS syllabus tend to influence trained teachers as to what the meaning of Social Studies is, its contents and the worth of teaching it at the Basic School level. With this, much is needed to assist Social Studies teachers to be abreast with the nature and the scope of content of Social Studies in a harmonised subject matter required to improve the quality of teaching and learning. This, when not done properly, may continue to influence the way they select content, set objectives, teach and assess their pupils. The gap created in knowledge and ideal practice is that, whilst the JHS Social Studies syllabus mentees use in teaching is issue oriented, the College of Education Social Studies curriculum is packed in cross-disciplinary perspective with geography concentration. Implication of the many geography topics in the Colleges of Education curriculum make mentees learn to decode facts and geographical concepts, and not how related problems are solved. This makes the abrupt changeover of the learning of geographical concepts to issue oriented approach very difficult by most of the mentees.

Students taught not to understand Social Studies as an attitudinal building or problem-oriented subject but over emphasised knowledge component of the subject may pass through the academic system without acquiring worthwhile skills, values and attitudes that will enable them to solve their own problems and that of society. The varied conceptions can be addressed by introducing the Social Studies syllabus in use



as a course of study in Social Studies curriculum for student-teachers at the Colleges of Education. This will help them acquire the most basic orientation of the current Social Studies syllabus in used at the Basic School level. This will help bridge the gap between the CoE and the Basic level.

## **5.2 Limitations of the Study**

It is very difficult to determine the knowledge base of a person, because formation of knowledge is purely covert. Hence the ways in which individuals analyse and interpret information and make sense of it, may or can be deceptive. On this bases, responses to the various instruments, may be either accurate or with some biases, especially if teachers practice or teach different content outside the domain of the Social Studies curriculum given and analysed. The limitations also included the fact that the close ended questionnaire may be somewhat inexact and may fail to measure the conceptions of teacher-trainees of the subject with a kind of precision that was desired. The teachers' sense of efficacy scale adopted may also have some reliability ramifications because of the differences in the social and environment context used.

However, the above major defects were curtailed by the use of multiple instruments like the interviews, focus group discussion, observation, and documentary analysis of Social Studies curriculum of CoE vis-à-vis the JHS syllabus. Testing for consistency of results through the use of triangulation and complementarity techniques highly ensured that.

Locating mentees to observe them while they teach in a classroom setting was a problem as by then GNAT and NAGRAT had embarked on a joint strike action from the 18th of March, 2013 as a result of unpaid allowances and other promotional problems as their grievances. This took some time off from the study; however, after some few weeks the strike was called off.

### **5.3 Conclusions**

College of Education uses a particular conception of Social Studies curriculum for the production of Social Studies education teachers for Basic Schools different from the JHS Social Studies syllabus.

Colleges of Education subscribe to and use a cross-disciplinary perspective which is dominated with geographical concepts, whilst JHS subscribes to and uses trans-disciplinary approach which is holistic, theme based and problem solving.

Both the CoE and the JHS curriculum see Social Studies as integration but there is a problem of acceptable level of integration. The acceptable level is the source of confusion in the Social Studies curriculum feuding and curriculum implementation. The acceptable level is infusing content of social studies with distillate issues from the social sciences that can result in problem solving.

Social Studies of CoEs, although equipped students with integrated knowledge, it is done in the cross-disciplinary perspective in the social sciences, whilst that of the JHS is centred on issues around the environment; government, politics and stability; and social and economic development which is trans-disciplinary in nature.

Environmental Studies introduced at the colleges to equip trainees to be abreast with how to address environmental issues while teaching primary pupils to imbue in them environmental awareness creation is not a subject taught in the primary schools. Rather Citizenship Education which has its own scope of content different from the Environmental Studies is now taught at the Upper Primary Schools.

There has been emerged issues and changing conceptions of teaching and learning of Social Studies over the years with regards to its meaning, scope, nature, objectives and even the way assessment tools are selected in teaching it. Some are citizenship, global citizenship, multicultural, human rights, political, economic, moral, and peace education.

There are different conceptual perspectives given to the scope of content of Social Studies through time and space. However, the focus is the objectives around which the various proponents identified as elements of their conceptual dimensions and given definitions.

There are verifiable evidence of diverse knowledge base of final year teacher-trainees about the conceptions of Social Studies and its effective teaching. Pedagogical training is a strong predictor of teacher-trainees conceptions about Social Studies.

Content knowledge alone does not adequately prepare teachers for the challenges they face in today's Social Studies classrooms.

The varying conceptions through time and space indicated that Social Studies is seen as a subject introduced solely to right the wrong in society, and its teaching and learning must be centred on issues and how problems are solved to unearth youth with positive attitude building skills and behavioural change.

Critical thinking is the most important skill for problem solving, inquiry and discovery in Social Studies.

Where final year teacher-trainees are responsible to conduct curriculum-based teaching in the Ghanaian Basic Schools, the orientation about what they believe in rather impact on what and how they go about their classroom activities (the way they select content, set objectives, teach and assess pupils).

Final year teacher-trainees' current knowledge base about Social Studies as a problem solving was inadequate.

Discrepancies exist between the ideal classroom activities mentees said they will exhibit and what they actually demonstrated in their teaching of Social Studies.

School Based Assessment (SBA) are essentially not focused on attitudes and values; that is, affective skills development. Assessments are mainly lower level of understanding like knowledge and comprehension.

Pupil-centred techniques like discussion, role-play, debate/argumentation, simulation, writing narratives other cooperatives techniques help pupils to become critical thinkers, tolerant and problem solvers.

Mentees are ill-equipped to problem-solving skills as they had difficulty interpreting certain aspects of the official curriculum documents of Social Studies. The gap between the CoE and the JHS curriculum; and lack of clarity led to the confusion.

The confusion created by varying definitions and perceived objectives hinders the teaching and attainments of the subject's goal-positive attitude development.

Final year teacher-trainees are not having the fair knowledge to plan and implement the Social Studies curriculum. Mentees lack the basic Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) to implement the Basic School Social Studies curriculum.

#### **5.4 Recommendations**

It is also recommended that the foundational policy on Social Studies curriculum should help address the gap created in the knowledge acquisition of the subject in all the levels of education in Ghana. There should be reform in tertiary education including Colleges of Education to restructure the manner in which Social Studies education is perceived in order to improve the quality of students.

Citizenship, economic, political, human rights, moral and peace education should be taught under the framework of Social Studies programme, and these perspectives must be well framed and properly taught by teachers. This will enable Ghana hopefully witness a better moral and peaceful future where good productivity, secured lives and properties and removal of anxieties and political upheavals will be put in place. Children learn better at their formative ages; doing so will help them to learn

the importance of various perspectives and be encouraged to embrace the principles of problem solving as future leaders.

It is recommended that Social Studies tutors of CoEs should hold it a duty to help students have better, more realistic ideas about the multiple realities of what constitutes Social Studies in the real world since they (teachers) influence what is taught.

Open ended questions should be incorporated in assessing concepts taught in class as these make pupils to come out with divergent views. This helps remedial measures to be carried out by class teachers. This process helps in developing critical thinking skills in pupils.

Teachers must be knowledgeable on how to assess attitude learning by using any Likert-type scale or similar close-ended measurements in tandem with more open-ended instruments. This will help the teacher to ascertain where the students are lacking in terms of positive attitude building and remedial measures given out to forestall any future moral decadence.

There must be a national curriculum policy on Social Studies that all pathways to teaching of the subject should undergo review according to such national standards. There is the need for instituting teaching profession's quality assurance mechanism that will help to prepare and review teacher preparation programmes to merits the needs of society. This will help recognise the need for adequate preparation in

understanding and applying the knowledge base. Practice must be centred on the current knowledge base of Social Studies, which is problem solving.

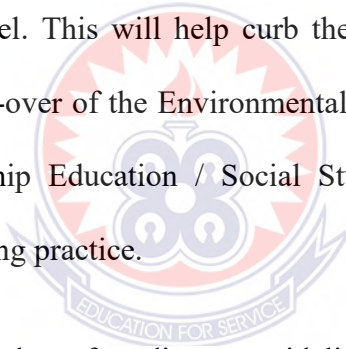
It is also recommended that, the affective domain aspect of education should be given priority while implementing citizenship, political, multicultural, human rights, economic, moral, and peace education, etc. under the framework of Social Studies programme. Appropriate inferences, teaching resources and trained teachers for the subject should be given serious attention by the government if it would achieve its intended national goals. Social Studies tutors should be sensitised to let trainees understand the reasons underpinning the subject introduction in Ghana.

At least one credit hour course should be designed and mounted on the current Junior High School (JHS) Social Studies syllabus for students in Colleges of Education as part of their programme of study. This will help mentees to become familiar with the content of the syllabus, making it easy in their selection of valid content, setting of appropriate objectives in their teaching and even the mode of using appropriate assessment tools. If importance is attached to Social Studies then resources already invested in its planning and implementation in Ghana, must be followed by programme review and remedial measures taken early, so as to make it more effective and viable.

Social Studies curriculum of the Colleges of Education should be harmonised to focus more on attitudes and values cultivation as well as skills development of teacher-trainees to be in consonance with the current JHS Social Studies syllabus. This will

forge a better ground for continuity of what they were taught while at College and what they will be teaching at the Basic Schools.

It should be noted that this study is to help bridge the gap of varied conceptions of Social Studies. The issue is bridging theory and practice. This means that Institute of Education-UCC should institute measures that will lead to putting the Basic School Citizenship Education and the Social Studies syllabuses into use in the Colleges of Education and not the differences in curriculum conceptions at both levels. This will result in continuation of what student-teachers were taught in college and what they will be teaching in the Upper Primary which is Citizenship Education and Social Studies at the JHS level. This will help curb the challenges of mentees associated with the abrupt change-over of the Environmental / Social Studies at the Colleges of Education to Citizenship Education / Social Studies at the Basic Schools when undergoing their teaching practice.



Summary from the number of studies on guidelines for effective design of attitude instruction (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991; Bednar & Levie, 1993; Wetzel, 1994; Smith & Ragan, 1999; Simonson & Maushak, 2001) all suggest that children should take integral part in teaching and learning activities and without their involvement in classroom activities implies learning has not taken place. It is therefore suggested that participatory techniques such as role-play, simulation, discussion, debates, brainstorming, writing narratives, and other cooperative learning techniques should be used in the teaching and learning of Social Studies. These help pupils to become critical thinkers, tolerant and problem solvers. Seeing the subject as problem-oriented



will compel mentees to involve their pupils in the teaching and learning process so as to test their skills and attitude formation level in identifying problems and how they can be solved.

### **5.5 Suggestions for further Research**

For further research, an interesting field would be conducting a study of the Colleges of Education Social Studies tutors' pedagogical content knowledge and their influence on selection of assessment tools. This would be a comprehensive research to make which I believe would be interesting and revealing.



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## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX A

#### Introductory Letter to College Principals of Enchi, Wiawso and Holy Child

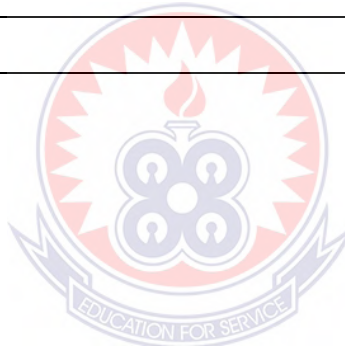


**APPENDIX B****Summary of Social Studies Course Structure of Colleges of Education and the Structure and Organisation of the Junior High School Syllabus in Ghana**

Below is the structure of the Social Studies programme for year one and year two, first and second semesters of the Colleges of Education:

**First and Second Semesters of the First and Second Year**

<b>Course Code</b>	<b>Course Title</b>	<b>Credits</b>
FDC 118	Environmental and Social Studies I	2
FDC 128:	Environmental and Social Studies II	2
PFC218:	Methods of Teaching Environmental & Social Studies	2
PFC 228:	Environmental and Social Studies III	2
<b>Total</b>		<b>8</b>



**TOPICS AND SUB-TOPICS UNDER THE COURSES TAUGHT IN THE  
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION**

**First Year, Semester One - FDC 118: Environmental and Social Studies I**

<b>Topics</b>	<b>Sub-Topics</b>
The Subject Environmental and Social Studies	Meaning of Environmental Studies; Scope of Environmental Studies; Attributes of Environmental Studies; Goals of Environmental Studies; Importance of Environmental Studies; The Meaning of Social Studies; Scope of Social Studies; Attributes of Social Studies; Goals of Social Studies; and Importance of Social Studies.
Components of the Environment	Structure of the Atmosphere; Weather; Climate; The Earth as a Planet; Structure of the Earth; Rocks; Drainage Systems; Lakes and Lagoons; and Oceans and Seas.
Maps and Scales	What maps are; types of maps; importance of maps; explanation of the scale of a map; different ways of stating the scale of a map; conversion of a scale from one form to another; types of maps and their scale; map reduction and map enlargement; measurement of distance using the scale; and measurement of areas using the scale of a map.
Resources and their Utilisation for Sustainable Development in Ghana	Resources-what are they; natural resources; cultural resources; human resources; explanation of the concept “utilisation”; explanation of “sustainable development”; utilisation of cultural resources for sustainable development in Ghana; utilisation of natural resources for sustainable development in Ghana; utilisation of human resources for sustainable development in Ghana; problems with efficient utilisation of resources for sustainable development in Ghana and their solutions.
Various Types of Occupations / Productions	Primary occupations; secondary industry/occupation; and tertiary occupation/industry.
Financial Institutions	The central bank; control of commercial banks by central bank; commercial banks and their functions; development banks and their functions; other financial institutions-the stock exchange; the rural banks and their functions; merchant banks and building societies; money and capital markets; insurance companies; and the role of the central bank and the commercial banks in the economic development of the country.



**First Year, Semester Two - FDC 128: Environmental and Social Studies II**

<b>Topics</b>	<b>Sub-Topics</b>
The Role of Community Institutions in the Development of Society	Explanation of the term “community institutions”; religious organisations; traditional authority and the development of society; the role of the family; forms of government; the structure of the national government; the role of the national government in the development of society; explanation and composition of the district assembly; functions of the district assembly; and challenges of the district assembly.
Human Resource and Development.	Human resource and development; education, training and productivity; contribution of education and training to productivity; acceptable social attitudes; values and beliefs; values that enhance productivity; gender and sex; and gender issues.
Environmental Degradation.	Environmental degradation, meaning and types; air pollution, causes, effects and prevention; water pollution, causes, effects and prevention; and land degradation, causes, effects and prevention.
Methods of Showing Relief on Maps.	Definition of relief maps; hill shading; layer colouring; spot heights and form lines; trigonometrical stations or points; contour numbering; conical hill and plateau; valley and spur; ridge/col/saddle and pass; and escarpment.
Representation of Direction, and Position.	Magnetic north; true/geographic north; grid north; compass/cardinal points; and longitudes and latitudes (concepts and importance)
Conventional Signs used on Ghana Maps.	Meaning/definitions of conventional signs; conventional signs used to show political features; conventional signs used to show relief features; conventional signs used to show water features; conventional signs used to show vegetation features; and conventional signs used to show man-made features.
Other relief features and the concept of Intervisibility.	Uniform slope; steep slope; gentle slope; concave and convex slopes; cross sectional drawing; intervisibility; and gradient: vertical interval and horizontal equivalent.

**Second Year, Semester One - PFC 218: Methods of Teaching Environmental and Social Studies**

<b>Topics</b>		<b>Sub-Topics</b>
Integration/Integrated Approach to the Designing of Environmental and Social Studies Programme or Syllabus or Curriculum.		Meaning; and importance.
The Spiral Approach to the Designing of Environmental and Social Studies Programme.		Explanation; and significance.
The Concentric / Expanding Horizon Approach to the Designing of Environmental and Social Studies Programme.		Explanation; and significance.
Methods, Techniques and Strategies.	When to use them; how to use them; merits and demerits; explanation and relationship between methods, techniques and strategies.	
Brainstorming Technique of Teaching.	Explanation; when to use it; how to use it; merits and demerits.	
Role-Play Technique of Teaching.	Explanation; when to use it; how to use it; advantages and disadvantages.	
Simulation Technique.	Explanation; when to use it; how to use it; strength and weakness.	
Debate Technique.	Explanation; when to use it; how to use it; merits and demerits.	
Discussion Technique.	Explanation; when to use it; how to use it; advantages and disadvantages.	
Teaching and Learning Resources.	Types; and criteria for selection.	
Community Resources.	What they are; types; how to use them.	
Resource Person/Guest Speaker.	Who a resource person is; when to use a resource person; and how to use a resource person.	
Resource Room.	What is it; and the importance of resource room.	
Lesson Planning and Presentation.	Things to consider; components of lesson notes; and process of planning.	

**Second Year, Semester Two - PFC 228: Environmental and Social Studies**

<b>Topics</b>	<b>Sub-Topics</b>
Constitutional Rule and Provision of Human Rights	Meaning and sources of constitution; types of constitution; forms of constitution; the need for a constitution; constitutional rule, its features and significance; citizenship and ways of acquiring it; human rights and types; ways of ensuring citizen's rights; limitation of rights of the individual; and human rights abuse.
Health Issues: Reproductive Health and Significance of Reproductive Health Education	Reproductive health issues-STDs, female genital mutilation (FGM); drug abuse; and national health insurance scheme.
Food Security	Increasing food production; reducing post-harvest losses; and food processing.
Ghana's relationship with International Organisations and Agencies	ECOWAS; A.U; Commonwealth of Nations; and U.N.O.
Map Interpretation	Relief and drainage-trends of hills and valleys; drainage patterns, slopes and height; description of features of human occupancy-communications, occupations, population and settlements.
Statistical Mapping	Graphs and diagrams: pie charts, flow diagrams, wind rose diagrams, distribution maps (quantitative and area); divided rectangles and proportional circles; the use of statistical mapping in Environmental and Social Studies.

Source: *Culled from the course outline of the General Programme for the 3-Year Diploma in Basic Education for Colleges of Education in Ghana.*

**Junior High School: Structure and Organisation of the Social Studies Syllabus**

<b>JHS 1</b>	<b>JHS 2</b>	<b>JHS 3</b>
SECTION 1 ENVIRONMENT	SECTION 1 ENVIRONMENT	SECTION 1 ENVIRONMENT
UNIT 1: The Environment and Environmental Problems  UNIT 2: Adolescent Reproductive Health	UNIT 1: Our Culture  UNIT 2: Mapping our Environment  UNIT 3: Our Country Ghana	UNIT 1: Significance of some Natural Features of the Earth  UNIT 2: Population Growth and Development
SECTION 2 GOVERNANCE, POLITICS AND STABILITY	SECTION 2 GOVERNANCE, POLITICS AND STABILITY	SECTION 2 GOVERNANCE, POLITICS AND STABILITY
UNIT 1: Ghana as a Nation  UNIT 2: Colonisation And National Development  UNIT 3: Independence and Nationhood  UNIT 4: Citizenship and Human Rights	UNIT 1: Our Constitution  UNIT 2: Law and Order in our Community  UNIT 3: Conflict Prevention and Management  UNIT 4: Ghana's Co-operation with Other Nations.	UNIT 1: Government and Society  UNIT 2: Promoting Political Stability in Ghana
SECTION 3 SOCIO-ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT	SECTION 3 SOCIO-ECONOMIC DEVELOPEMNT	SECTION 3 SOCIO-ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT
UNIT 1: The Use of Land in Our Community  UNIT 2: Our Natural and Human Resources  UNIT 3: Production in Ghana  UNIT 4: Managing Our Finances	UNIT 1: Tourism, Leisure and Development  UNIT 2: Education and Productivity  UNIT3: Entrepreneurship	UNIT 1: Problems of Development in Ghana  UNIT 2: Sustainable Development

Source: *Culled from the JHS Social Studies syllabus (CRDD, 2007)*

## APPENDIX C

### Self-Made Questionnaire (SMQ) about the Concept of Social Studies

The questionnaire is anonymous, which means that you should not write your name. I need your opinion and knowledge about the concept of Social Studies. Thus, you shall not make use of book or other sources to find the “right answers”. It is important that you fill in the questionnaire yourself, and do not ask for help from others. Be honest with your answers. It is important that you do not try to guess the answers. Your help is very important to me, as these questionnaire items will form the base of my Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) Thesis in Social Studies. Thus, I would like to thank you for taking time of your busy schedule to do this.

### SECTION A

#### Personal Record

*Please circle the letter that corresponds to your answer.*

1. Institution attending for your highest certificate.
  - A. Enchi College of Education (Aowin District)
  - B. Wiawso College of Education (Sefwi Wiawso District)
  - C. Holy Child College of Education (Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis)
2. Age of final year teacher-trainee.
  - A. Up to 20 years
  - B. 21-25 years
  - C. 26-30 years
  - D. 31 years and above
3. Sex of final year teacher-trainee.
  - A. Male
  - B. Female

Below is a list of statements about Social Studies. Read carefully and select which statement best describes your understanding of Social Studies.

Please tick (✓) the appropriate column. Note that the ratings are as follows:

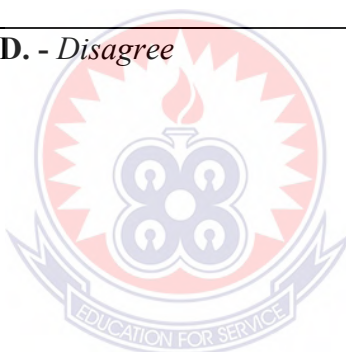
Agree (A) - 3, Uncertain (U) - 2, Disagree (D) -1

No.	SECTION B: Trainees' Understanding of the term 'Social Studies'	A	U	D
1	Social Studies is an Amalgamation of the Social Sciences.			
2	Social Studies is an Approach/Method of Teaching.			
3	Social Studies is Citizenship Education.			
4	Social Studies can be seen as Global Citizenship Education			
5	Social Studies can be seen as civic engagement/participatory citizen.			
6	Social Studies can be seen as Multicultural Education.			
7	Social Studies can be seen as Human Rights Education.			
8	Social Studies can be seen as Political Education.			
9	Social Studies can be seen as Economic Education.			
10	Social Studies can be seen as Peace Education.			
11	Social Studies can be seen as Moral Education.			
12	Social Studies can be seen as the teaching of geographical concepts.			
13	Social Studies can be seen as the teaching of historical facts.			
	<b>SECTION C: Trainees' Conception of the Nature and Content of Social Studies</b>	<b>A</b>	<b>U</b>	<b>D</b>
14	The Social Studies curriculum of the schools should be subject-centred (e.g., social science subjects such as geography, history, and economics).			
15	The curriculum of Social Studies should focus on problem-solving skills.			
16	The scope of Social Studies Education is based on current issues in society.			
17	The scope of Social Studies Education is based on solving issues that threaten human survival.			
18	There is significant difference between the content of social science subjects and Social Studies.			
19	There is a major difference in the methods of teaching social science subjects and Social Studies.			
20	There is significant difference between citizenship education and education for citizenry.			
21	The Social Studies curriculum should be separated into individual subject areas rather than organised as integrated disciplines.			
22	The Social Studies curriculum of a school should be determined by content that is essential for developing positive attitudes of students.			
23	The Social Studies curriculum of the schools should focus on the great thinkers and problem solvers of the past.			

24	Social Studies curriculum needs to focus on the critical examination of controversial issues.	A	U	D
25	Critical thinking is the most important skill for problem solving, inquiry and discovery in Social Studies.			
26	The Social Studies curriculum should focus on critical thinking about important social and political issues.			
27	Social Studies curriculum planners should consider key social and cultural situation in the community in the Social Studies programme.			
<b>SECTION D: Trainees' Conception of how Social Studies ought to be taught</b>		<b>A</b>	<b>U</b>	<b>D</b>
28	Amalgamation of the social sciences is the best approach for Social Studies.			
29	Citizenship Education is the best approach for Social Studies.			
30	Method Integration is the best approach for Social Studies.			
31	Content Integration is the best approach for Social Studies.			
32	Presentation of facts from the Social Studies syllabus is the best approach for Social Studies.			
33	Writing narratives in Social Studies classes can prove effective at helping students learn about historical figures in a challenging and enjoyable way.			
34	Role-play technique is the best technique to help pupils grasp the ideals of Social Studies.			
35	Discussion technique can be effective because they can be challenging, promote learning and encourage tolerance			
36	Argumentation is an excellent way for students to demonstrate their ability to think critically.			
37	Cooperative learning has been found to be an effective strategy for Social Studies classes.			
38	Persuasive messages in lesson can be used by Social Studies teachers to instil the right ideals in students - positive attitude building and behavioural change.			
39	Social Studies professionals should begin educational planning by focusing first on social and political issues that will affect students and society.			
40	There is no objective about what Social Studies should be.			
41	There is no universal reality about what Social Studies should be.			
42	The primary role of a Social Studies teacher is to increase student's awareness of social issues.			
43	The primary role of a Social Studies teacher is to help students learn how positive attitude can impact on one's community to develop.			
44	The scope of Social Studies education is based on current issues in society.			

		<b>A</b>	<b>U</b>	<b>D</b>
45	The scope of Social Studies Education is based on solving issues that threaten human survival.			
46	The aim of Social Studies Education should cultivate the rational thinking abilities of students.			
47	The purpose of Social Studies is to prepare students for life.			
48	Social Studies is designed to help students have positive attitudinal change.			
49	Social Studies is the social science in practice.			
50	Differences between students arise from their particular cultural and social situation and can be minimised as they recognise their common needs and problems through Social Studies education.			
51	The role of the Social Studies teacher is to guide students in their mastery of problem-solving processes.			
52	An effective Social Studies education is NOT aimed at the immediate needs of the students or society.			
53	Social Studies professionals should encourage students to examine their values and beliefs and to raise critical questions, especially about societal values.			

**A.** - Agree, **U.** - Uncertain, **D.** - Disagree





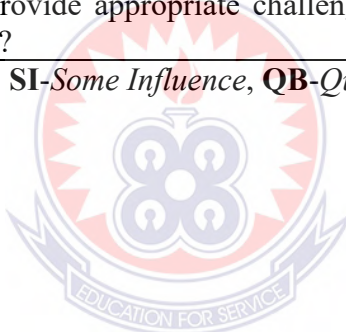
### Adopted Questionnaire on Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale

Questionnaires on Section E were adopted from Megan Tschannen-Moran and Anita Woolfolk Hoy. This questionnaire is designed to help us gain a better understanding of the kinds of things that create difficulties for pre-service teachers in their school activities. Please indicate your opinion about each of the statements below. Your answers are confidential. Items are on a 5 point scale anchored at Nothing, Very Little, Some Influence, Quite a Bit, and A Great Deal.

No	How much can you do in your Social Studies lesson?					
	SECTION E: Final-Year Teacher-Trainees' Sense of Efficacy Scale	N	VL	SI	QB	GD
		1	2	3	4	5
54	How much can you do to get through to the most difficult students in the teaching and learning of Social Studies?					
55	How much can you do to help your students think critically?					
56	How much can you do to control disruptive behaviour in the classroom?					
57	How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in school work?					
58	To what extent can you make your expectations clear about student behaviour?					
59	How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in school work?					
60	How well can you respond to difficult questions from your students?					
61	How well can you establish routines to keep activities running smoothly?					
62	How much can you do to help your students' value learning?					
63	How much can you gauge student comprehension of what you have taught?					
64	To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?					
65	How much can you do to foster student creativity in Social Studies lesson?					
66	How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules?					
67	How much can you do to improve the understanding of a student who is failing?					
68	How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy in your Social Studies class?					

How much can you do in your Social Studies lesson?						
	SECTION E: Final-Year Teacher-Trainees' Sense of Efficacy Scale (Continuation)	N	VL	SI	QB	GD
		1	2	3	4	5
69	How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students?					
70	How much can you do to adjust your lessons to the proper level for individual students?					
71	How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies?					
72	How well can you keep a few problem students from ruining an entire lesson?					
73	To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused?					
74	How well can you respond to defiant students?					
75	How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in school?					
76	How well can you implement alternative strategies in your Social Studies classroom?					
77	How well can you provide appropriate challenges for very capable students?					

*N-Nothing, VL-Very Little, SI-Some Influence, QB-Quite a Bit, GD-A Great Deal*



## APPENDIX D

### Focus Group Discussion Checklist

1. Do you see Social Studies as an Amalgamation of the Social Sciences? Give reasons for your answer.
2. Do you see Social Studies as an Approach/Method of Teaching? Give reasons.
3. Do you see Social Studies as Citizenship Education? Give reasons for your answer.
4. Can Social Studies be seen as Global Citizenship Education? Give reasons.
5. Can Social Studies be seen as civic engagement / participatory citizen? Give reasons.
6. Can Social Studies be seen as Multicultural Education? Give reasons for your answer.
7. Do you see Social Studies as Human Rights Education? Give reasons for your answer.
8. Do you see Social Studies as Political Education? Give reasons for your answer.
9. Do you see Social Studies as Economic Education? Give reasons.
10. Can Social Studies be seen as Peace Education? Give reasons for your answer.
11. Do you see Social Studies as Moral Education? Give reasons for your answer.
12. Can Social Studies be seen as the teaching of geographical concepts? Give reasons.
13. Do you see Social Studies as the teaching of historical facts? Give reasons for your answer.



14. Should Social Studies curriculum of schools be subject-centred (i.e. Geography, History, Economics, Sociology, etc.)? Explain your answer.
15. Should Social Studies curriculum be separated into individual subject areas rather than organised as integrated discipline? Explain your answer.



## APPENDIX E

### Interview Guide

1. What do you think is the ultimate goal of Social Studies?
2. Do you know Social Studies curriculum objectives at your level if YES, clearly specify at least two of such objectives? If NO, give reasons for your answer.
3. What is integration in designing the Social Studies curriculum and how is it done?
4. How do you formulate objectives, select content, unit or topic in Social Studies?
5. How do you conceptualise Social Studies in terms of its meaning, content, and approach?
6. How do you teach the subject and why?
7. What is Citizenship Education? Give its scope and content.
8. Is the teaching syllabus of Environmental/Social Studies at the Basic School structured the way you were taught at College and conceptualise the subject? Give reasons for your answer.
9. Do you keep in mind the problem or issues being addressed in the Social Studies teaching syllabus for Basic Schools as you teach any topic?
  - If 'yes' how do you get the problem addressed?
  - If 'no' what informs the topics you teach in Social Studies?
10. What do you hope to achieve through the teaching of Social Studies?
11. Has Social Studies help you change your perceptions on how you view things around you? Give reasons for your answer.
12. Do you present your lessons with Teaching and Learning Materials (TLMs) in every lesson? Explain your answer.

13. Must Social Studies teacher use credible persuasive messages to get students to think about an issue or object in concrete, vivid images that have definite implications for behaviour? Give reasons for your answer.
14. Should Social Studies teacher use follow-up activities that have definite implications for behaviour and why?
15. Should Social Studies teacher use open-ended questions that have definite implications for behaviour and why?
16. Must Social Studies mentee elicits and creates an aroused state in learners through intellectual involvement in class and why?
17. Should teacher-trainee involves students in role-play and why?
18. Must Social Studies mentees involve students in discussion? Explain your answer.
19. Must Social Studies mentees involves students in brainstorming and why?
20. Is Social Studies supposed to be taught with the aim of developing positive attitude of pupils? Give reasons.
21. Do you provide post-instruction discussion or critique opportunities and why?
22. Must Social Studies teacher teach learners to model and reinforce desired behaviours? Give reasons for your answer.
23. Do you teach pupils by first presenting the general and then the particular and why?
24. Do you presents first the abstract and then the concrete in teaching pupils and why?
25. Is motivation important in teaching and learning of Social Studies? Explain your answer.

26. Must Social Studies School Based Assessment (SBA) essentially focused on how to solve problems or dealing with the affective skills development and what do you want your Social Studies pupils to achieve after teaching?
27. Should mentees provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused and why?
28. Are you a changed person undergoing a course in Social Studies? Explain.
29. Do you think the teaching of Social Studies has any impact on the behaviour and attitudes of students?
30. Can an educator significantly influence the life of a child in his/her Social Studies class? Cite practical examples in your answer.
31. Are you aware of the philosophy of Social Studies curriculum at the Colleges of Education and how this is portrayed in your teaching?
32. How do you find the teaching and learning of Social Studies while at college and the teaching of the subject at the JHS?
33. Do you see Social Studies curriculum as a mere course rather than supporting the teacher-trainee with the needed skill to effectively implement the Basic School Social Studies curriculum? Explain your answer.
34. In your estimation, is the purpose for which the subject was introduced in schools being realised? Give reasons for your response.

**APPENDIX F****Observation Checklist Based on Teacher-Trainees' Efficacy Scale**

For the observation checklist to be in line with effective Social Studies teaching it was based on the scope of a number of scholars. Some of the checklists were created; others were adopted and modified to suit the nature of the research. On this, teachers' sense of efficacy scale were modified from Megan Tschannen-Moran and on what Smith and Ragan (1999), Bednar and Levie (1993), Zimbardo and Leippe (1991), Wetzel (1994), Simonson and Maushak (2001), had drawn on findings from a number of studies to create a series of guidelines for designing effective instructional approaches for right attitudinal change, developing positive attitude, values and skills in learners. The ratings are shown below:

**A.** - *Absent*, **W.** - *Weak*, **Av.** - *Average*, **G.** - *Good*, **V. G.** - *Very Good*, **Ex.** - *Excellent*

No.	Structured Observation Checklist of Areas to be Observed on Social Studies Teaching						
		A	W	Av	G	VG	Ex
1	Teacher lesson presentation focuses on practical things in life.						
2	Lesson presentation focuses on desired behaviour by respected role model; Teacher uses modelling.						
3	Lesson presentation focuses on how to practice desired behaviour; why some things must not be repeated in life.						
4	Teacher uses most effective persuasive messages in a credible manner that get students to think about an issue or object in concrete, vivid images that have definite implications for behaviour.						
5	Teacher uses follow-up activities in lesson presentation.						
6	Teacher uses open-ended questions in lesson presentation.						
7	Teacher creates an aroused state in the learners through purposeful emotional involvement.						
8	Teacher delivers lesson through purposeful intellectual involvement.						
9	Teacher involves students in role-play.						
10	Teacher involves students in discussion.						
11	Teacher involves students in brainstorming.						
12	Teacher involves pupils in writing narratives.						
13	Teacher uses lecturing technique in lesson delivery.						
14	Instruction was presented with relevant TLM(s).						



		<b>A</b>	<b>W</b>	<b>Av</b>	<b>G</b>	<b>VG</b>	<b>Ex</b>
15	Instruction presented was technically stimulating with problem solving approach.						
16	Instruction presented was attitude development packed.						
17	Teacher provides post-instruction discussion or critique opportunities.						
18	Teacher reinforces appropriate or desired behaviour by pupils.						
19	Teacher presents first the general and then the particular.						
20	Teacher presents first the abstract and then the concrete.						
21	Teacher motivated students to engage in systematic thinking, rather than lapse into mindless processing.						
22	School Based Assessment (SBA) was essentially focused on attitudes and values; that is, affective skills development.						
23	Teacher could foster student creativity in answering questions.						
24	Teacher could provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused.						
25	Teacher could implement alternative techniques and strategies in teaching Social Studies.						
26	Teacher uses a variety of assessment strategies in teaching.						
27	Teacher can confidently teach all the integrated aspects (i.e. content & method) of the Social Studies curriculum.						
28	Teacher is aware of the philosophy of Social Studies curriculum at the Colleges of Education and this is portrayed in their teaching.						
29	Teacher-trainees have the needed skills to plan and implement the Social Studies curriculum.						
30	Teacher-trainees have the needed knowledge to plan and implement the Social Studies curriculum.						

**A.** - Absent, **W.** - Weak, **Av.** - Average, **G.**- Good, **V. G.** - Very Good, **Ex.** - Excellent