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What is HSIE?


Botswana is in the process of creating a sense of national loyalty and identification among a population of numerous tribes, ethnic groups or smaller political units. The authors argue that Social Studies has an important role to play in the process of nation-building. Social Studies was initiated in the curriculum in 1986 and only became compulsory in 1990. The current junior secondary syllabus was published in 1996 and due attention has been drawn to the infusion of critical issues such as population and family life education, HIV/AIDS education and the world of work. The authors argue that Social Studies content should be closely connected with the students’ view of the world and environment.


The majority of undergraduates perceived the major goal of Social Studies to be that of developing good citizenship. Ranked second and third were the goals of assisting students to have a social, political and economic awareness of Botswana, and for students to gain inquiry/problem-solving skills. All undergraduates agreed that for this to happen there need to be competent Social Studies teachers.


Social skills consist of three inter-related components: social perception, social cognition and social performance. Social literacy is seen as the acquisition of the skills of active and confident social participation, including the skills, knowledge and attitudes necessary for making reasoned judgements in a community. The Schools Council Humanities Project and the Schools Council Social Education Project (1974) in the UK established a clear connection between learning from the social sciences in the school curriculum and acquiring social skills to function effectively within a community or society. The 1988 Education Reform Act established the hierarchy of academic subjects in the school curriculum and citizenship was a cross-curriculum perspective only. This has been addressed in recent times and a new Citizenship and Personal, Social and Health Education framework was established. These frameworks promote virtues such as self-respect, self-discipline, respect for others, care for others, showing others they are valued, loyalty, trust, working cooperatively, resolving matters peacefully between each other and so on. Teachers are important models of virtues and there is a need for the social virtues in the act of teaching to be clearly described and understood. The authors discuss in further detail the virtues of justice, responsibility, trust and service and how they can be included in the school curriculum.

Adapting a model developed by Arthur and Davidson (2000, p 15), the grid below demonstrates the range of citizenship type behaviours and the values of the types of citizens that particular versions of citizenship education may produce.
### Normative/Communal

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Passive</th>
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<td>Tradition</td>
<td>Collectivism</td>
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<td>Loyalty</td>
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<td>Family</td>
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<td>Parochialism</td>
<td>Collaboration</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fraternity</td>
<td>Altruism</td>
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<td>Morality</td>
<td>Sense of community</td>
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<td>Individualism</td>
<td>Market forces</td>
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<td>Materialism</td>
<td>Enterprise</td>
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<tr>
<td>Permissiveness</td>
<td>Elitism</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hedonism</td>
<td>Meritocracy</td>
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<td>Apolitical</td>
<td>Utilitarian</td>
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### Pragmatic/Individualistic

To assist teachers in the development of children as social and moral beings there are four suggested foci of attention:
- the fostering of the child’s self-esteem
- the heightening of the child’s empathy
- the furthering of cooperation between children
- the promotion of rationality.

(Bottery 1990)
The authors advocate service learning and having children be involved in their community as a means of developing appropriate citizenship attributes and virtues.


An introduction to communitarianism and its significance for social policy. Arthur recognises the distinctive contribution that can be made by church schools but points to the obvious fact that most schools will need a secular rationale. Here citizenship education in the curriculum will play a major role. Draws the conclusions:
- The family should be the primary moral educator of children.
- Character education includes the systematic teaching of virtues in schools.
- The ethos of community has an educative function in school life.
- Schools should promote the rights and responsibilities inherent within citizenship.
- Community service is an important part of a child’s education in school.
- A major purpose of the school curriculum is to teach social and political life-skills.
- Schools should promote an active understanding of the ‘common good’.
- Many existing community-based education practices reflect the features of the communitarian perspective.
- Schools should adopt a more democratic structure of operation.

Analyses the inquiry approach to Social Studies and indicates how proponents have failed to take cognizance of the cultural norms of African societies. Schools in Africa, he argues, rather than promoting and perpetuating the values and norms of their societies, discourage the perpetuation of African cultures. In most African homes children learn by listening, observation, and imitation. The acquisition of knowledge through inquiry is not the norm. Community values, including respect for the accumulated knowledge of elders, are important in African countries and an approach to education that promotes assertiveness such as the inquiry method might fail.


Language and clothing and the ways we respond to others are all parts of the value elements that underlie, structure and define social interaction and community relationships. It is important not only to identify the values that we have in the curriculum; for values education to do its real work people have to accept them as binding upon themselves, as committing them to particular modes of conduct, and also to commend them to other people. Educators must all act as models and exemplars of those dispositions, beliefs, values and attitudes that we wish our students to come to take up for themselves.


New learning needs to include:
- knowledge sets and capability sets: selectivity or relevance to purpose is as important as the knowledge itself
- located learnings and transferable learnings
- disciplined learnings and reflective learnings.

And therefore it should be:
- general in its focus
- about creating a new kind of person
- interdisciplinary in its nature.

Good learners should be:
- assisted and self-directed
- flexible
- collaborative
- good teachers
- good communicators
- of open sensibility
- intelligent in more than one way
- broadly knowledgeable.

**Bentley, T, (1998), Learning Beyond the Classroom, London and New York: Routledge.**
There are two crucial tests of an effective education:
- how well students can apply what they learn in situations beyond the bounds of their formal educational experience
- how well prepared they are to continue learning and solving problems throughout the rest of their lives.

There are a number of challenges for education in this rapidly changing world:
- **What is the place of education in an information society?** Information and communications technologies are affecting every aspect of our lives and there is a need for us to sort through the information. Public education needs to reassess its role when there is general access to information systems such as the Internet. Furthermore note needs to be taken of the fact that the private sector spends more on education and training.
- **How can education act to develop a common core of values, attitudes and understandings in a period where societies are becoming so much more mixed and even intergenerational values differ considerably?**
- **How can children be motivated to concentrate, work purposefully and learn for themselves?**

Argues that the solutions to these problems lie in involving young people in a much wider range of contexts for learning, giving them a real responsibility for what they are doing while emphasising rigour and achievement. Sees schools as neighbourhood learning centres. Argues that assessment must become more broad ranging and more coherent and involve learners in actively assessing themselves.


Article addresses the notion of integrating multiculturalism into the Social Studies and the attendant question of whether teaching a number of disciplines dilutes quality.


Community-based learning can be seen as having an important role in transforming conventional approaches to education into more innovative practices such as self-directed, and holistic learning. There are four basic principles of community-based learning:
- it is learner-centred
- it is outcomes-based
- it is cooperative
- it has a real-life context.

Argues that there is a case for this to be implemented in Years 9 and 10 and that the broader education that this provides will contribute to a more civil society.


Framework for curriculum development with definition of learning areas and their essential elements.

Profiles the eight areas of Studies of Society with key outcomes. Work samples are provided for each level.


Statement that lists strands and the areas of ‘essential learning’ about Australia and key values. The main curriculum perspectives are listed (gender, Aboriginal, multicultural, global, futures, technology, post-school).


Proposes an academic approach to Religious and Values education particularly for religious schools. The RAVE (Religious and Values Education) approach has five themes as a curriculum base for K-12. The strands are:
- an appreciation of the Bible and Christian traditions
- ethics and values education (both theoretically based and issues-based)
- to introduce young people to central areas in the philosophy of religion.
- to help young people to become familiar with the main world religions
- to provide children with an appreciation of the value of stillness (meditation).


Listed issues of relevance to changes in the syllabus area. Included were:
- Factors relevant to the revision of the SOSE area such as world trends of globalisation, technological change, changing structures of society, environmental trends, and changes in human thinking, Australian social, political and economic changes, and trends and events in Asia and their implications.
- Developments in social and environmental thought and studies.

In the later category he notes areas such as social ecology and environmental studies; the critical, sociolinguistic, postmodern, poststructural revolution; and trends in curriculum and teaching such as constructivist thinking, the role of ethics and values, subjectivity, spirituality, symbolism, mythology and meaning, civics and citizenship education, global perspective and the inclusive curriculum. He also recognises the importance of acknowledging the impact of changing technologies and developing exemplary resources using these.


The New Basic Project in Queensland is aimed at preparing students for the future and is based on a framework consisting of an understanding of New Basics (what is
taught), **Productive Pedagogies** (how it is taught) and **Rich Tasks** (how kids show it).

**The New Basics**

These are four clusters of practices essential for survival in the future:

- **Life Pathways and Social Futures** (Who am I and where am I going?)
- **Multiliteracies and Communications Media** (How do I make sense of and communicate with the world?)
- **Active Citizenship** (What are my rights and responsibilities in communities, culture and economies?)
- **Environments and Technologies** (How do I describe, analyse and shape the world around me?)

**Productive Pedagogies**

These are classroom strategies that teachers can use to focus instruction and to improve student outcomes. There are twenty productive pedagogies grouped under four categories:

- **Recognition of Difference**: This involves student control, social support, engagement, explicit criteria and self-regulation.
- **Connectedness**: This involves knowledge integration, background knowledge, connectedness to the world and problem-based curriculum.
- **Intellectual Quality**: This involves higher-order thinking, deep knowledge, deep understanding, substantive conversation, knowledge as problematic and metalanguage.
- **Social Support**: This involves cultural knowledges, inclusivity, narrative, group identity and citizenship.

**Rich Tasks**

Students are assessed by rich tasks. The completion of these tasks is the culmination of learning achievements over a number of years of schooling. These tasks are intellectually challenging and have real-world value.

**Ferguson, S, (2001), ‘Border crossing: In search of a common curriculum’, EQ, June, pp 10-13.**

Examines similarities and differences between States in their curriculum and compares to national profiling exercise.


Points out that constructivism has come to dominate debate about learning in teacher education. The main tenets are:

- Learning is an active process
- Knowledge is constructed, rather than innate, or passively absorbed
- Knowledge is invented not discovered
- All knowledge is personal and idiosyncratic
- All knowledge is socially constructed
- Learning is essentially a process of making sense of the world
- Effective learning requires meaningful, open-ended, challenging problems for the learner to solve (p 24).
However the author argues that it has little to add to established theories of learning and appears to be an amalgamation of a number of them. He argues that although many of the ideas of constructivism have merit students also need instruction, demonstration and practice.


A literature review of research articles on curriculum integration in the US in the 1990s. He defines curriculum integration as ‘a collective term for those forms of curriculum in which student learning activities are built, less with concern for delineating disciplinary boundaries around kinds of learning, and more with the notion of helping students recognise or create their own learning’ (p 248). The author points out that there are two factions in the curriculum integration movement: the correlated/fused, where the traditional disciplines become the building blocks and are interconnected in some way; and the core, where the starting point is a consideration of individual and societal needs where disciplinary knowledge is important only as it makes the learner’s life experiences more meaningful. The author points out that these different factions arise because they have different assumptions about the primary source of the curriculum – the subject matter or the student. Argues that there have been two earlier periods of great interest in curriculum integration, the Progressive Era of the 1920s and 1930s and the Open Education period of the 1960s and early 1970s. The 1990s, however, is a period of renewed interest in this area. Argues that perhaps it is more popular as a concept rather than a practice.


The purpose of doing SOSE (Studies of Society and Environment) is fourfold:
- relate the experiences of everyday life to other important issues and experiences by placing them in a broader context
- understand these experiences in more critically sophisticated ways
- respond to experiences in more discriminating ways
- express and enact their own views of the world and its future.

Approaches to SOSE:
- SOSE as information about the world
- Social and political inculcation
- SOSE as the development of disciplined knowledge and problem-solving
- SOSE as personal and social development
- SOSE for effective participation in society
- SOSE for critical social understanding and action.

With reference to the work of Habermas (1971) both chapters point to three forms of knowledge:

- substantive or propositional knowledge (knowing something is the case): technical knowledge
- procedural knowledge (knowing how to do something): practical knowledge
- contextual knowledge (knowing when, where and why to use given concepts): critical knowledge.

Knowledge that we teach is based on academic disciplines and can be classified under the concepts peculiar to these disciplines but these disciplines only provide templates for the organisation of relationships between different concepts. An example by Gilbert and Vick is that the economic concepts such as consumption and production can be further categorised by use of political concepts such as power and inequality. Using such contextual concepts (ie providing a socially critical perspective) is very important in SOSE teaching but is often not done. A socially critical perspective invariably involves values.


Schools cannot avoid teaching values. Schools inevitably teach values and both pupils and parents believe that this is appropriate and indeed have a responsibility to promote values. Lemin, Potts and Welford’s (1994) six-point strategy for considering values is expounded:

1. Identifying, clarifying and researching others’ values
2. Comparing, contrasting and exploring the nature of values
3. Exploring and understanding feelings and others’ perspectives
4. Exploring intrapersonal and interpersonal conflicting values
5. Considering alternatives and implications
6. Making a plan of action.

Teachers must strive to ensure an open consideration of a wide range of views and encourage student and colleague critique of the manner in which material has been presented.


An inquiry approach involves a sequential and purposeful investigation to develop understandings about a meaningful topic as opposed to a thematic inquiry, which is much less structured. An inquiry process generally means that the sequence below is followed:

- framing and focusing questions
- locating, organising and analysing evidence
- evaluating, synthesising and reporting conclusions
- possible taking action of some sort
- reconsidering consequences and outcomes of each of the above phases.
Inquiry learning is fundamental to the SOSE area of the curriculum because it emphasises processes as well as product and assists students to an understanding of concepts and generalisations as opposed to facts. There are a number of different sequences of activities that represent an inquiry approach and Gordon identifies the Integrating Socially, TELSTAR and Action Research models as exemplifying valuable inquiry approaches. Strategies that assist inquiry include assisting students to ask questions, developing discussion strategies and holding discussions.


Traces the emergence of environmental education in Australia, contemporary policies, educational issues and challenges for the future. Argues that we should develop a poststructuralist perspective which ‘recentres’ the environment from the periphery and allows it to be treated as an equal partner with other human perspectives.


The English system has the students studying three subjects for their A levels (usually cognate subjects). The National curriculum applies in England and in Wales but not in Scotland or Northern Ireland.

Scotland has had its own distinctive educational system since 1956. The Welsh Assembly was established in 1997 and has had a similar education system to the English with the same examination system. The UK has one of the lowest standards of education of the European countries.


Society is in flux and our educational institutions tend to teach about the spatial and the temporal but not very much about the future. Hicks argues that when examining the values of SOSE, examining probable and preferable futures could be linked to democratic process, social justice and ecological sustainability. Clear and powerful visions of our preferred futures could be summarised under five goals: personal welfare, freedom from violence, justice for all, environmental care and participation in decisions. Quotes David Orr (1992), ‘Education in the modern world was designed to further the conquest of nature and the industrialisation of the planet…Postmodern education must have a different agenda, one designed to heal, connect, liberate, empower, create and celebrate’ (p 22).


Describes the development of Values Outcomes Statements for Western Australian school curriculum. It was argued that the national profiling movement paid very scant attention to values education. Plural societies are in a state of deep values confusion and the technical values central to economic rationalism are proving quite inadequate to keep the peace and maintain social structures. The VOS values emerged from discussion between various groups in the community and outcomes statements were
developed emphasising capacity, not personal commitment. The types of values that emerged were protective values concerning the rights of individuals and purposive values which are shared goals and hopes.


A values framework has been developed by groups of Christians concerned that schooling has become dominated by the economic rationalists. The framework divides the values into ultimate values, democratic values and educational values.


Argues that the media is advocating a universality of global consumer harmony and denying the problems associated with individual competitiveness. There is a need for social educators to explore the silences, marginalisations, contradictions and illogicalities of the media.


The main challenge facing social science educators is the need to implement experiential learning. Learning should be active, not passive.


Argues that society encourages a culture of individualism, disconnection and domination at the expense of community, connectedness and equality.


A contemporary American collection of essays that take as their starting point the injunction of George Counts in 1932 that schools should develop a democratic socialist society. Social educators today must respond to antidemocratic impulses of greed, individualism and intolerance. Three debates are taken up specifically — the social purposes of education, the nature of the social studies curriculum and the methodological issues associated with developing democratic practices in schools and the larger social order. The writers all call for social studies to become central to the elementary and secondary school curriculum.

In the 1980s and 1990s policy directions include:
• the emphasis on excellence, higher national and world-class standards
• the continued obsession with accountability, testing and measuring of student progress
• the overemphasis on the economic purposes of public education
• the involvement of corporate America in the business of schooling
• the trend towards devolution, deregulation and choice in education.

Also since the 1980s there have arisen culture-wars, multiculturalism, the critique of Eurocentric education and culture, feminist epistemology, and critical pedagogy.


‘The school curriculum is one of the few areas of policy that has not been subject to deregulation in recent times’ (p 41). The opposite is true. Argues that curriculum will need to encompass four broad areas:
• Social and cultural studies (history/geography/civics)
• Literacy, numeracy and scientific studies
• Vocational studies
• Community learning studies (service learning and community oriented projects).

The school should not be the only sites of learning for students but there should be easy movement in and out of school and the learning at the different sites should be acknowledged. ‘Schools of the future must be both in the community and of the community’ (p 42). Sees the Internet as a metaphor for pedagogy by facilitating access to information retrieval but leaving individuals to decide what is important.


Points out that some of the goals of the National Goals for Schooling in the Twenty-First Century are established by SOSE, in particular 1.3, 1.4, and 1.7. However, he also points out that these national goals leave unanswered questions such as the role of the specific disciplines in SOSE, the role of ethics and other moral issues in learning and the question of whether active citizenship should be an overarching framework for SOSE or whether it should be a strand of study. History seems to be universally seen as a core discipline in SOSE as it is also in the UK and in USA. The opposing view is that there should be a process of intellectual inquiry followed which cuts across the traditional cultural disciplines. Kennedy argues that, despite appearances of a trend to reassertion of the disciplines (albeit in vastly different forms to those of the 1950s), what is needed is incorporation of what the disciplines have to offer in a broad conceptualisation that meets both personal and societal needs.

Points to three differing views of the future for SOSE. The first is that of the centrality of examining social values and starting with widely held values evident in contemporary society. The second is where citizenship themes are examined on the basis of its potential to confront significant problems facing global and local
communities. The third is a critical/poststructuralist approach where all knowledge is seen as personally constructed and subject to question.

He poses questions for teachers when teaching SOSE curriculum:
- How are the disciplines incorporated?
- What is the main emphasis - concepts or facts?
- What form of organisation is recommended?
- Is there a recommended pedagogy?
- Is there more than knowledge and skills ie social action, broader social purposes?


Talks of a vision for the future. Argues that we need to provide a curriculum for young people ‘that will enable them to grapple with and solve the enduring issues of their time’ (p 23). They need to feel that they have some influence and that they want to be engaged in their society. The curriculum should nurture critical capacities and skills in its students and produce citizens who ‘understand the country, the region and the world in which they live, and who accept their role to improve, to add value and to move the nation forward’ (p 25). A curriculum should focus on ‘issues that are likely to be the ones that confront young people as citizens: equality, equity, social justice, reconciliation, globalisation, environment degradation, internationalisation, identity, social cohesion, inclusion, difference, human rights and the development of an economy that can provide a fair distribution of resources within society’ (p 25).


Argues that although there are many advocates of curriculum integration in the US there is little consensus as to what exactly is meant by the term. The number of different ways suggested to implement this leads to confusion. Advocates for integrated curriculum argue that it can achieve the following:
- Encourage genuine, meaningful and purposeful learning
- Provide significant activities because they are most directly related to students’ interests and needs
- Is closer to the knowledge of the real world which is integrated
- Help individuals to know how to learn and how to think
- Help individuals to see subject matter as a means and not a goal
- Assist students and teachers to work cooperatively to ensure successful learning
- Accommodate the fact that knowledge is growing exponentially and is no longer static and conquerable
- Allow access to technology which defies lock-step, sequential learning.

There appears to be a continuum of thinking about the curriculum. ‘Movement up or down the continuum is dependent upon what role the disciplines (subject matter) play in the organisation of the curriculum, what role “processes” play in thinking in the curriculum and what role the teachers and learners play in developing and carrying out the curriculum’ (pp 203-204).

Points out that the integrated curriculum movement is more rhetoric than activity because of the standardisation of assessment which tends to measure factual
information and because of the lack of time to adequately plan. There is also a problem with the lack of knowledge base of the teachers.


Article discusses teachers’ use of classroom discussion. Argues that competence in the skills of discussion is required from social studies teachers and these discussion skills include listening, making claims clearly, supporting claims with facts, helping a group move through obstacles, presenting a critique of idea and not individuals, and developing together a shared understanding of the issue. Found that teachers did not use discussion when the students neither valued it or if they thought the analytical thinking it required was useful to their learning. Limiting factors were gender and the use of intimidation in discussions.


One of the most cherished and most elusive aims of social studies education has been to teach students to think. This article focuses on the jurisprudential or public issues approach which was an outgrowth of the Harvard Social Studies Project (Oliver and Shaver, 1966). Discusses three noteworthy controlled studies of higher-order thinking:

- Oliver and Shaver (1966) evaluated their project but found that people develop persuasive arguments because of temperamental factors such as verbal fluency and interpersonal competence.
- Newmann (1991a) found social studies departments that promoted higher order thinking but did not find any substantial relationship between the presence of classroom thoughtfulness and the persuasiveness of student writing on a constitutional issue.
- Johnston et al (1994) assessed students who had experience in public issues discussions on a dialogue session. No significant difference was found between the experienced group and a control group.

Leming argues that we should pursue a more limited and realistic view of teaching thinking. Onosko (1991) pointed to the organisational barriers to teaching of higher order thinking, but Leming argues that adolescent students are developmentally incapable of the cognitive tasks involved. He argues that:

1. Public policy should continue to be featured in school programs but teachers should scale back expectations of their thought patterns
2. Students should be given a rich store of information which will later lead to thoughtfulness
3. Classroom environments and experiences can facilitate the development of reflective judgement.


1990 South Australian framework for Australian Studies. This framework covered the Australian environment, Australian culture, Australian social systems and social interaction. A program in Australian Studies would have focus questions and issues studies. Each issue study has a framework involving:
• understanding the issue
• investigating the issue
• analysing the issue
• making decisions on the issue
• applying the knowledge on the issue
• reviewing and reflecting on the issue.

Schools chose their own issues. The civics agenda will be incorporated into Australian Studies. Provides suitable teaching and learning strategies, skills and learning modes for issues-based learning.


For a balanced and complete values education attention must be paid to three avenues of investigation:
• Different ethical positions
  This provides a philosophical framework for an approach to ethics and values that is multi-dimensional and can cater for the range of differences (dispositional, cultural, gender, class) to be found in the classrooms of the average society.
• Professional ethics for teachers
  There is a necessity for a code of conduct for the teaching profession to ensure authenticity of values education in schools.
• Ethics in the curriculum
  Explicit teaching of certain values.


As a result of the publication of the NSW Department of Education document, *The Values We Teach* (1991), the authors investigated whether values could be taught and how they could be taught. It found that all females were starting from a much higher base-line level on values and that the program did not improve the skills of males. The most successful changes in values were in those values that were related to students’ immediate interests and concerns.


Describes some of the tensions associated with curriculum development in SOSE, tensions which are not necessarily associated with the Learning Area but which affect curriculum generally. This include tensions such as the conflict between bureaucratic planning and decentralised planning, between centralised accountability and professional responsibility, and teacher-centred learning as opposed to student-centred learning. Governments have increasingly become involved in curriculum and there has been a strong link developed between education and economic production and employment with a resulting emphasis on vocationally oriented education. Argues for the need for liberal-progressive and socially-critical emphases as well as vocationally
related skills and knowledge and activities to encourage active informed citizenship in the SOSE area.


Studies of Society and Environment is one of the learning areas drawn together after national agreement in the 1980s and 1990s and includes key generic aspects of the field exemplified in the Statements and Profiles for Australian Schools in 1993 (Curriculum Corporation). The national mapping project for this area had initially developed conceptual strands of environments, heritages, change, cultures and systems and did not include business/commerce. A separate environment statement included ecosystems, resources, growth, heritage, aesthetics, environmental ethics, decision-making, and participation. The process strands in this environment statement included sensory skills, problem-solving skills, skills for investigating the environment, social/communication skills and skills for courses of action. The idea of a separate environmental statement was later abandoned and the final strands became time, continuity and change; place and space; culture; resources; natural and social systems and the process strand of investigation, communication and participation.

In the 1990s an extra key competency was developed through the Finn and the Mayer Committees — cultural understanding. Interest in this waned and it never came to be incorporated in the learning areas. It involved the Australian historical, geographic and political context; understanding of major global issues; and an understanding of the world of work.

Criticisms of the national learning area include:

• Lack of environmental issues, values and actions
• Some groups were not well included, eg students with disabilities
• The cultures strand emphasised Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander groups whereas a more generic sequence of outcomes might be preferable.
• Too strong an emphasis on Australia
• The process strand failed to capture values and action outcomes pertaining to active citizenship, environmental ethics and career education.

All states have modified the national profiles in some way; some such as NSW and Victoria have modified them greatly. Marsh has developed an overview of the discipline concepts embodied in the SOSE conceptual strands.


This is a history of Australian education systems, programs and policies since 1960. It discusses the extension of citizenship through education and how this is central to individual and national identity.


Research had indicated that primary students were positive toward Social Studies but as they grew older they found it less relevant and their attitude towards it declined.
The authors surveyed over 3000 students from grades 4-7 and found that the younger the student the more positive was their attitude toward social studies. The decline in liking for Social Studies was greater than in any other core subject. In terms of subject matter students felt they learnt most about Australia and their home state, how to use maps, how people lived in the past and facts about the world. They learnt least about note-taking skills, how to use different kinds of books, how to solve problems, and things to help us get on with people. In terms of instructional practices students most liked colouring-in, projects, graphs and drawing. They mostly disliked writing activities and copying from the board.


Inquiry teaching approaches areas associated with a socially critical orientation to curriculum. They usually address a number of core learning outcomes — not just one, there is usually an explicit framework to be followed, a socio-cultural approach is used, students have agency and learning from each other is part of the experience. Naylor introduces the Social Investigation Model, the TELSTAR model, the Action Research Model and some aspects of Historical and Geographical inquiry to illustrate the different ways that inquiry approaches can be implemented. Some essential characteristics of the inquiry model include:

- The recursive nature of inquiry
- Students’ agency in the inquiry process: Active construction of meaning
  - Negotiation
  - Framing of questions
  - Learning in social context
  - Taking action.


Since Goals 2000 (1992) in the US there has been a ‘cottage industry’ in developing sets of standards in the social studies area. The national Center for History in Schools was federally funded to develop US and world history standards but encountered a storm of conservative attacks. The National Council for the Social Studies in 1994 released their own standards but without subsidy. The National Geography Standards (1994) was also federally funded but was less controversial because the area was bereft of direction. The National Council on Economic Education standards for economics education were developed in 1997 while the National civics standards (194) were based on the Civitas model developed by the Center for Civic Education. The sheer number (over 1000 pages) of standards will be a major cause of problems implementing them. These standards emphasise content and local citizen involvement is nonexistent. Teachers tend to get overwhelmed by these standards and have little time for additional concerns such as selecting objectives, using a variety of teaching strategies and implementing evaluation plans.

This thesis examines geography, history and social science syllabuses in New South Wales, Australia, in the period 1967 to 1989. Its particular focus is the changing themes and emphases that emerged in these syllabuses during this period and the reasons for these changes. The thesis explores the political, social, cultural and economic contexts of curriculum change; the bureaucratic and administrative processes involved in curriculum modification; the role of individuals—their commitment, skills and philosophies; and the purpose of the language of the curriculum.

A major theme underpinning the analyses is the tension between the traditional disciplines and the newer social science disciplines at the school subject level in a period of considerable turmoil in education generally. The thesis postulates that the fundamental conceptions of the social science movement (introduced to most Australians for the first time at the Burwood Conference in 1967) had a profound impact on the traditional disciplines. Geography and history retained their high status when a Key Learning Area called Human Society and Its Environment was conceived in 1989, but, due to the social science influences, their shape and form changed considerably over the twenty-two year period.

The theoretical framework for the thesis treats curriculum as a social construction and as something that requires holistic analysis. Of particular importance to curriculum change is the underpinning social philosophy evidenced in the syllabuses of the period under study. This can best be understood against the backdrop of a careful analysis of the society in which they are being developed.


Points out that SOSE is built upon a number of different disciplines and perspectives and as these change to meet current and future needs of our society and environment, the SOSE curriculum must change also. Although the social sciences was originally thought of as the history, geography and economics area of the curriculum, SOSE encompasses something much bigger and attempts to deal with significant longstanding matters such as ethics and social justice. Curriculum development is highly political because of the different groups involved with their diverse values and visions for the subject. Cornbleth (1995) describes the politics associated with inclusion of multicultural perspectives in New York.

‘Australians do have a sense of “fairness” and this should be the basis for the purposeful use of the skills and knowledge selected. A curriculum should be multi-voiced. It should allow us all to feel some ownership of it, it should offer perspectives from a variety of points of view, and it should enable students to consider the fairness of their society. It should be fair for all teachers and give scope for a variety of teaching and learning styles. It should give a “fair go” to all SOSE disciplines’ (p 25). Discusses recent research into history teaching, geography teaching, environmental education, technology, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander perspectives, citizenship education and the notion of an expanding horizons approach to SOSE.

A general guide to the Social Studies Curriculum which traces its origins in the US and the issues associated with the nature of this area of study. The first part of the book addresses the question of the rationale for social studies, the second social issues and the third practical matters that affect classroom practice.


Although the NCSS argues for high levels of curriculum integration, the authors claim that a curriculum approach based on separate disciplines is preferable. Argues that there are eight myths about curriculum integration and tries to dispel these myths. Provides suggestions for integrating curriculum but argues that it requires teachers who are expert in understanding their subjects to make the meaningful connections, is difficult when accounting for progress, and is riskier when providing commercially developed materials.


Points out that because of modern technology it is no longer what you remember but what you can do — from memorisation to skills. Most of the Australian curriculum is content-based and that content is of diminishing importance. There is constant pressure to keep particular content in the curriculum; the content of the curriculum has changed over the centuries. ‘We must appreciate that all content is now up for renegotiation and that schools that are modeled on regimental lines, where teachers transfer knowledge to students’ heads, and examinations encourage conformity, do not serve us well’. Future curriculum will need to address skills and enable students to access content that might be useful. Argues that to resource future students we need to provide them with these skills:

- learning to learn
- learning quickly
- self-management
- responsibility for own learning
- portfolio careers
- employment and training conditions
- communication skills
- digital dexterity
- flexibility and ingenuity
- critical and creative thinking
- collaborative and community.

Political and educational discourse in Britain has turned to values and alongside value statements arguing for social justice, liberty, self-esteem and so on are the values of accountability, zero tolerance and performance indicators. Schools have to balance the personal and social education of the individual with their academic achievements. Values are prescribed in the national curriculum in the Spiritual, Moral and Cultural education strand. The 1988 Education Reform Act required schools to provide for the spiritual, moral and cultural development of pupils. The cross-curricular themes made clear reference to values particularly in the citizenship education strand. There is, however, little precise information about how schools approach values education. Key issues for schools in values education include:

- How to balance the academic and values education
- The relationship between religious education and other aspects of values education
- How to take account of cultural diversity or mono-culturalism in the school
- Whose values? What values?
- How does values education relate to process values of inquiry, critical reflection and so on
- How can the school include the values of communities and parents?

The study surveyed a representative group of 600 primary schools and 400 secondary schools and conducted telephone interviews with 50 schools who appeared to have promising developments in values education. It was found that the head teacher had a crucial role in leading development in values education. Teachers often felt that discussing values was revealing too much to students and could lead to charges of indoctrination. They also felt that there were sometimes conflicts of loyalty to staff and school and also that there were often conflicts between school and home values. Pointed to the need for further research into the role of the teacher in mediating values education.


Argues that more attention should be paid to the individual self. There is a need to help young people think, reason, and question and make decisions about the meaning and purpose of their lives.


This article explored US teachers’ beliefs about teaching social studies using Martorella’s framework of five different conceptualisations of social studies as citizenship education. These conceptualisations included:

- Transmission of cultural heritage
- Social science
- Reflective inquiry
- Informed social criticism
- Personal development.
Five hundred members of the National Council for the Social Studies were surveyed with the result being that there was more support for the reflective inquiry, informed social criticism and personal development approaches than for transmission of cultural heritage and social science approaches. The author questions whether these results are mirrored in the teachers’ classrooms and whether NCSS members are perhaps more radical than other social studies teachers.


Advocates a school where democratic education, education for social justice and community service learning are practiced.
Democratic Education: Students are given opportunities for choice commensurate with their ages and abilities. Students learn the skills and knowledge they need to play an important role in their community.
Education for Social Justice: At the core of this is the belief in the equal worth of every person and the willingness to act in upholding that belief. Critique is a vital part of social justice education but students should also be able to act in their schools and advocate for change.
Community Service Learning: This is a potentially effective strategy for students working for social justice. These projects should serve individual needs plus involve analysis of why the problem exists and how to change the root causes of the problem. Points out that social studies has been understood as a blend of the social science disciplines. However teaching for social action lets go of content coverage and places primary emphasis on questioning prevailing norms and assumptions and engaging with social issues in the community – issues that seem unrelated to discipline-centred teachers and those who advocate mass-standardised testing.


A comprehensive guide to theory, practice and potential in service learning. Advocates the need for a democracy to emphasise individualism and have a complementary concern for the common good and public welfare. Argues that service-learning can bring together all aspects of the social studies curriculum. One section in the book has teachers at various levels demonstrate how ideas and theories of service–learning are being transformed into reality.


Compares Australia’s eight learning areas with those overseas. Of main interest is the comparison of the HSIE area with those in other countries as depicted below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Australia</th>
<th>UK</th>
<th>Singapore</th>
<th>Ontario</th>
<th>California</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SOSE</td>
<td>History Geography Citizenship Education</td>
<td>Social Studies (primary) History, Geography, Civics and Moral education Social Studies/Sciences</td>
<td>Social Studies/Sciences History Geography Business Studies (9-10)</td>
<td>History–Social Science.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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School reform in the 1990s in Canada has seen an increasingly managerial focus on curriculum standardisation, testing, accountability and control. There has been a centralising reduction in the number and authority of local school boards, along with some attention to giving parents a greater say in which schools their children attend and in select aspects of local school governance. There has also been a reorientation of many of the egalitarian initiatives in education that had begun in the 1970s and 1980s.
Civics and Citizenship Education


Social literacy is developed in context. Authors propose ‘social literacy’ as a model of citizenship that empowers in a critical manner. New Labour has renewed emphasis on the social dimension of school curriculum and in 2002 citizenship education will become a statutory part of the curriculum while it will be incorporated into primary school through existing subjects. The authors argue that conceptions of citizenship can be seen as part of a quadrant with normative and individualistic being two opposing aspects on one continuum and passive and active being the two opposing aspects on the other continuum.


The SOSE construct allows teachers too much freedom to teach the subject matter that they know best and civics is probably not one of these. There are also problems when civics is defined. There is really no agreement about what it should entail. The author argues that SOSE emphasises process at the expense of content and that there should be a better balance. Civics education must emphasise values and must be taught in an engaging manner. Finally the author argues that there needs to be some education about the Australian constitution.


Points out that the last decade has been marked by growth of interest in nationalism. Review of a number of current books. Ethnicity occupies an intermediary position between kinship and nationality. Also mentions the idea of a civilisational nation referring to nations with a high degree of historical continuity such as Japan. The key factors in the development of modern nations are the development of a capitalist economy on a global scale and national states developing within an international context.


‘Communitarianism is a philosophical stance originating from academia and was developed from a critique of liberal individualism…it is a rather loose grouping which holds that the community, rather than the individual or State, should be at the centre of our analysis and our value system’ (p 354). Communitarians argue that it is our shared nationality, culture, language, history and religion that establish our identity. Separate individuals are not the basic moral unit of society but are attached to other individuals in community on which they are dependent. They accuse liberals of having an overly individualistic conception of the person that does not sufficiently take into account the importance of community for personal identity and moral thinking. Liberals counter that like the communitarians they also seek to build around
principles of cooperation and mutuality. There are a number of different views with some seeing ‘communitarianism as a corrective to the excesses of liberalism, whilst others adopt the view that it is a source of reform for liberalism, and yet others still view it as an altogether distinctive approach to political theory’ (p 366). ‘A weakness in communitarian theory is that it appears to justify the silencing of individuals in favour of community and shared values’ (p 366).


Future citizens need to be capable in many of the new information and communication technologies and as the old nation-states decline in relevance there is a need for skills in participation in local communities, workplaces and in cultural groups. With civic pluralism and many places where you belong (including national identity) the key to civic harmony is respecting and valuing diversity. There is a need for schools to be re-energised as centres of communities and be focal points for social action. There is a need to move towards more general and more comprehensive education around technology, commerce and the humanities.


Global forces have led to questions of:
• How can we revalue citizenship and civic life within our society?
• How can we define civic life, within contemporary Australian society?
• By what means can we encourage a greater degree of knowledge about ways of participating in civic life?

Argues that students need to value democracy, be active participants, understand how the Australian system works (with a view to the past and the future) and take account of the role of the media in education for civic knowledge, skills and values.


This article is a review of a number of articles on citizenship in this journal. All articles try to expand traditional notions of citizenship. Feminist authors argue that the curriculum should allow inclusion of the possibilities and values of women and other underrepresented groups. However American views of citizenship, emphasising diversity and difference, tend to silence cultural differences where other ideas such as shared responsibility are valued. The author points out that social studies researchers need to pay more attention to the political scientists of the past who have provided the foundations for their study. There is a complexity about understanding citizenship.


CERES is the Centre for Education and Research in Environmental Strategies. Geography has a strong role in citizenship education. CERES provides a model for environmental strategies in energy studies, cultural studies and environmental studies. ‘As global politics places society under domination of a free market elite, a new civil
society is beginning to emerge with a focus not primarily on the market nor the state but on networks of families, communities and voluntary associations’ (p 10).


Points out that the news media plays a vital part in the political socialisation of young people and it requires some investigation in any study of civics.


There is no straightforward way of resolving these value positions. This is not to be found in methods of discussion or education for political citizenship which are both derived from the culture of liberalism. Liberalism cannot be neutral between those cultures that value individual autonomy and those that do not. Attempts at reconciling liberalism and communitarianism are bound to fail because of this.


Evaluates the impact on identity of globalisation. Along with the demise of statism and the transformation of capitalism has come a powerful reaction from those seeking control over their lives and environment. These reactions are often culture-specific and they exert pressures on the nation state, which is caught between the two forces. The growth of an information society emphasises the role of education but there is also a growing movement against State interference in the private lives of people. This has manifested a move to home schooling and a growth in fundamentalism — with obvious implications for schooling.


Examines some of the historical background to the constitution and the confusion about who is defined as an Australian citizen. Argues that citizenship based on a multiplicity of ethnicities is largely irrelevant to mainstream Australia. Supporting and promoting cultural attributes and distinctiveness to enhance national diversity is fine as a cultural policy but it is not an appropriate basis for defining citizenship.


Argues that in the short period that Discovering Democracy has been implemented there have been considerable successes. Links have been made to syllabuses, teachers have updated skills, teaching and learning approaches have been broadened, interactions between schools and communities have been strengthened, best practice examples have been documented and schools have improved student representation and participation.

There are problems implementing the Discovering Democracy materials because there is a discontinuity between the organisational pattern in this project and the Western Australian outcomes-based framework.


Some relevant key recommendations:
- Citizenship should be a statutory entitlement in the curriculum and all schools should be required to show that they are fulfilling this obligation.
- There should be specific learning outcomes for each key stage and these should be able to be assessed.
- Schools should consider combining elements of citizenship education with other subjects such as History.
- School ethos, organisation, structures and daily practices including whole-school activities and assemblies are also related to citizenship education and prove implicit and explicit messages to students.
- Public bodies at local and national level also need to consider their role in citizenship education
- Four essential elements of citizenship outcomes — concepts; values and dispositions; skills and aptitudes; and knowledge and understandings.


This is a website and a collection of teaching resources aimed at teaching aspects of Australian democracy. Resources have been produced for students, teachers, teacher educators and community groups and they have been produced over a period of years. The material has been guided by the recommendations of the Civics Expert Group.


Within one in three Americans coming from a coloured background and over eight million illegal immigrants entering the US in the period 1981-1990 the need to address race has become urgent. An important goal of multicultural education is to improve race relations and to equip students with the knowledge, skills and attitudes that are needed to participate in cross-cultural interactions. Dilg is a practicing teacher who shares her experiences in the classroom.

Points out that there need to be countervailing views on civics and citizenship education, views that are not necessarily politically correct. Argues that there needs to be more attention paid to futures, the need to stress creative ideas, the importance of process in citizenship education, the place of issues, the importance of values, Australian identity, cross-cultural concerns, and the importance of the purpose of citizenship being to create a better and more caring society. Also critiques the Discovering Democracy materials.


An extensive review of the interrelationships between aspects of education and political outcomes such as participation, choice and political identity. One of the clearest links in political science literature is that people who have more education take a more active role in politics and have more clearly defined political identities. The factors that contribute to this finding are more difficult to discern. Some findings of interest were that mastery of relevant skills useful to political involvement such as organising meetings are correlated with formal education although direct associations with social and civic clubs and so on can compensate for this. It was also found that the most consistent positive indicator of anti-authoritarianism was the extent to which teachers encourage the expression of opinion by students in the classroom. The organisation of power in the classroom has a strong effect on students’ ability to participate in society.


Need for citizens of the EU to live positively with difference and diversity. The concept of citizenship is shifting to a broader notion in which legal and social rights and entitlements are essential for negotiated and culturally-based understandings of citizenship. Current issues:

- Many adult citizens lack relevant information, skills and confidence as well as access to opportunities for participation and engagement in the first place.
- Non-formal teaching and learning contexts can often more readily incorporate affective and pragmatic with cognitive learning.
- The rising significance of communicative and intercultural skills together with the capacity to respond positively to rapidly changing environments extends the scope and relevance of learning for active citizenship.


Examines civic education in four new nations of Central Asia after independence in 1991. New approaches to national history, culture and national identity are formulated. All countries perceive the need to foster their own national identity but this is hampered by lack of resources and the need to be cognisant of the multi-ethnic structure of the population.

Argues that the sheer size of the material makes it a de facto curriculum rather than a resource to support existing curriculums in each State and Territory. Argues that teacher professional development is much more important than the kit of resources. Also argues it is inappropriate for students with English as a second language and Indigenous students.

Foster, V, (1996), ‘Whereas the people...and civics education: Another case of “Add women and stir”?’, *Curriculum Perspectives*, 16(1), pp 52-56.

Argues that women’s role in the private realm militates against them participating in civic public realm. This aspect appears to have been ignored in ‘Whereas the People.’ It does not include skills and activities associated with the private sphere as an integral part of curriculum and this extends to citizenship. It also relies on a notion of a free autonomous citizen/individual who is a male. The role of women as primary caregivers is the major factor limiting their participation as citizen.


Points out that relatively high rates of participation seem to be a necessary condition of democratic stability and that there is a correlation between educational attainment and political engagement. There appears to be evidence to make a case for the introduction of political studies or citizenship studies that would make a difference to levels of political expertise and democratic commitment. Evidence from Niemi and Junn (1996, 1998) strongly suggest that formal civics teaching in school does have an effect on certain kinds of knowledge - notably knowledge about ‘structures and functions’. There is a strong link between democratic, discussion and deliberation-based classroom and anti-authoritarian or pro-democratic attitudes and value commitments (Hahn, 1999; Meloen and Farnen, 1996). However there is also strong evidence that political identity and engagement is strongly conditioned by kinship and peer networks and by the mass media (Buckingham, 1999; Emler and Frazer, 1999).

There is evidence that aspects of formal education assist political identity, expertise and participation. ‘Formal politics or civics education does make some difference; relevant propositional knowledge and skill are also gained (or not) elsewhere in the curriculum; classroom practice impacts on values and on levels of political participation; the organisation of school governance also seems relevant.’


Gilbert argues that there are a number of approaches to citizenship education and citizenship such as:
- a status implying formal rights and duties — the entitlements and obligations entailed in being a citizen of a state
- an identity and a set of moral and social virtues based in the democratic ideal
- a public practice conducted through legal and political processes
- participation in decision-making in all aspects of life.
These themes are pursued in the article Gilbert, R, (1996), ‘Where are the people? Education, citizenship and the Civics Expert Group report,’ *Curriculum Perspectives*, 16 (1), pp 56-61.

Gilbert points out the myriad elements that could be included in a program of education for citizenship, providing a core for studying society and environment, and argues that ‘there is a need for a broad combination of critical understandings of systems, rights and values, combined with the ability to engage with others in producing just, democratic and sustainable futures’ (p 124).


Argues that the survey conducted by the Civics Expert Group focused on people’s knowledge of formal processes but the people were more interested in voluntary organisations and were cynical about politics and politicians. Gilbert argues that there are four conceptions of citizenship:
- Citizenship as legal status implying formal rights and duties
- Citizenship as democratic identity implying a set of moral and social virtues
- Citizenship as public practice conducted through legal and political processes
- Citizenship as democratic participation where there is power-sharing and involvement in decision making in all aspects of life.

Argues that the last conception has the greatest potential for success because it incorporates the former three but engages imagination and involvement. Argues that the ‘Whereas the people…’ report is vague about their conception of citizenship and this will allow readers to draw what they want from it. It offers no clear direction.


Argues that ‘the alienation that exists among those many citizens who are the losers in the market-sponsored competitions that so dominate Australian society represents a ‘legitimation crisis’ for the state’ (pp 62-63). There is a problem in maintaining the social fabric while chasing the need for capital in a globalising economy. There are competing demands on schools — they are seen as educating students as units of human capital (ie individual goals) and also they are to socialise young people. Argues that because of this contradiction the Federal materials opt for a minimal interpretation of civics education emphasising civil and legal status, rights and responsibilities – not a participatory approach. ‘It valorises a white, male, Eurocentric concept of citizen which completely marginalises significant sections of people in Australia’ (p 72).

**Gill, J and Reid, A, (1999), ‘Civics education: The state of play or the play of the state?’, Curriculum Perspectives, 19(3), pp 31-40.**

The current interest in civics education is caused by the alienation of those citizens who are losers in the market-sponsored competition dominating Australian society. The authors argue that the state is using civics education to produce safe citizens who will accept current social and political arrangements and not push for a more socially
just society. Authors argue that the *Discovering Democracy* materials valorise a white, male, Eurocentric concept of citizen that completely marginalises significant sections of people in Australia. Democracy is a process as well as an outcome – it is not something just waiting to be discovered.


Argues that American social science educators have made little progress in constructing a concept of citizenship in the curriculum. But rather than seek to reposition the Social Science curriculum to take account of this there should be a recognition of the fact that preparation for citizenship is a whole-school mission. Social Studies indeed should be unshackled from this role, albeit with the recognition that it will continue to contribute to citizenship education, and rather help students to understand the political, economic and social world in which they live.


This is the report of a comparative study of civic education in Britain, the USA, Germany, the Netherlands and Australia. Of particular interest was the effect of classroom climate on adolescent interest in political activity and interest. It was found that ‘when educational policies and practices give student the opportunities to investigate, discuss, and express views on public policy issue, they are more likely to develop attitudes that are supportive of political participation than if they do not have such experiences’ (p 245). Students are more interested in public affairs when some sort of political education is included in the curriculum. Students in the Netherlands and England were the most apathetic. High levels of interest and efficacy in Denmark appear to be influenced by the many opportunities to participate in decision-making in their schools and communities.


Points out that there are five reasons why there has not been a firm tradition of citizenship education in England until the present compulsory Civics course for Key Stages 3 and 4. These are:
- a lack of central guidance and reliance on private initiative
- the extension of the franchise and the issue of maturity
- social class and examination structures
- war and peace
- Empire and Commonwealth.


Examines the ways in which Australian education systems, particularly university teacher education programs, have responded to the need for intercultural education.
Argues, controversially, that Australia has shaken off much of its racist legacy and has policies in place that facilitate access of refugees to the Australian community. There has been substantial innovation in Asian Studies, Aboriginal Studies, Ethnic Studies.


Argues that the national profiles say very little explicitly about values yet implicit assumptions abound. Many of the outcomes could support many different ideological agendas. He argues that we need to clarify the traits we associate with being an adequate citizen and what operational values are associated with the idea of a cohesive Australian society. Points out that many ethical teachers refrained from espousing values while unethical teachers were quite happy to do so all in the cause of trying to be objective. Worked in a consortium to try to develop a minimum set of useful values. The groups of values they came up with included values associated with life perspectives, the individual, society and the natural world.


Argues that the Discovering Democracy materials have no clear sense of normative principles and objectives to guide the curriculum framework, have not developed understandings of the educational issues in these materials and have no sense of how to link course objectives and materials to the biographically meaningful.


A work that concentrates on education in Europe and takes as its centrepiece the development in children of civic duty and individual rights. The role of the teacher is to support social and moral development by ensuring that pupils become stakeholders in their own learning. The curriculum, for its part, should emphasise participatory citizenship education. A particular reason for urgency here is the upsurge of xenophobia and racism in Europe.


Argues that the notions of citizens being connected to each other is critical because it establishes a lasting bond within a certain cultural and national context. Establishing these connections however is not easy. A capitalist society frequently disrupts the importance of the collective well-being. ‘A capitalist society regularly promotes competition over collaboration, domination over compassion, and separation in lieu of unification’ (p 524). This often leaves us with the view that there is a deeply embedded hypocrisy in our discussions of democracy. The author also discusses the difficulties of establishing a multicultural democracy where students need to maintain components of their racial and ethnic cultures, yet construct a nation-state where diversity is recognised.

The study of civics is representative of an approach to content and the role of students toward this content. There are three possible pedagogies for the teaching of civics — critical pedagogy, conflict and constructivist pedagogies. Argues for civics education that has immediacy and relevance to the lives of young people.


Researchers developed rubrics reflecting conceptions from research of what was required to prepare citizens for a democratic society. They observed classrooms in Chicago and found an ‘alarming’ lack of opportunities to develop these capacities. They also found a correlation between the provision of opportunities for citizenship development with opportunities for higher order thinking and disciplined inquiry.


A collection of essays that discuss trends in civic education, curriculum diversity and the problems of processing information.


Civics megatrends:
• Within Australia — multiculturalism, reconciliation, the role of women and republicanism
• Internationally — globalism, role of international cooperatives, UN peace-keeping role, international human rights, and the pervasiveness of communications and information technology.

Need to link these with civics deficiencies and civic realities in a way that connects with young people.

A key tension is whether the emphasis should be on public or common interests as opposed to private or individual interests. This is related to the relationship between rights and responsibilities. Values education is very important in this area and if it is agreed to involve this, the question arises as to which values and how they should be taught are joined. Pedagogy of civics education is important with a consensus on active and engaging approaches to be employed.
Making decisions about civics education programs

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<th>Aspect</th>
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<tr>
<td>1. Content</td>
<td>1.1 Is citizenship defined inclusively?</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.2 Are difference and diversity recognised as positive aspects of citizenship?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1.3 Are the common values underpinning citizenship articulated?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1.4 Will students learn about both formal and informal political structures and processes?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1.5 Are citizens portrayed as active and involved in democratic decision-making?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Teaching/Learning</td>
<td>2.1 Is an approach to teaching used that actively involves students?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.2 Is there a strategy for teaching about values?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>2.3 Does learning involve students in activities outside of the classroom?</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Outcomes</td>
<td>3.1 Will the outcomes assist students to become active citizens?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>3.2 Will the outcomes assist students to understand essential features of the democratic system?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>3.3 Will the outcomes assist students locate themselves as part of an historical and political process?</td>
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The program for citizenship education for 16 countries was reviewed. It was found that:

- The area is under review in most countries as part of the overall reform of the school curriculum.
- What works in one cultural setting cannot simply be adopted and expected to achieve the same ends elsewhere.
- There is broad agreement about the common challenges facing citizenship education.
- Those countries with a ‘values-explicit’ tradition are better able to set out the aims and goals of citizenship that those with a ‘values-neutral’ tradition.
- In many countries there was a move away from a knowledge-based approach to citizenship education to a broader approach encompassing knowledge and understandings, active experiences and the development of student values, dispositions, skills and aptitudes. This was difficult because of the impact of teacher culture and beliefs and the slow adaptation of schools to change.
- There is a continuing gap between the rhetoric of policy and the reality of practice from the national level to individual schools and classrooms.
- There is agreement on the centrality of the teacher in citizenship education.
- The need for further discussion about assessment arrangements for citizenship education
- Coordination of approaches and initiatives is necessary.

Questions whether one discovers democracy but notes that one develops citizenship skills through explicit attempts and practice required of democratic citizenship. Argues that history and civics are only part of democratic values. They point out that there are six attributes of democracy that apply to education: the nature of educational authority, the ordering and inclusiveness of membership, the determination of important knowledge, the definition and availability of rights, the nature and participation in decisions that affects one’s life, and equality. Point out that schooling continues to be antagonistic to democracy. A more democratic education will emerge from the development of a local organisation building on small successes.


Gives an excellent overview of inquiries into civics education in Australia in the past 10-15 years. Addresses some of the roles of parliamentarians in civics education particularly in regard to young people’s participation.


Among the contributory factors in the failure of democratic education, there is an inherent conflict between an authoritarian and paternalistic school context and the democratic content to be transmitted. This arises because of the school’s dual role as a custodial institution and a teaching institution. Democratic becomes secondary to moral education and there are administrative and instrumental limitations on democratic participation. ‘Even when implementing programs of citizenship education, the school is more eager to develop in students a respectable attitude towards the school authority, the teachers, and the school’s rules, and an understanding of their obligations rather than their rights’ (p 51).


Points out that history and civics were well connected in the nineteenth century but the link between them has deteriorated mainly because colonial conceptions of citizenship were about British subjects and connections not appropriate to present day Australia. It is also the case that a myriad of options in history lack narrative coherence. ‘…I want to see a retrieval of the civic dimension in history, a joining together of the changes in our public life, the ways we live together, with the enlarged understanding of diversity and difference’ (p 63).


Citizenship is of concern to many nations because of the transient workers and refugee problem. Newer social movements, with their identity-based politics, call into
question the older assumptions of a common citizenship. Argues that rather than impose facts about government on our citizens, information needed for effective participation should be made available. Discusses the difficulties associated with citizenship values education, citizenship skills education, and identification of citizenship and nationhood.


There needs to be a move away from a content focus and towards one in which experiences of women, people of different races and classes are incorporated. Current social problems should be addressed — AIDS, sexism, racism, poverty and violence. Beyond merely studying the issues teachers should include action strategies for dealing with these problems.


September 11 has created changes in attitudes towards civics education and the role of schools in cultivating patriotism. It appears to have led to a renewed emphasis on the critical role schools play in teaching citizens about American ideals. Various commentators discuss the value of teaching individual rights and well-being as opposed to encouraging patriotism and the greater good (which can also include the need to stand up when it is felt that the government is wrong).


Argues that American schools offer basic training in civic illiteracy where students will become adults blindly following the lead of politicians. Argues that schools glorify patriotism and war, built on the foundations of a patriarchal society and tend to ignore the critical and liberating potential of education.


Citizenship is not one discipline but provides the ‘power to act’ in ways which can enhance the individual and society. Argues that the conceptual pedagogical model is the only one that will provide meaningful learning outcomes. Retention of facts without a conceptual, relational model is a useless outcome. Thus it is very important that there are clear pedagogical goals for citizenship education. Citizenship is an interactive rather than cerebral experience and until students have experienced this process they wont appreciate its value. Argues that history can provide endless ‘examples of chaos and change, well and badly managed’ (p 77) and this one can
watch and learn without pain. It can play a significant explanatory and experiential role in citizenship education.


It is argued that unless citizenship education provides an opportunity to study the reality of contemporary experience, including injustices and inequalities, it will be ineffectual. There are severe dangers of citizenship curriculum being overcrowded with factual knowledge at the expense of experiencing democratic processes and playing a part in the formation of learners’ identities.

Points out that if democracy is based on the rights of individuals to free expression and to free associations and our education system should provide a context for these with limitations being that:

- There is also a need to protect individuals and groups from injustice, intolerance, discrimination.
- School children are not full citizens and need to be guided toward adult and actual citizenship.


A general view of the development of Australian civic education.


Civics and citizenship education has been traditionally provided in Social Studies. However when attitudes of students and teachers in Western Australia were surveyed, students indicated that it was boring whereas teachers thought that students enjoyed the subject. He concludes that as a subject it is no shape to deliver civics and citizenship education. The reasons included:

- out-of-date curriculum
- little time allocated to it
- a poor background in social sciences and confusion about how it should be taught
- the use of a limited range of instructional practices.


This study examined newly instituted programs of citizenship education in France and England to ascertain the degree to which they promoted human rights as shared values, made positive references to cultural diversity and included conceptions of minorities. It was found that the French programs instituted a clear sense of identity associated with the principles of freedom, equality, solidarity and human rights. The English program had no clear sense of national identity and defined citizenship as something continually evolving through consensus. Neither programs gave significant weight to the perspectives of minorities.

Gives an overview of the development of the idea and practice of citizenship since the Greeks. Points out that notions of citizenship have always been contested. A citizen has knowledge attitudes and skills that need to be fostered in schools.


An evaluation of the uptake of the Curriculum Corporation’s *Discovering Democracy* kit first introduced nationally in 1997. Libby Tudball from Victoria mentions concerns with a lack of momentum could occur with the professional development associated with this kit unless funding is continued. She also points out that teachers need to be empowered and to be learning about opportunities for tackling civic issues such as homelessness, globalisation and reconciliation. The professional development needs to include these updating opportunities. Wally Moroz from Western Australia points out some of the shortcomings of the *Discovering Democracy* material:
- overemphasis on historical material
- heavy emphasis on content
- pedagogy which does not include active citizenship.

Generally there has been an increased awareness of the material and indications that this would increase. Problems in the future may arise with small numbers in each school using it and the material not being readily available for all students. Teachers were most anxious that the materials directly relate to current syllabuses.


Explores perceptions of citizenship held by teachers, parents and students in one school. All groups felt the most important characteristics of citizenship were the social justice concerns such as concern for the welfare of others, moral and ethical behaviours and acceptance of diversity. The second most supported grouping of citizenship characteristics were the action/participatory orientation of citizenship. All groups placed high importance on the values dimension of social learning. Suggests that Social Studies teachers investigate conceptual elements of citizenship such as identity, tolerance, community, social justice, equity. However teachers seemed to be unaware of a nexus between the products of their classrooms and the processes such as the daily routines of their classrooms in promoting citizenship. Argues that the three groups need to have a shared understanding about what it means to be a good citizen.


Authors are critical of the *Discovering Democracy* materials because of its overemphasis on content, as well as the nature of that content: the implied pedagogical approach including its failure to engage students in meaningful participation in their communities.

Using data from 1160 14-16 year olds, it is shown that a considerable number of young people are involved in volunteering and campaigning and that their participation is influenced by gender, ethnicity, locality and the family. It is argued that involvement in these activities affects young people’s political development in five ways:
- an understanding of the needs of different groups in society
- a sense of influence over political and social events
- a growing sense of party political differences and voting intent
- reflection on social structures and processes
- the acquisition of skills useful in political campaigning.


Argues that the people and politicians of the US are alienated from their fellow citizens and that political participation is declining. Points out that today *Gesellschaft* — where individuals have figured out that they can pursue their interests more effectively if they join together — is the motivating goal in our society. However *Gemeinschaft* — where people relate to each other because of belonging, and solidarity — leads to much stronger links. Urges educators to question capitalism as a system because of the alienation it causes and to foster bonds between fellow human beings.


Surveying over 1000 school students Saha focused on the importance of civic knowledge, democratic values and dispositions towards normative and non-normative political activity. The school provides an important setting for various forms of political socialisation and political activity because young people come into contact with each other in a place where social influence and social pressures operate. Saha tried to find out if what they were specifically taught in school had any impact on their political activism. He found that having taken a civics subject in school is positively and significantly related to all political knowledge. He also found that civics education was correlated with a normative (signing petitions, writing letters) form of active citizenship.


Argues that there are two problems associated with the *Crick Report*:
- It espouses an outcomes-based curriculum model which, because it is assessment-driven, tends to focus on those aspects of the curriculum which can be easily assessed and neglects those aspects which are more difficult to assess and limits the type of teaching approaches that can be adopted.
- There is a clear lack of pedagogical theory.

Children’s rights:
- Children have equal entitlement to all human rights.
- Many Australian children are denied the most basic rights.

Education must teach children about their rights and responsibilities as citizens and enable them to participate fully in society including assisting students to gain a sense of ownership of the education processes that affect their daily life.


Argues that whereas the English curriculum aspires to create a diverse society founded on multicultural citizenship there is an insufficiently strong agreed statement of values undermining its implementation. The French syllabus emphasises a commitment to anti-racism, human rights and civil action against injustice but denies the existence of social groups based on culture or ethnicity. French citizenship is intended to integrate individuals into a pre-determined existing republican framework. English citizenship education apparently aims to create a new society and a new national identity.


Citizenship is learnt and practised every day. Students need to have a sense of optimism and hope and belief in their capacity to do something and achieve something in their society.


South African educational practices indicate three views of the relationship between citizenship and education:
- Education moulds good citizens and overcomes discriminatory differences (South African Education Act).
- Education is an enactment of citizenship and a celebration of difference (South African Curriculum 2005).
- Education is a relatively autonomous space and in educational institutions difference and citizenship are in tension (South African Constitution 1996).


Citizenship is a very important concept but sounds old-fashioned. However it has re-emerged as an answer to social cohesion and integration. ‘Post-industrial society…confronts us with two contradictory developments. On the one hand, we see a process of globalisation, growing uncertainty, and a certain loss of identity among the citizens of the traditional nation state. One the other hand we see continued and very powerful pressures for regional autonomy and localism’ (p 23). The classical ideal of
citizenship is under threat and society is fragmented and individualised. The welfare state has been demolished and the nation-state is disintegrating. Education to create citizens of a similar type no longer exists and parental rights, family values and mass media challenge the national educational agendas. Many see possibilities for future citizenship education in a pluralistic variant of citizenship that acknowledges the multicultural nature of society. One of the most critical tasks of the school is the fostering of civic virtue. Education and democracy go together such that citizenship education should receive a much higher policy priority than is now the case. There should be three components to a course on democratic citizenship:

- History of democratic institutions
- Political theory and philosophy of democratic governments
- Practical political science — governments, parties, courts.

Civic education can be also aimed at demonstrating how moral values may be connected to particular social institutions. Advocates increasing the participatory competence of future citizens in schools.

**Woods, D, (1996), ‘Whereas the people…Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples’, *Curriculum Perspectives*, 16(1), pp 48-51.**

Questions whether Aboriginal perspectives will be included in civics material and will teachers of civics and citizenship include content on pre-1788 governmental structure of Australia? Points out that issues of Land Right and Reconciliation need to be continued to be debated and are important parts of the Republican debate.
Technology in HSIE classes


- New learning will occur through technology. Some of this will occur at school but much will occur at home or simply by playing games or using the Internet.
- Students need to learn about technology. A critical and balanced view of its use to humans is called for.
- There are new ways of learning using technology. This can make learning an individualised experience.
- There will be more learning outside educational institutions.


Few schools have made effective use of E-mail to improve interpersonal communication with other cultures and communities. Reasons for this include the fact that there is an expectation from students that replies will be instantaneous and when this doesn’t occur students become frustrated and uninterested. There are also issues associated with access to technology and projects being instituted by those interested in the technology rather than the subject matter of the exchange, ie poor project design. Interaction doesn’t move much beyond superficial conversation. The author experienced success with e-mail projects that were based on goals agreed upon by all participants, before the project commenced, included a modular structure, had a clear time frame and had procedures to eliciting, sending, receiving and collating mail. It is easier to use these sort of projects in places like New Zealand (where the article was written) because of the less structured nature of the curriculum which encourages thematic, interactive work.


Argues that reform of schooling in general and Social Studies in particular lies in establishing interdisciplinary and interprofessional collaboration, the need for teachers to be advocates for children and the infusion of technological advances into our practice. The latter can assist in the first two if used wisely. However technology could be used only as a tool to access information and knowledge as developed by others and fail to evolve skills in critically and creatively constructing ideas and thoughts. One area that can be improved upon is family links. E-mail can be used to facilitate home-school collaboration, keep parents informed of homework and engaged in asynchronous conferences.

This article was prepared as the result of a cross-disciplinary debate on the needs of teachers and teachers in training in regards to technology. The Social Studies leaders argued that the goals for promoting appropriate technology use in Social Studies teacher education were:

- to develop case studies of ‘best practices’ in the integration of technology in the Social Studies classrooms, especially in areas of online deliberation skills or critical evaluation of websites
- to encourage more research in context
- social justice and technology issues should be explored in this area
- access and equity issues
- the environmental changes that will occur as a result of technology
- the effect technology will have on assessment (incremental assessment)
- the need for ‘visions of the possible’
- interdisciplinary collaboration opportunities.

Social Studies educators argued that there were some specific technology tools that social studies would use. These were:

- electronic discussion groups
- digital resource centres with primary resources
- digital video cameras
- handheld computing devices
- videoconferencing/electronic whiteboards
- spreadsheets
- quantitative and qualitative statistical software packages
- internet2
- presentation software.

Social science educators argued that there were some issues that would make technology dissemination and integration in teacher preparation more difficult. These were:

- the need to be able to download resources from the Internet without great delays
- the need for students to have access to resources online that reflect the multicultural background of students.

They argue that ‘the two primary uses of technology in the Social Studies area are connecting to other people so they can access multiple viewpoints and perspectives and connecting to resources such as primary documents and social science data’. There was therefore a need to help students use technology resources critically, especially in examining material they obtain from the Internet.

For Social Studies educators the key questions for future research in connection to technology were:

- Is technology in schools simply ‘glitzy’, all style and no substance?
- Is technology changing the way children learn?
- What does diversity mean for access and different types of learning?
- What are the ways of bringing inexpensive technologies into the classrooms and making connections to people around the world?
- How can we address the growing digital divide?
- How can we teach children to be critical consumers of information found in cyberspace?
• How can we maintain children’s safety and privacy on the Internet?
• How can we improve collaboration between pre-service teachers and in-service teachers?

Bendigo Senior Secondary College, (1997), *Navigator School Submission to the Minister for Education (In the area of use of information technologies across the curriculum).*

This school has a five-point plan to lead in technology use:
• A computer and telecommunications network to link schools, homes and businesses
• Provision of baseline equipment and software to all teachers and learning areas
• Application of technology in the administration area
• Partnership with the wider community
• Students, parents and members of the wider community are given technological support.


Conducted a review of available research on social studies computer use with special reference to that done since Ehman and Glenn’s study in 1991. It was found that there was plenty of enthusiasm for the use of technology but few well-designed research studies. Divided the studies into those associated with drill and practice, games and simulations, inquiry and problem-solving activities, the use of graphics and word processing and writing. Changing technologies provide an extra difficulty for reviews of the effectiveness of technology.


Discusses some of the problems associated with the establishment and management of computer laboratories at a tertiary level. Not specifically relevant but an area in which there is little information.


Found that multimedia authoring has the potential to develop qualities of evaluation, independence, and responsibility in children’s learning and understanding. It challenges teachers to devise teaching strategies which assert liberal educational values. Teachers gauged the main benefits of multi-media authoring to be:
• pupil discussion and evaluation of information when planning the content of their presentations
• pupils developed a sense of responsibility for own choices and actions
• pupils reviewed information and consolidated understanding
• enjoyment and choice increased their commitment to the task.
What was clear also was that in various ways the demands of more interactive and independent learning can challenge the pre-existing culture of the classroom and stimulate teachers to devise new teaching strategies. Teachers may have to rethink their practice in quite radical ways reorienting from product to process. The levels of autonomy achieved by the use of computers are not recognised by current formal assessment procedures.


Points to the need to consider information literacy when deciding upon uses of technology. Information literacy consists of seven different experiences:
- to be able to use information technology to stay aware of events and to communicate
- to know how to access sources including humans and those in print
- to understand the process of how to find out about gaining information
- to be able to control and manage information when it is found
- to be able to use the information in a personal manner
- to take information and create something different from it
- to make wise use of information.


Point out that there are six elements for multicultural technology integration:
- culturally supportive environment
- cultural awareness
- cultural relevance
- equitable access
- instructional flexibility
- instructional integration.


Previous investigations into computer use in classrooms have found that few teachers used them for instructional purposes. Their main use was in low-level tasks such as drills and word processing, and that they have not been integrated into most instructional curricula. This research was designed to investigate teachers’ perspectives of their use of instructional technology. It was found that teachers feel that technology is an integral part of the process of education and that they felt the need for more technology in their classrooms. These findings seem to imply that teachers have attained improved abilities in regard to computer usage and competency in classrooms than were suggested by studies of only five years ago.

The chief value of technology lies in helping move social studies instruction away from passive, teacher-dominated approaches toward active, student-centred forms of learning. Cites Schrum (2001) as indicating that when technology is used for drill and practice in maths instruction, test scores go down but when it is used for problem-solving and investigation, scores go up.

Argues for social studies teaching based on constructivist principles and that it is important to examine the digital divide ensuring that the powerful learning provided by technology is provided for all students at all levels.


This article examines the large investment being made into technology in schools. Cuban argues that it is seen to lead to integration of software with curriculum and instruction but in reality teachers rarely integrate the technology with core curricular or instructional tasks. Incorporation of technology is also seen to improve academic standards. Although there is some improvement in basic skills there is no evidence that sustained use of spreadsheets or multimedia has any impact on academic achievement. It is also seen to be the case that computer skills are needed to get employment whereas Cuban argues that high school and college degrees are the surest path to obtain jobs. He argues that what employers want are employees with a good work ethic who are literate and able to work in teams.


Argues for the value of challenging universal assumptions about cultural identities by meeting different cultural groups via the Internet. Schools researched various countries by traditional means and then corresponded with people and schools in those countries. Author found that more time was needed to give an in-depth understanding of stereotyping and that there needs to be extensive preparation and exposure to the Internet.


In the Blackstone River Valley of Massachusetts a Learning Network was established to link technology and interdisciplinary curriculum development with special emphasis on local history. It established a virtual museum with lesson plans designed to meet Massachusetts’ learning standards in History and Social Science (www.bvlearnnet.org).

Reports on a project to explore the use of technologies in developing online course materials to support SOSE. Teachers found that they could become quite effective in its use. The critical factor appeared to be the use of mentoring among teachers in a field of learning rather than letting the IT be managed by technology people.


‘The introduction of new technologies into classrooms has allowed for a new, atypical reorganisation in the way teachers can instruct their classes and students can learn’ (p 492). However traditional teacher-centred instructional paradigms have not changed and most teachers have not made use of the new computer technologies. The promise of technology is its innovative and imaginative applications. There is evidence that social studies teachers are beginning to use technology as part of the learning process, for example in problem-based cooperative activities, yet fewer than two out of every ten teachers are serious users of computers in their classrooms. The main reasons seem to be lack of technical support and lack of time to plan properly. Web-base learning environments appear to provide the most potential for the development of creative learning experiences. Discussion groups and web page construction with opportunities to use text, graphics, video and so on seem very useful. Despite this there is little research evidence that technology produces positive effects on social studies learning. There is a need for research on the holistic effects of technology including student participation, academic engagement, curriculum implementation, technology integration, instructional procedures, and classroom dynamics.


Argues that social studies education is in need of a good theory upon which to build appropriate pedagogy and understanding. Posits constructivism and cognitive psychology as useful theories upon which to base Social Studies practice.

**Cognitive Psychology**

Human thought and behaviour are explained by positing how the mind processes the information it experiences and retains. Theorists in this field focus on processes such as sensation, perception, attention, working memory and so on. Inquiry approaches promote depth of processing, perspective taking promotes elaborative processing, and meaning-making promotes schema and script application as well as deep, elaborative processing.

**Constructivism**

Employs a more flexible, culturally relativist, and contemplative perspective in which knowledge is a personal construction based on social experience. Constructivism emphasises the active role played by the individual learner in the construction of knowledge. Language provides the mechanism for translating external verbal exchanges into meaning. ‘Inquiry promotes active learning, perspective-taking, promotes contextually sensitive knowledge organisation and meaning-making results from language usage’ (p 14).
Both these theoretical foundations offer the basis for understanding social science practice and neither is totally ‘correct’. Argues that when incorporating technology it is important to base it on a vision for the future, not on what works today.


No one technology resource experience is necessary for exemplary technology use to occur. There was some discrepancy between what is advocated in the literature (constructivist teaching practices) and what occurs in classrooms perceived to be exemplary. It is not clear whether this is because teachers are still evolving and can be assisted by professional development, or whether expectations are unrealistic.


There is a need for more skilled people in the IT business and educators need to provide direction for the type of technologies student will need in the future. Laptops are opportunities as are other forms of new technologies and teachers must be prepared to embrace change.


Neither media literacy nor critical viewing education has become part of mainstream social studies education. Television radio, print material and the Internet are having huge impacts on socialisation in our society. Analytical and critical thinking skills requirements for social studies education are not new but the need for them many be more acute in a time when communications are fast, vivid and beguiling.


Comments on what a curriculum for the future should look like and used Raymond Williams’ The Long Revolution (1961) as a guide. In the technology area argues that the Internet and computers have 16 areas of advantage:

- data access
- capacity
- speed
- precision
- networking
- visual imagery
- effortless exposure
- time consumer/boredom concealer
- makes rote learning irrelevant; enables students to work at their own pace
- permits individual learning
• assists in developing group/collaborative work
• extends teachers’ range
• gives students control of the learning process
• use of a medium that students are comfortable/familiar with
• encourages problem solving
• discrete quanta of information.

The negative consequences may be:
• fortification of isolation/alienation
• discouraging reading
• limiting imagination
• encouraging fallacy of learning a game, eg news=entertainment
• emphasising ‘now’ time and immediacy of response.

Computers are not particularly helpful in:
• non-discrete analysis (especially self-analysis)
• developing and challenging values
• encouraging real life experiences
• encouraging face-to-face experiences
• debate/dialectic
• reflection
• judgement.


Results indicated that enhancing motivation-building (pointing out past successes or attributing student academic progress to effort) and personal-investment content (focusing on some interaction or developing a personal relationship with the student) in teacher communications increases at-risk student engagement in Web-based courses.


Technology can be a great tool for individual inquiry and research encouraging analysis, creation of meaning, contextual knowledge, and critical reflection. Students themselves need to be involved in inquiries and should examine ‘the big questions of our existence’ and be associated with environmental education, civics and citizenship education, peace education and active education. However computers also can be used as baby-sitters and can be destructive of learning.

Offer five principles as guides for appropriate infusion of technology in social studies teacher preparation programs:

- Extend learning beyond what could be done without technology
- Introduce technology in context
- Introduce opportunities for students to study relationships among science, technology and society. There is the need to develop prosocial actions including positive social interaction skills such as cooperation, sharing, kindness; self-regulation and achievement behaviours such as persistence and responsibility; and creative fantasy and imaginative play.
- Foster the development of the skills, knowledge, and participation as good citizens in a democratic society. Need to centre on the development of children’s personal civic beliefs, capacity for social and public action, ties to their localities and the world outside and awareness of past, present and future.
- Contribute to the research and evaluation of social studies and technology.


Argues for the value of a local area network (LAN) where the teaching staff extract material from the Internet and place it on the Intranet. Describes the use of this in a school in Adelaide. At this school there has been no need to purchase textbooks in a number of key areas because sufficient material has been placed on the net.


To successfully integrate use of current technologies in classrooms there needs to be a combined effort to redesign the concept of learning and teaching, the spaces in which it takes place and the manner in which it should be made available. Changes that need to be made include using constructivist learning models, assisting peer learning, structuring collaborative learning, encouraging self-directed learning and expecting resources-based learning.


ICT (information and communication technologies) can lead to whole school change. The benefits are:

- facilitating communication and interactivity
- increasing the information available to students and teachers
- fostering creativity
- supporting cross-cultural understanding
- increasing student engagement and motivation.

Although reporting on experiences with university students, Merryfield reports that using threaded discussion on-line opens up discussion in student groups. She argues that this is a promising avenue for studying issues of equity, diversity and cross-cultural understandings because it empowers minority groups and it enables users to be confident generally when discussing potentially controversial issues.


The key features of the Web are:
- its support for manipulation of information
- its assistance as a communication facilitator
- its creative environment
- its value as an instructional delivery medium.

This article established and assessed a taxonomy by which to assess educational websites. It was found when assessing hundreds of educational websites that pedagogical approaches favoured by educators and researchers, where students were actively involved in the construction of knowledge, were very few. They also found that the information handling tools such as the structure and orientation aids on the web pages were similar to those of print technology and lagged behind state of the art sites. It was also found that most Web sites only used limited communication resources. Researchers argue that there is usually a transition period between new technology and its possibilities being realised to full potential. There is a need for educators to explore the potential of educational web sites.


The results of the same study as reported at LERN conference (see below). Makes the point that reluctant computer users may appreciate more direction and guidance.


Points out that research literature indicates that a limited range of instructional practices are used by social studies educators and they tend to use teacher-centred strategies in preference to child-centred strategies. Computers are not widely used because their use necessitates additional work and planning. Social Studies educators are reluctant to integrate computers in their programs because of insufficient training and time to reorganise their teaching, thinking and planning to incorporate computer based learning, limited awareness of appropriate software, limited availability of software, lack of adequate software and competition for computers from other curriculum areas such as maths and science. In a study of students’ views on computer usage he found that students would like more computer activities but that computer-based learning was rare.
Argues that the inclusion of computing tools and other new information technologies in mainstream subject work does not preclude other methods (discussion, practical experiments, dramatic presentations etc); rather it provides alternatives and enhancements.


Computers are motivating for students. Students find databases, Internet access and multi-media software such as CDs very useful.


Preservice teachers need to consider the quality of Internet sources – not just the quantity. They need to use critical thinking skills. Modeling online high quality searches are important. Teachers need to show understanding and empathy towards novices in their Internet searches.


The benefits of personal computers in the classroom:
- motivation
- decision-making and problem-solving
- group work
- inquiry learning
- access to resources
- presentation of work.

Particularly of value in HSIE are databases, spreadsheets, simulations, CDs for information retrieval, the Internet and presentation software.

It is also important in HSIE to teach about computers, the main issues being changes in employment brought about by computers, the use of computers to store information and computer crime.


Constructivist views of education hold that individuals construct knowledge through interpreting their own experiences. Piaget emphasised the necessity for biological maturity, and more recently Vygotsky emphasised cultural and social influences on cognitive development. Technology can be incorporated to support social constructivism by using collaboration in problem-solving, encouraging learning in meaningful contexts and relating to students’ own experiences. Technology tools that aid in constructivist learning in the social studies classroom include various type of simulation and strategy software/CD-ROM, videodiscs, multimedia/hypermedia, and telecommunications. The authors suggest activities such as learning about cultures, using CDs, preparing for a journey, developing databases, exchanging school and community data, going on an Internet Field trip and conducting Internet projects in social studies classrooms.

Despite much research and anecdotal evidence of the benefits of e-learning there are reports of the deleterious effects of technology. Azam noted high school students had raised questions about the rate in which they are becoming dependent on technology, the isolating nature of the Internet and how technology threatens their privacy and their ability to relate to others. (Azam, 2000) Ross argues that there is little or no evidence to support the beneficial claims of proponents of e-learning for children. There are claims that the benefits of computers for preschool and elementary school students are overstated. Some of the criticisms are that computers really only assist in drill and practice activities; that improved language skills are best achieved by face-to-face conversation with skilled users; that medical conditions can emerge (eg eye strain, obesity); that technology is diverting us from urgent social and educational needs of low-income children; that computers don’t really connect children to the world — they connect them to trivial games, inappropriate adult content and aggressive advertising. Discusses problems associated with tertiary applications of e-learning.

There is a need to be critically aware of the potential downside of e-learning and demand wise use of technology for the collective good.


There is relentless societal pressure to adopt examples of computer technology such as the Internet. Argues that increasingly it is likely that Australian students will gain greater computer exposure at home than at school. Research in Queensland found that the majority of teachers had moderate levels of computer competency and that computer anxiety was a factor in teacher stress. The pedagogy associated with computer usage leads to some teaching practices rather than others and establishes problems for teachers who need to make choices between tried and true approaches and these new approaches. There is evidence that student use of computers at home has not been matched by changes in teaching practices at school.


‘If technology is to entice teachers to reconsider their practice and help them to empower their students, we must be prudent in how we introduce new technology applications. We should not do technology-based activities simply because it is possible to do so.’ Teachers must be able to see how the technology can be integrated into the subject matter rather than being a frilly appendage. There are four criteria for considering technology-enhanced curriculum choices:

• robustness
• potential for promoting higher order thinking and disciplined inquiry
• potential for expanding the ways that students can gain and demonstrate new understandings
• opportunity cost.
Argues that the use of simple Virtual Reality experiences (as advocated by Sherman and Hicks) may not be robust and the cost may be prohibitive. There would be need for VR panoramas to be used in conjunction with other instructional materials to encourage complex learning such as disciplined inquiry and historical thinking. Gives examples of some web sites that provide VR experiences but point to others that encourage inquiry approaches and so provide similar skills development. Some exemplar VR sites:
http://www.pbs.org/wgbh/nova/pyramid/explore/khufuall.html and http://www.pbs.org/wnet/newyork/hidden/contents.html are good examples of the value of VR and a non-VR experience which is an historical mystery is at http://web.uvic.ca/history-robinson/index.html


Social Studies classrooms are supposed to be problem-centred and technology has been advocated as a great way to assist in this problem-solving. This article tries to redress the lack of research into this by addressing some of the difficulties associated with problem-based instruction:
- lack of deep engagement with the topic
- failure to weight competing perspectives
- lack of domain-specific and metacognitive knowledge.

The findings were that scaffolded multimedia provides a more authentic context for learners, raises student interest, provides alternative perspectives and more easily provides materials to assist in the problem-solving. They found that expert guidance by the teacher was a crucial factor in establishing disciplined inquiry.


The Internet has the potential to greatly increase access to information but students need systematic instruction in information literacy to realise its potential. The authors conducted an action research study on the use of the Internet by high school students. Students found it a powerful tool but were often frustrated when conducting research because of the mass of information and the problem of it often being unreliable and irrelevant. ‘Infoglut poses real risks for students who do not separate the real from the unreal, the useful from the superfluous, and the reliable from the junk.’ (p 125)

Argue that if teachers are to use technology appropriately they must be aware of its possibilities. In this article they examine the benefits of virtual reality (VR) within effective instructional experiences. In this instance they used an historic site to teach the Virginian state standards. The experience demonstrated the value of VR. Some of the teacher participants, however, did use the technology only to present information and did not include strategies that would enable student to create new information. Access to resources will also be a problem.


 Democracies run on information, but students need guidance about processing all that is available on the Internet.


Having access to the Internet does not guarantee that the information available will be used to construct meaningful learning. To make its use meaningful teachers need access to the Internet, preferably within the classroom on several computers. Teachers need to have a basic knowledge of Internet navigation, learn how to save Internet material and save it on disk, learn how to bookmark, and use search engines. Modeling was very important in learning how to use the Internet in a more sophisticated manner. The authors rated use of the Internet on a 5 point scale, 1 being where the teacher uses Internet resources and 5 being where the students directly plan and implement their use of Internet.


IT has the capacity to bring about significant improvement in teaching by making constructivist approaches to learning more accessible. Even though new technologies have been incorporated into classrooms for decades, technologies that support current practices have gained greater acceptance. Classrooms are still viewed as thirty children in a room with teacher, desks and books. There has recently been a series of dramatic improvements in the technology which has meant that IT can be used in schools more effectively. These changes include the speed and storage of computers, the capacity of computers to operate very complex systems, the availability of cheap image handling devices such as scanners and digital cameras, and the development of the Internet. Gives some examples of projects completed at his school in Adelaide — simple advertisements, slide advertisements, graphing, local house project, comparison of countries and a technology study. These activities illustrate some of the emerging characteristics of the use of IT in schools:

• an emphasis on experimentation and construction of a product
• a strong orientation towards project work over a substantial time period
• focus on presenting learning to an audience
• small group linked to whole class outcomes
• a trend toward networking of learning across the school, home and community.
Engagement with technology has increased student motivation, has changed school structure towards things like longer blocks of time for lessons, and has improved relationships with more small group work.


The development of online companies prepared to sell education to students at home on an individual basis represents a channel shift. They will sell their product to schools but their main target is the home market and in effect they are establishing a direct educational relationship with individual children, cutting out the system and the teacher. This could lead to users of education services choosing to buy different elements of their education from different suppliers.

**Yelland, N, (1996), ‘Learning with technology’, *Quick, 61*, pp 19-21.**

Although the most extensive use of computers in schools is in drill and practice situations there is some evidence that these games encourage competition and discourage cooperation between children and limit creativity. A more challenging approach would be:
- To use the problem-solving environments to extend children’s thinking
- Use production tools to enhance the writing and research processes
- Use the Internet to access information and people that would not have been possible without the technology.

Author used the Olympics as a theme in a range of activities on and off the computer. Children’s absorption in the tasks was evident.


The Internet is overwhelming and the quality is often inconsistent. Information is not knowledge and in a social studies classroom teachers demonstrate and encourage critical thinking skills to create knowledge. As well as the quality of the knowledge to be gained by the Internet, the issues of pedagogy appropriate for the use of the Internet classes and the increased importance of the skill of evaluation of web sites are of importance when assessing the value of the Internet in class. The author lists some valuable Internet sites such as the Kathy Schrock site which has web-site evaluation forms (**http://school.discovery.com/schrockguide/eval.html**), problem-solving sites such as the WebQuest site (**http://edweb.sdsu.edu/webquest/webquest.html**) and pen pal sites such as **http://www.epals.com**.
Global Education


Banks argues that students find it difficult to view themselves as members of an international community. This is not only because such a community lacks effective governmental bodies, but also because there are very few heroes or heroines, myths, symbols, and school rituals designed to help students develop an attachment and identification with the global community. It is difficult to gain public support for a program on international education because parents and community members see it as an attempt to weaken national loyalty and undercut nationalism. It is seen as an add-on in an already crowded curriculum.


The core values of the draft curriculum framework for West Australian schools can be presented through a global education approach. Global education approaches stress the interconnectedness of places, events, issues and people of the planet; uses group work and cooperative learning to promote self-confidence; ensures that there is an observation of basic human rights; celebrates cultural diversity; and has a strong focus on the future.


Global education is about global concerns, the powerful and the powerless, critical awareness and participation. It includes development education, human rights education, environmental education, peace education and multicultural education. Authors argue that poetry should be used more frequently in our classrooms because it engages students in the emotions of the subject matter.


A global economy is one where strategic core activities, including innovation, finance and corporate management, function on a planetary scale on real time. Two of the main bases of globalisation are information and innovation, both of which are highly knowledge intensive. It would be assumed that globalisation would have a profound effect on the transmission of knowledge but education in classrooms in all countries appears to have changed very little. Argues that the decentralisation of educational administration and finance seems to have little or no effect on educational delivery in classrooms. Globalisation puts a growing premium on the individual’s ability to get and interpret information. Testing is used more to justify financially-driven reform rather than school improvement. Argues that nation states have more political space to develop alternatives in schooling than ideologues of globalisation allow.

The world is ecologically one world and the need to consider the future from a worldwide perspective is reinforced whatever environmental-ecological problem we tackle. Argues that it is not enough to act locally but there is a need to examine wider issues such as being sure that environmental organisations act in a democratic manner, that issues of the social environmental, not just nature and wildlife issues, are examined and that people in areas like peace education have a contribution to make to the environmental movement.


‘Global education, along with multicultural education, seeks to promote understanding, empathy and solidarity with the patterns of life experienced by societies different from our own’ (p 128). It is intended to be value-laden and often emphasises inequality in third world countries. Calder and Smith (1992) argue that it is about development education, human rights education, environmental education, peace education and multicultural education.


There are common challenges or issues for countries as a result of global change. They include:
- the rapid movement of people within and across national boundaries
- a growing recognition of the rights of indigenous peoples and minorities
- the collapse of political structures and birth of new ones
- the changing role of women in society
- the impact of the global economy and changing patterns of work
- the effect of a revolution in information and communications technologies
- an increasing global population
- the creation of new forms of community.


Daily contact is now based on association with people from diverse ethnic, linguistic, socioeconomic and gender backgrounds. Social science curriculum needs to take account of this. But distinctions need to be made between ‘international’ and ‘global’ education.


Points out that although much has been said about incorporating global perspectives in education there have been few studies of how teachers do this in practice. Global education emphasises interconnectedness. Many aspects of the social studies curriculum (technology, ecology, economics) can be studied as part of global
community. Cultural universals and cultural differences can be examined from a global perspective. Students also grow to realise that decisions made in their community affect the larger world beyond their community. In the affective domain tolerance and appreciation of cultural differences are heightened by global education. This research involved classroom observations of teachers of different levels of experience who were attempting to introduce a global perspective to their teaching. All groups emphasised:

- The importance of providing multiple perspectives and conflicting viewpoints on issues and people under study. They also stressed the value of tolerance, respect and cooperation.
- The view that global content should be connected to students’ lives and interests.
- Linkages across world cultures and time periods.

Exemplary global educators emphasised:

- The privileges Americans had compared to other countries and taught about inequities in technology, mortality rates, education, civil and human rights, distribution of capital and so on.
- The importance of cross-cultural experiential learning
- A thematic approach bringing together a number of disciplines to instruct in global education
- Skills in higher level thinking and research
- The use of a variety of teaching strategies and instructional resources.


The next major focus for education is the move from the national to an international or global focus where issues that affect us all, literacy, health, the environment, welfare and wealth are tackled at the global level. To have a global focus all people on the globe must have the skills and attitudes. A catchcry for the third Millenium will be ‘Think and Act both Locally and Globally’. Three major challenges for schools to fulfil their potential in the future:

- To develop a curriculum that is appropriate to a rapidly changing, increasingly complex, highly multicultural and diverse society.
- To engage every student in their learning
- To try and make every person in the school community a learner, a teacher and a leader.


Assesses international education (seen as an integration of disciplines within development, environment and violence studies) as a discipline and outlines a global security framework of relevant themes that could be covered. Points out that ensuring human survival could be adopted within international education as a framework to provide a clear sense of direction.
Multicultural/Intercultural Education


As soon as we talk of a better world we are discussing values. Probably the two values that command the widest respect are **justice** and **compassion**. These imply two other values – **tolerance** and **unselfishness**. The outcome of applying these 4 values would be the achievement of a further value-**harmony**. Argues that the Universal Declaration of Human rights is the best summary to date of principles embodying justice and compassion towards humankind. To cross barriers of cultural differences we should read as much imaginative literature as possible. Argues that there are four categories of books to read — the liberal, the border-crossing, the foreign translation and the reformist.


Book that defines the goals of multicultural education and covers different aspects of multicultural education including culture, ethnicity, cultural identity, disability, giftedness and gender. It provides ideas for teaching decision-making and taking social action and provides useful curriculum guidelines for multicultural education. Multicultural education is the term used most frequently in the US, Australia, the United Kingdom and Canada. However the term intercultural education is frequently used on the European continent. Those who use the term intercultural education contend that intercultural education implies an education that promotes interaction among different cultures whereas multicultural education does not.

The goal of multicultural education is to reform schools, colleges and universities so that students from diverse racial, ethnic and social class groups will experience educational equality. Multicultural education theorists are increasingly interested in how the interaction of race, class and gender influence education. Approaches to multicultural programs seem to fall into one of four levels:

Level 1: The **Contributions** approach which focuses on heroes or holidays or other discrete cultural elements

Level 2: The **Additive** approach where multicultural concepts themes and perspectives are added to the curriculum without changing its structure.

Level 3 The **Transformation** approach where the curriculum is changed to enable students to view concepts, issues, event and themes from the perspective of diverse ethnic and cultural groups

Level 4 The **Social Action** approach where students make decisions on important social issues and take actions to solve them.


Report of a four-year project where research into multicultural education was synthesised. The group offered twelve principles to develop a democratic and pluralistic society:

- Teachers’ professional development should help teachers uncover and identify personal attitudes toward racial, ethnic, language and cultural groups; acquire knowledge about their histories and cultures and diverse perspectives; understand
principles of institutional racism; and be able to institute equity pedagogy. The latter includes using knowledge of their students’ culture and ethnicity to guide inquiry.

- Schools should provide equitable opportunities to learn.
- Students should be assisted to realise that all knowledge is socially constructed.
- All students should be able to participate in extracurricular and co-curricular activities that develop academic skills and foster positive interracial relationships.
- Schools should foster groups to improve intergroup relations.
- Students should learn about stereotyping and other biases that have negative effects on racial and ethnic relations.
- Students need to learn about values shared by all groups.
- Students should learn social skills to interact effectively with members of another culture.
- Students from different racial, ethnic, cultural and language groups should be able to interact socially without fear.
- The organisation of the school should be collaborative.
- Public schools should be funded equitably.
- Assessment should be culturally sensitive — a single method of assessment will probably further disadvantage students from particular social classes and ethnic groups.

‘Students must be competent in intergroup and civic skills if they are to function effectively in today’s complex and ethnically polarised nation and world’ (p 201).

**Banks, J A and McGee Banks, C A, (1997), Multicultural Education. Issues and Perspectives, Boston: Allyn and Bacon.**

Multicultural education emerged from diverse courses, programs and practices that educational institutions devised to respond to demands, needs and aspirations of various groups. It must be viewed as an ongoing process and its goals will never be fully realised. Sections of the book cover social class and religion, gender, race, ethnicity and language, exceptionality and school reform.

**Bennett, C, (1999), Comprehensive Multicultural Education: Theory and Practice, Boston: Allyn and Bacon.**

Multicultural education can be defined as:

‘An approach to learning and teaching that is based upon democratic values and beliefs, and affirms cultural pluralism with culturally diverse societies and an interdependent world. It is based on the assumption that the primary goal of public education is to foster the intellectual, social and personal development of virtually all students to their highest potential. Multicultural education is comprised of four interactive dimensions: the movement toward equity, curriculum reform, the process of becoming interculturally competent and the commitment to combat prejudice and discrimination, especially racism’ (p 11).


Report on 1998-99 Strategic Results Projects, projects promoted by the Commonwealth Department of Education, Training and Youth Affairs to improve
Indigenous students’ learning outcomes. It was found that there were three important principles identified as common in successful projects. These were:

**Culture**
The need to provide flexible arrangements for groups, to involve high levels of involvement by Indigenous peoples in management and delivery of education and the need to teach Indigenous languages.

**Skills**
Need to improve skills in Standard English, to improve cultural relevance of curriculum to students’ lives and to improve the variety of teaching practices including small group cooperative learning situations.

**Participation**
Increased participation (including the use of mentoring) from local Indigenous communities particularly at key periods before school entry and during the middle secondary years.


Argues that teachers are a crucial link between the rhetoric of Reconciliation and the reality of ‘a vision fulfilled’. Burridge argues that the key issues are:

- understanding the importance of the land in Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander societies
- valuing Indigenous cultures as a valued part of Australian heritage
- sharing histories
- developing a greater awareness of the causes of disadvantage among Indigenous Australians
- developing greater opportunities for Indigenous Australians to control their destinies.

**Cairns, J, Lawton, D and Gardner, R (eds), (2001), Values, Culture and Education, London: Kogan Page.**

A comparative study of education in response to globalisation. The contributors focus on trends in the latter part of the Twentieth Century with a particular emphasis on values and culture in education. For all the debate about civics education the conclusion of this work is that in many countries schools are repressive and authoritarian institutions that allow little active participation by pupils. A higher stage of education, however, has seen authorities talk of ‘self-directed education’. A particular danger confronting education leaders is an obsession with international economic comparisons with an intendant concern to vocationalise the curriculum.


This is the third volume in a series published by the Graduate School of Education at the University of Queensland. The idea is to present some of the latest research papers to inform teaching practice. The papers attempt to ‘imagine’ the role of education as a result of globalisation, with case studies on citizenship education, the role of the Internet, oral assessment tasks and the Primary Classroom.

Traces issues in Intercultural Education (religion, linguistic diversity, values, nation state), regional contexts (Commonwealth of Independent States, the Pacific Rim, Latin America, Council of Europe) and national case studies. The authors conclude that we entered a ‘new barbarism’ at the end of the millennium as ethnic violence replaced class struggle. Intercultural education can play an invaluable role in building a civic culture by developing a shared value system and social cohesion. In complex societies attempts to erase autonomous cultures do not enhance unity, but new paradigms are needed in schools to balance shared values and local identities. Intercultural education is a new field and has yet to develop a systematic analytical perspective.


A selection of teaching and learning materials, resource sheets and strategies for developing a whole-school approach.


A wide collection of essays designed to promote Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Studies. Essays include those on Terra nullius, community consultation, teaching activities, revising Australian History, Reconciliation and racism.


Argues for a descriptive curriculum that is mindful of colonial legacies and challenges taken-for-granted assumptions in present curriculum. Suggests that the responses to racism and inequality in schooling through multiculturalism, Aboriginal and Indigenous Studies and even anti-racism are too narrow to adequately tackle the composite legacies of colonialism. Postcolonialism is a revisiting of many cultural artifacts and involves ‘interrogating the strength of western cultural discourse’. Argues that there should be a nexus between history, place and knowledge.


See above.


Article discusses the contemporary pedagogical practice of granting ‘voice’ to people of Asian background in Australian curricular contexts. Argued that there are
significant disadvantages of having minority groups speak of personal experiences of being torn between two cultures when other students are secure within the majority culture. It does nothing to address relations of power and control and does not address ways in which ethnic Australians, and all Australians for that matter, actively construct identity. They do not argue that it should never occur but that teachers need to be critical of why and how they construct racial and ethnic categories.


Args that the ethical climate of the 80s in the business world was ugly but points out that in other areas such as aid workers, volunteer workers and teachers as well as eco-tourists, there have been groups of humane and idealistic groups who are ethical. Points out that our engagement in Asia began in the 60s. There are a number of ethical dimensions in Australia’s engagement with Asian countries-global, community, personal, interpersonal, cultural, social, economic and temporal (see Stephen Fitzgerald’s article below).


Traces the Indigenous people of the earth and assesses the commonality of experiences and the resulting issues that confront International agencies. Concludes that the march of globalisation has resulted in the need for Indigenous peoples to transcend their parochial experiences and to pool their efforts.


Args that there are two visions of multicultural education. One is a vision that emphasises cultural and ethnic differences and the nation’s failures to live up to our ideals, and the other accentuates what Americans have in common and the positive evolution of a diverse society. Argues that many multicultural specialists are substantially to the left of social studies teachers, are critical of traditional American values of individualism and capitalism and argue that knowledge is not neutral but reflects power and social relationships within society. The author argues that there is greater inclusion and legal protection for minorities in the US now than ever before and that the values of individualism and capitalism are positive influences in the battle against racism. Postmodernism is a serious challenge to disciplines such as history and the social sciences.


Points out that the 1980s period of Australian involvement in Asia, which is when all this interest was at a high point, was a period of greed and the people leading the push really had no knowledge of or intellectual interest in the countries they visited. Argues that social education negates the idea of in-depth studies of Asian countries which is really needed. Until very recently there has been no engagement with the whole region and no place for discovery and exploration of values, ethical issues and matters
of belief associated with Asia. Argues for political leadership in regard to Asia and the need to ensure in our schools that there is a depth of learning and knowledge about moral and ethical codes and standards. Sees the issue of Asia as assisting Australians to examine our identity and to examine our conscience.


Argues that the most important crisis for multicultural education is the growing discrepancy between multicultural theory and actual classroom practice. The theory is quite complex but the most lessons taught are ‘questionable, simplistic and fragmentary’. Suggests a developmental approach to multicultural infusion.


Interviewed students about their perceptions of what Australian identity meant to them. Students adopted a practical approach and listed things that are uniquely associated with Australia and things that have come to be used in the wider culture to signify Australia in such things as advertisements and films. Authors argued that children may be beginning to adopt new forms of national identity involving easy slippage between local, national and international.


There are differences in the area of discrimination in education reflected in the terminology used. English speaking researchers tend to use the terms ‘anti-racist’ and ‘multicultural’ while non-English speaking European educators used the term ‘intercultural’. The term ‘ethnic minority’ is also a term about which there is little clarification. ‘The term “multicultural” is increasingly being seen to reflect the nature of societies and used in descriptive terms, while the term “intercultural” is indicative of the interactions, negotiations and processes’ (p 224). Anti-racism activities are subsumed beneath issues of intercultural education.

Most research and teaching in the area has been informed by experience teaching immigrant children, particularly in the area of language. This research has been problem-solving in nature and has little academic underpinning. The article points to a number of areas that require further research. Some questions are:

• Why do groups with different family structures, language and religions to the dominant groups perform better in the education system?
• Why does racism seem to function differently in different countries?
• How do immigrant groups change their identity over time?

Argues that separate schools do not assist in bringing about intercultural understandings and there is an urgent need to develop common and shared core civic values with the public domain.

Here Gundara argues that educators need to appraise their curricula, particularly their history curricula, to ascertain the degree to which it conveys a Eurocentric tradition. There is little acknowledgement of the contribution of other groups — ‘discourses from the colonised peripheries are still being treated as marginal in contemporary Europe’ (p71). He argues that European countries need to be constantly reappraising national identities and national histories and developing investigations of connections with other cultures and civilisations.


The Valuing Diversity in Schools program was instituted in a number of schools in the US to directly address racism, sexism, classism, and other barriers to student achievement. Schools have not been able to provide anti-discrimination education for schools and provide appropriate strategies for students who do not respond to the ‘normal’ instruction. Most efforts are separate and unconnected and leave classroom teachers without systemic or administrative support necessary to sustain classroom innovation and multi-cultural education. When the focus is only on the classroom the attendant issues are not addressed, such as assessment and grouping, school values and norms, parent involvement, staff development and other policy concerns. The Valuing Diversity in Schools program uses the resources of the whole community and the entire school community (not just the professionals) in examining the need to value diversity and cater for it in a myriad of ways.


Argues that the drive for economic rationalism militates against the possibility of placing the responsibility for Aboriginal education into the hands of the Aboriginal people.


Gives an historical background to Aboriginal policies and policies associated with multicultural education. The 1983 Multicultural Education Policy Statement and Support Documents and the resultant National Advisory and Coordinating Committee on Multicultural Education led to the development of many teaching resources dealing with lifestyles and cultures of Australian ethnic groups. There have been three main criticisms of teaching materials produced in this period:
• Implementation of multicultural perspectives was commonly tokenistic with ‘national days’ and traditional food, dress, music and dance. These sorts of activities ignored the adaptive and evolutionary nature of the group’s culture in Australia.

• Curriculum implementation across the country was uncoordinated and unsystematic and many of the resources produced lacked professionalism.

• Emphasis on culture ignored the structural underpinnings of racism in Australian society.

The diversity of ethnic groups in Australia has meant that community languages are mainly taught out of school hours and most teachers, mainly Anglo-Australians, know little about the various ethnic groups in Australia. Thus there is uneven performance of NESB students. There is also a substantial lower performance for Aboriginal students in education although participation in tertiary education has substantially increased. Difficulties associated with the promotion of intercultural education in Australia are that the curriculum is crowded and that there appears to be no niche for intercultural education to fit neatly within. Conceptually also intercultural education and multicultural education are sometimes used interchangeably and sometimes seen as subsets of each other and part of anti-racist education. The authors also discuss the role of teacher education courses in this area.


Points to the value of anthropology in teaching diverse cultural groups – ‘to teach students about the reality and significance of human diversity’ (p 225). Argues that anthropology provides students with basic knowledge about self-identity and the role of acculturation and assimilation while validating their connection to historical ancestral roots. Program established work stations at the Center for Human Origin and Cultural Diversity and used a variety of student-centred activities to explore species diversity and commonality including work on skin colour.


Multiculturalism is used as a goal, a concept, an attitude, a strategy and a value associated with demographic changes that are occurring in Western societies. These societies have experienced immigration and various movements of racial and gender awareness. The term is associated with responses to racial, socio-economic class, gender, language, culture, sexual preference and disability-related diversity. There are differing approaches to multicultural education:

• Conservative multiculturalism/monoculturalism
• Liberal multiculturalism
• Pluralist multiculturalism
• Left-essentialist multiculturalism
• Critical multiculturalism.

The authors advocate critical multiculturalism. This involves a deep understanding of how diversity in society is portrayed but also explores how the different aspects of diversity are conceptualised and how this is related to social justice and hegemonic processes in the wider society.

Suggestions for teachers to rethink the ways they teach about race, class and gender:
- Have students grapple with the complexity of the construct of race
- Have students juxtapose race and ethnicity
- Have students observe and discuss how race, class and gender affect them on a personal level
- Study the multiple effects of race, class and gender through biography and fiction
- Work deliberately to unlearn racism, sexism and classism.


A comparison of multicultural politics in the United States, Australia and Canada. Argues that the United States could learn a lot from the federal multicultural policies of Canada and Australia where multicultural discourse aims at effective respect for difference rather than the US focus on assimilation.


In Canada a multicultural policy came into existence in 1971 and emphasised unity in diversity or ‘cultural mosaic’ as opposed to ‘American melting pot’. The 1988 Canadian Multiculturalism Act indicated that attention had moved away from preservation of cultures toward ‘full participation’, antiracism and institutional adaption to diversity. It was aimed at the whole population – not just ethnic communities. The provinces retain the responsibility for education and only four provinces have adopted a policy for multicultural/intercultural education although most have broad policies accommodating this policy. The range of policies reflect the evolution of approaches to multicultural/intercultural education over time:
- **Compensatory trend** where linguistic and cultural differences were seen to be handicaps to be overcome and compensated for
- **Cultural awareness trend** where cultural diversity is promoted as a reality to be learned and respected and which aims to develop tolerance and respect for other cultures
- **A heterocentric trend** which aims at ensuring that different ethnocultural communities are included in the curriculum
- **An isolationist trend** where schools protect and maintain cultural identity, eg schools for official language minorities or aboriginal students.
- **An antiracist trend** which has as its objective the elimination of racism and systemic discrimination based on ethnocultural differences
- **A cooperative education trend** where interpersonal relations are encouraged to transcend ethnocultural differences
- **A civic education trend** where citizenship education is the main goal and efforts are made to teach students to act as equal citizens in a pluralist society.
None of these trends are considered exclusive. Discussion over whether to use ‘multicultural’ or ‘intercultural’ to describe practice has diminished as there seems to be recognition that there are more similarities than differences between the two.


Some branches of Asian studies have served to define Australia and Asia as different in some fundamental sense. The Asian economic imperative approach has tended to remove itself from the other multicultural approaches and pedagogies. ‘Some Asian studies documents seem to imagine an Australia still British and learning about foreigners…it would be wiser to build on the domestic modelling of Australia’s interactions with Asia which are the lived experiences of our major cities’ (p 58). Asia-literacy raises questions of Australian identity, inevitably plural and multi-vocal.

**Lovat, Terrence and McGrath, John, (2001), New Studies in Religion, Katoomba: Social Science Press.**

A book that traces the characteristics and types of religion and explores issues such as religion and the media, religion and ethics, the role of women and religious rites. The section on Australia deals with Aboriginal belief systems, colonial religious practice, state aid, social welfare, women and the development of religious plurality.


The authors set out to address the inadequate accommodation of social equity with cultural diversity. Themes include teaching for human rights, political education and global citizenship, peace education, minority rights. Generally social educators need to be accurately informed about the dimensions of prejudice and intolerance and ‘get off the fence’ in the classroom.

**McConaghy, Cathryn, (2000), Rethinking Indigenous Education: Culturalism, Colonialism and the Politics of Knowing, Flaxton: Post Pressed.**

The book traces the development of Indigenous education and argues that culture has been used to perpetuate racism in Australia.


Although multiculturalism developed out of the civil rights movements of the 1960s and was primarily concerned with issues of racial and ethnic diversity, it has broadened as a movement to include diversity in gender, class and sexual orientation. This article argues that the restructuring of capitalism on a global basis is an explanatory premise for inequity and should be one of the considerations of multicultural education. They argue that most attempts at multicultural education
actually reconfirm existing power relations of power and privilege. ‘Whiteness needs to be recognised and acted upon by multicultural educators as a cultural disposition and an ideology linked to specific political, social and historical arrangements’ (p 37).


Argues for the need to account for the exploitation of people of colour in materialist, historical and global terms. Argues that white ethnic identity centres on privileges that European Americans enjoy as a result of a pervasive white supremacist ideology and practice. Students need to understand the social construction of whiteness.


‘Multicultural education assumes that the future of our society is pluralistic’ (p 333). Other terms often used similarly are multiethnic, cultural diversity, cultural pluralism and global interculturalism. Since the 1980s multicultural education has broadened its focus to include concern for marginalised groups such as females and recent immigrants. All assume that this form of education is a process. Concepts integral to multicultural studies are culture, ethnicity, race, ethnocentrism, prejudice and pluralism. There are five different approaches to multicultural education:

- A human relations approach geared to increasing student sensitivity toward others
- An approach catering for minority groups focusing upon aspects such as self-esteem
- A separate multicultural subject
- Multicultural orientations in mainstream teaching units
- Mainstream units which include a major transformative orientation and which focus on social justice. A culturally responsive teaching style needs to be adopted.

Useful approaches include:

- inquiry
- role-playing
- cooperative learning
- literature-based activities
- story-writing.

http://www.curriculum.edu.au/mceetya/adeldec.htm;

Principles include:

‘Schooling acknowledges the capacity of all young Indigenous people to learn by providing a curriculum which:
is free from the negative forms of discrimination based on sex, language, cultures and ethnicity, religion or disability; and of differences arising from Indigenous students’ social-economic background or geographic isolation.

allows Indigenous students to share in the same educational opportunities experienced by other Australian students and at the same time allows them to be strong in their own culture and language and reposition their cultures, languages, historic beliefs and lifestyles in a way which affirms identity and the ability to operate in cross-cultural situations.

supports all students to understand and acknowledge the value of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander cultures to Australian society and possess the knowledge, skills and understanding to contribute to, and benefit from, reconciliation between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians.’

In the model of more culturally inclusive and educationally effective schools espoused in this report some suggestions as to curriculum were made:

A successful approach to the teaching and learning of Indigenous students needs to be integral to the implementation of a dynamic and responsive curriculum that contributes to the development of essential knowledge, skills and attitudes in all students and builds on their capacity to view the world critically and to act independently, cooperatively and responsibly.

The introduction of a new approach needs to respond directly to the needs, interests, and concerns of students with appropriate use of explicit teaching, self-directed learning and emerging technologies. Any new approach needs to be congruent with the prevailing curriculum and standards framework of the system and with student/parent/care-giver/teacher/community expectations.’


The South Australian Ministerial Advisory Committee sought to evaluate a number of projects designed to counter racism. The report evaluates the perceptions of Aboriginal students, curriculum issues, the role of the Arts, whole-school approaches. The latter puts a premium on school-based research into the local community, parent and student profiles, the historical setting and economic circumstances.


Argues that the multicultural movement has essentially ignored religion. In examining national standards he points out that religion is only mentioned in the history and civics standards. Apart from ignoring religion it is also the case that often students are taught everything that stands in tension with religious alternatives (eg teaching economics as a value-free science).


‘Literacy education plays a major part in maintaining the given hegemony, unless it makes constant, conscious efforts to build counter-hegemony. Asia-literacy is no
exception’ (p 72). Need to counter the idea of essentialism where categories are established and people are defined as part or not part of that category. There is a need to represent the multiplicity of a subject. In the case of Japan there is a need to examine such things as women’ studies, indigenous studies, studies of Koreans in Japan.


The publication of the Macpherson Report of the Stephen Lawrence inquiry in 1999 led politicians to acknowledge institutional racism in British society. It is now officially recognised that racism operates to restrict the citizenship rights of minorities and undermines the principles of democracy. The European Commission looked explicitly at citizenship programs to challenge racism but the Crick Report makes no mention of European initiatives. Encouragement of tolerance is not sufficient. Current citizenship education projects must promote a vision of a multicultural society based on principles of human rights and equal rights for all. Citizens need to understand racism, how it has operated in the past, its current and changing forms, and examples of how individuals and groups have successfully struggled to overcome it.


A series of articles with a critical view on multicultural education. The first section of the book considers the need to widen the multicultural debate to issues of religion, class and power in our society. The latter part of the book examines the political nature of bilingual education.

Partington, G, (1998), Perspectives on Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Education, Katoomba: Social Science Press.

The authors trace Indigenous Education and changing educational practices. Themes and issues include Aboriginal identity, gender, language, culture and pedagogy. There is a valuable section on classroom practices, curriculum issues and assessment. Concludes that schools are strongly assimilationist and that there is a danger that Aboriginal students will have to trade their heritage for educational success.


The Aboriginal Studies curricula being implemented in Australian schools have three aims:
• to raise the self concept of Aboriginal people
• to improve the educational outcomes for Aboriginal students
• to change the attitudes of non-Aboriginals towards Aboriginal people.
He argues that the likelihood of achievement of the last aim by developing an understanding of values, languages, history and so on will be inhibited by the racism that the programs are trying to eliminate. The Royal Commission into Aboriginal Deaths in Custody (1991a) pointed to institutional racism but also individual racism can be observed in our schools. This racism comes from the home, the peer group, the media and the community.

Argues that a white cultural ideology of dominance persists in schools and that there is a need to make Whites aware of their own cultural identity and the values associated with that identity. Argues that the comment by many teachers that ‘I don’t see colour, I treat all my students the same’ simply perpetuates the myth.


The national Principles and guidelines for Aboriginal Studies and Torres Strait Islander Studies K-12 recommend three approaches for Aboriginal studies and Torres Strait Islander Studies:
- Discrete course/subjects
- Units within other subjects
- Across the curriculum.

There are a number of teaching approaches:
- The museum or tea towel approach which does not address contemporary issues such as those associated with cultural contact
- The case studies approach
- The social concepts approach
- The social issues approach
- The perspective approach.


Discusses the issues associated with the link between education and citizenship. Points out that discussion of citizenship can be found in classical literature of early Greek philosophers such as Plato and Aristotle. Kant argued that a citizen needs constitutional freedom, civil equality and political independence to be a citizen. In many countries, including Australia, active citizenship is suggested. This is taken to mean formal knowledge about the political system, voting in elections, and participation in community voluntary associations. The simple act of voting is the minimal requirement for active citizenship. There are issues associated with areas of active citizenship such as protest, including activities such as signing petitions and the more extreme forms of protest such as demonstrations. Studies demonstrated that the link between civics and political activism was not related to academic performance but to the type of engagement the student had with the school. Students who talked more with their teachers and who liked school were more likely to participate in legitimate forms of activism. An education program intended to produce a politically active citizenry is a very complex matter. Teaching young people to be active citizens may lead them to oppose the government of tomorrow and may lead to political activity that can range from legal to illegal. Inglehart (1996) found that respect for authority had declined in the advanced industrial societies between the 1980s and the early 1990s. The social groups with the lowest respect for authority were those who
were younger, with higher levels of education, with post-materialist values. The content of the civics or citizenship education curricula will reflect the construction of the political structure of society held by the social group that is dominant in that society. There is a need for citizenship education to provide students with critical insights so they can avoid being manipulated by a dominant political ideology.


Argues that teaching only about cultural differences is not enough. At worst there is a danger of stereotyping. The object for social educators is to build bridges and to experience similarities. Practical tips include the use of real-life examples, children’s literature and proverbs.


Suggests that Australian curriculum statements seem to portray an essentialist, fixed picture of our identity. Argues that it is important to bring within the curriculum marginalised presences that have figured prominently in the development of Australianness — women, Aboriginals and ethnic minorities.


Asia-literacy is grounded in anxieties about Australia’s future, the effects of global restructuring and the need to reform relations with Asia. However because it is currently chiefly grounded in economic arguments it invites teachers to focus on the new industrialising countries of Asia and to ignore the poorer nations and the marginal groups such as women. There is also the danger that liberal critical pedagogies are not used and the colonialist orientalist thinking is implemented when considering Asia — homogeneity, negativity, inferiority, cultural and racial hierarchies, exotica and erotica. There is a tension in Australia-Asia relations between economic desires and racist and sexist fears. Raises a number of important curriculum questions.


Australia’s multicultural achievement has been greatest in the area of political democracy where newcomers have been accepted into citizenship, Australian-born children are automatically given citizenship, and there is little political friction between various communities despite their ethno-cultural background. In the area of cultural democracy multiculturalism has sought to develop an overarching framework of Australian values in which ethnic identity can be maintained. In this framework race and religion remain outside and do not count in the criteria by which people are judged to be Australian.
The term ‘state’ refers to the political and legal dimensions of managing the resources of a country. The term ‘nation’ is collectively identified with a range of cultural values reflective of its past and an influence on its present and future. A nation can be separated from its state. Only a few states can claim the status of nation-state (Japan, Iceland, Korea, Portugal) although often the dominant culture of a particular state may perceive this differently. Argues that in Australia there is a need for intercultural education but at this point of time Australia is a model for the world of political and cultural democracy.


The Ministerial Council on Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs (MCEETYA) 1999, *Adelaide Declaration on National Goals for Schooling in the Twenty-First Century* is the first occasion on which Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people are mentioned in a highest level document. It clearly signifies the links between education and employment by goals of varying education pathways, vocational education, links with business and industry, literacy and numeracy. Argues for the need to protect the uniqueness of the local economic, political and cultural dimensions in a global world.


‘If we take the word “culture” to denote the meanings and understandings which are learned, shared and evolve in groups, then intercultural education should be constructed in such a way as to create an environment in which it is possible, even desirable, to accept other’s cultures, ethnicities and communities’ (p 61). Intercultural education has been a recent evolution in the search to provide equality of opportunity for all students and appears to be supplanting multicultural and anti-racist education. Intercultural education involves an appreciation of diversity with a view to enhancing opportunity for all by adopting a critical approach to cultural bias, racism and stereotyping. Culture involves ideas, values, attitudes and behaviours and is a dynamic process. Intercultural education encourages students to accept and understand the cultural process and cultural continuity of views, values and behaviours differing from their own, within a framework of national identity.


Danger that children’s education will be mediated through technology controlled by corporations and driven by moral agendas of globalisation. Core issues for a civilised society:

- tolerance
- belief in a world community with a recognition of, and delight in, difference
- the just treatment of all peoples
• respect for all
• intellectual freedom.

‘If we are concerned about the promotion of values and attitudes that will help to make the world a better place to live in, then the quality of the interaction is more important than the knowledge and skills imparted’ (p 337).

**Watts, R and Smolicz, J (eds), (1997), Cultural Democracy and Ethnic Pluralism, Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang.**

This book is based on a conference held in Adelaide by the Centre for Intercultural Studies and Multicultural Education. Deals with the issues of cultural democracy in pluralist societies, various aspects of ethnic and migrant phenomena, and linguistic diversity and education policies.


The key issues in designing studies of Asia are that:
- Promoting intercultural understanding should be the guiding principle
- There are Asian and Australian interests to be negotiated
- The interests of Australians of Asian descent also need to be negotiated
- Studies of Asia is based on a broad interpretation of social education
- The current organisation of subjects as discrete entities in schools limits a comprehensive disciplinary and cross-disciplinary understanding of Asia and must be changed.

Values are very important in the process of learning about Asia and students should learn from as well as about Asia. Technology is a useful tool and values will determine the information that students will access.


Reviewed articles in the journal Multicultural Education and found the key issues in multicultural education were:
- Culture wars–what is knowledge? Should we teach a common unifying narrative, or the contributions of minorities, or an activist approach towards social justice?
- Critical theory and critiques of capitalist social relations and how this affects multicultural education
- The role of transformative multicultural education for social action
- The nature of white privilege and racism
- The anti-bias curriculum and teaching
- The role of cultural and historical perspectives
- The nature of cultural pluralism
- Promising practices such as examining controversial issues from multiple perspectives and using literature to explore different cultural viewpoints.

Argues that the use of liberal inclusivist pedagogies in Studies of Asia, characterised by identification of appropriate knowledge and skills and then locating these in the curriculum, can lead to orientalism and that some forms of Asian knowledge will be privileged over other forms. Author points out that even critical pedagogies are motivated by issues such as equity, social justice, democracy and versions of citizenship which may not be the viewpoint of Asian writers or critical theorists.


Reports on an ethnographic study of elementary and secondary classrooms teaching about cultural conflict. The author argues that a critical multicultural social studies must focus on actions and interactions between diverse groups in order to address institutional racism, structural inequality and power relations in society. This would provide students with an alternative to ‘white guilt’ and provide opportunities for students to actively work for social change.


Asks whether schools should:

- present common narratives of a celebratory Western history and civilisation or
- include the contributions of those who have mostly been omitted (usually women and minorities) and/or
- participate in struggles for cultural justice and the advancement of civil rights and democratic public life?

The authors suggest a common narrative, centred around various cultural groups in a struggle for civil rights.


This book arose from a series of meetings arranged by the European Union and the Council of Europe. The concerns were to explore the nature of intercultural studies on a European-wide basis with a focus on developing mutual understanding between nations, societies and cultural groups, to lessen tensions and to promote equal opportunities and individual rights within multicultural societies. Modern societies have to come to terms with the fact that in this age of mass communication cultural and social differences exemplified in nation-states can no longer be kept separate. Notions of self and identity are challenged in a world of changing and flexible borders. This has an impact on notions of citizenship.
Multicultural education arises from the presence of children from minority groups in Western schools and a need to provide special treatment to reduce failure of these students in school, to assist them to appreciate their own culture and to integrate them into the ‘host’ culture. The hidden concept of multiculturalism is that individuals are not only different by also unequal — the idea being that some cultures are not valid for school and social success. There are five basic groups of practices associated with multiculturalism:

1. **Cultural assimilation**
   Developed as a result of recurrent academic failure of pupils from minority groups

2. **Cultural understanding**
   The goal is to value the cultural richness of diversity: education about cultural differences.

3. **Cultural pluralism**
   Preservation and extension of pluralism.

4. **Bicultural education**
   Intended to make individuals competent in two cultures. It rejects assimilation.

5. **Social transformation**
   Designed to develop the awareness of students, parents and communities about socioeconomic conditions to enable them to engage in social actions based on a critical understanding of reality.

There two trends at the moment. One tends to make absolute local regional and national cultures. On the other hand there is a trend which homogenises and standardises culture under the influence and interests of trans-national industries. Educational institutions should encourage a third trend: ‘alternative knowledge’. This is when where multicultural education empowers social reflection on ‘self-comprehension by human groups and of self-criticism about their own cultural forms both traditional and modern, in order to improve their life conditions, and to strengthen their cultural identity through the recognition and acceptance of cultural diversity’ (p 130). They argue that some distance may be needed to do this well.


A study of self-assessment of identity by urban youth in a Canadian high school. Identity was very complex involving race, ethnicity and popular culture. The names and categories invoked by these students were not fixed cultural markers but refer to sets of relationships between students and also relationships between representations of self, identity and culture. Indicates that identity is about cultures that individuals invest in and that these investments shift and change. Identity is also established in difference. The challenge for intercultural studies is how to engage the complexity, incoherence and incompleteness of cultures.
Current Issues


Argues that despite a long history of reformers advocating curriculum change with greater emphasis on in-depth study of public or controversial issues ‘a traditional, textbook-centred, fact-myth-legend approach to teaching history has continued to dominate the social studies curriculum’ (p 218). The subject matter in social studies remains relatively constant and controversial material and issues are de-emphasised or omitted. Secondary school teachers’ willingness to discuss controversial issues in the classroom varies according to the broader political culture at the time, the teachers’ experience (less experienced teachers are more willing), the teacher’s gender (slightly higher among males) and topic (sex-related subjects are most taboo). Has a list of what to do to when discussing controversial subjects.


This book gives an excellent overview of issues-based teaching. The sections of the book include the rationale for issues-based education, reflective teaching strategies, issues-based teaching in a variety of discipline areas, using issues to provide focus in the curriculum, and assessment and useful materials.


‘The purpose of issues-centred education is not just to raise the questions and expose students to them, but to teach students to offer defensible and intellectually well-grounded answers to these questions’ (p 2). The study of social issues is often more productively pursued through interdisciplinary and extradisciplinary inquiry (Wraga, 1993). Argues that there are four important principles associated with issues-centred curricula:

- Depth of understanding is more important than coverage and superficial exposure
- Topics and issues need to be connected through some kind of thematic, disciplinary, interdisciplinary or historical structure.
- The study of issues must be substantially grounded in challenging content.
- Students must experience influence and control in the inquiry process.

Teaching will be most effective in this area when:

- Issues are truly problematic even for the teacher.
- Multiple resources are used drawn from several disciplines and by taking a historical perspective.
- Students have continuous practice in using extended oral and written language.
- Classrooms convey a commitment to critical studies and a solid knowledge base.

Assessment should focus on arguments that students construct orally and in writing.

Issues-centred instruction encourages students to become more thoughtful about the way they view social life, engaging them in the challenges and dilemmas citizens confront. There is a long history to issues-centred instruction going back to Dewey. There have been a number of different approaches, from those where students simply chose interesting problems for investigation to more systematic approaches, some with a disciplinary focus and some with a ‘jurisprudential’ approach in which core social values were in conflict. Argues that there are three vital components to an issues-centred classroom. These are that students:

• study issues-centred content
• are in classrooms where discussions, research projects, debates and so on encourage them to consider differing views or interpretations of issues
• perceive the classroom climate to be supportive so they are comfortable in expressing their own views and considering those of others.

Issues-based teaching appears to be rare and most reports of social studies classrooms report textbook-dominated classrooms dominated by teacher talk, with some student recitation and devoid of controversial issues. However there is research to indicate that in social studies classrooms where there was discussion of controversial issues students had positive feelings towards their social studies classes and teachers, as opposed to negative feelings in mainstream social studies classrooms. Research such as that of Oliver and Shaver (1966) point to the value of issues-based teaching when developing critical analytic abilities. There is also research to indicate that open discussion in an issues-centred classroom can have positive civic outcomes with students developing:

• an interest in the political world
• a sense that they can have some influence on political decisions
• a belief that they have a duty to be actively involved in politics.

Issues-centred instruction also increased students’ knowledge of civil liberties and global-mindedness.


The September 11 attacks demonstrated how teachers in the US have become moderators rather than dispensers of knowledge. In many American classrooms the events were unfolding in front of them and teachers and students were together finding out about defence and foreign policy issues, adding to what they were seeing on their television screens. Some commentators argue that the attacks will mean a less critical view of American foreign policy and less peace and global education whereas others argue that there will need to be a more global focus in the curriculum.

Traces the often tense relationship between the vocational education movement and social studies in the US and calls for a new workplace paradigm, one based on the need to provide a wide variety of skills. These include interpersonal relations, problem-solving, organisational ability and accepting a sense of responsibility. But ultimately business interests are not the same as those of social educators.


Low-achieving classrooms are seen to be not suitable for issues-based instruction and these classes appear to offer passive drill and practice curriculum with more concrete structure and deductive modes of instruction. The authors found that many low-achieving adolescents valued the in-depth issues-based teaching. However they also found a number of obstacles needed to be overcome. There was a need to have a topic that grabbed student interest. The teachers had to develop structures that were manageable but also conveyed real understanding of content. These structures were difficult to put into practice because students were working from an insufficient knowledge base, were struggling to think critically, had a lack of discipline when working independently and required direct instruction in many areas. The authors argue that although this approach causes difficulties for teachers citizens require the ability to do these sorts of activities and that it is crucial that teachers persist.


Advocates realining the curriculum to include opportunities for students to examine the problems of society and to explore and devise possible solutions particularly in the middle school. Explored the idea of using snapshots from literature to explore current societal issues and then encourage students to read further to explore these issues more fully.


It is necessary for Australian students to engage with vital issues that affect Australia and the world. Suggests activities associated with famine in southern Sudan, children working, the use of landmines in war and caring for the earth as topics for engaging students in meaningful active citizenship.


There are a number of ways in which historically the curriculum has been organised around issues – the activity classroom, general education and by using the idea of a core curriculum where students could integrate and apply subject knowledge toward the resolution of personal-social problems. The key insights these ideas offer to the development of an issues-centred curriculum today are:

- The advantage of viewing the curriculum as a whole rather than simply as the sum of its parts
• The necessity of regarding curriculum development as a continuous process of improvement (rather than as a cyclical procedure designed largely to meet external mandates)
• The importance of substantive constituent participation in curriculum development, especially on the part of teachers
• The obligation to dignify the integrity of the individual learner in issues-focused curriculum and instruction.
Assessment and HSIE


Regular standardised tests measure the wrong things for future societies. For the new basics assessment must:
- revalue the professional judgement of teachers
- develop kinds of persons who relate to learning
- measure how you work with not knowing
- be about how you learn collaboratively in groups
- focus on dealing with change, diversity and unpredictability.

Excellent measures of the new basics are:
- Project assessment
- Performance assessment
- Group assessment
- Portfolio assessment.


Evaluates the Minnesota High standards (available at http://cfl.state.mn.us/GRAD/). The focus was on constructivist teaching and learning and authentic, performance-based assessment. Instruction, assessment and student performance are integrated into pedagogy. The focus is on inquiry and current issues and concerns. An important factor is teacher in-service, including links to universities and collaboration among colleagues.


Looks at the implementation of national standards in the US in the 1990s and concludes that relatively little is known about standards-based assessment in the social studies. The article also provides a survey of those states which have joined this program. The authors draw the not surprising conclusion that teachers have been teaching towards the tests.


This book is based on assessment of student learning in five American schools. The approach is to use a comprehensive range of assessments — ‘authentic assessment’ — an important factor in social science education. Rather than use simple multiple test type instruments, other approaches are seen as providing a far more effective assessment profile — essays, projects, portfolios, oral work, graphic presentations.

‘The standards movement is freezing out the possibility of a broad, reflective, and issues-centred social studies aimed at creating thoughtful citizenry’ (p 330). Argues that he has seen little evidence that the creation of standards and assessment measures has raised student performance. Points out that using social studies as a scapegoat for poor performance of US students on tests in history led to the revival of history, and the human capital emphasis in education agendas has led to favouring the matrix of history, geography and civics. He cites studies to indicate that international comparisons are unfair and that lower SAT tests are mainly because increased numbers of students were taking the tests. Argues that standards focus mainly on content knowledge and that they are used to qualify, classify and to punish. They also do not take into account the complex socioeconomic factors largely responsible for low student performance. He also decries the use of history as the core subject in the social sciences on the basis that:
- it is a conservative discipline
- it does not give voice to multicultural concerns
- it is insufficient to help explain all of what is needed in the social studies area of the curriculum, including interdisciplinary knowledge, and
- thoughtful decision-making for democratic citizenship needs to be informed by more than historical stories.


Challenges the hegemony in Britain of educational assessment — a ‘fundamentally modernist creation’ — on the basis of social cost. Educational assessment needs to be seen as much a social as a scientific activity. Concludes that assessment is largely formative.


According to Spady (1994) outcomes-based education can have two approaches – traditional/transitional and transformational. The traditional/transitional emphasises student mastery of traditional subject-related academic outcomes and some cross-discipline outcomes such as solving problems. The transformational outcomes involve long-term cross-curricular outcomes that are directly related to students’ future life roles. Spady and Killen argue that the latter are the important outcomes that school should address. There are four essential principles of OBE:
- Clarity of purpose
- Designing back
- High expectations
- Expanded opportunities.

Argues that in New South Wales many of the outcomes are traditional, some are transitional but most syllabuses do not explicitly encourage teachers to take a broader view of what they are teaching. Spady (1994) argues that there are ten categories of outcomes based on life performance roles. These are learner and thinker, listener and
communicator, implementer and performer, problem finder and solver, planner and designer, creator and producer, teacher and mentor, supporter and contributor, team member and partner, leader and organiser.

If teachers want all students to learn well and to achieve specific outcomes they must:

• prepare students adequately so they can succeed
• create a positive learning environment
• help students understand what they have to learn
• use a variety of methods of instruction
• provide students with sufficient opportunities to practice using the new knowledge and skills that they have gained
• help students bring each learning episode to a personal closure.

If whole-school approaches to OBE are guided by long term goals that are not subject specific then the program will need to be integrated or clustered using knowledge, skills and ways of thinking from various traditional subjects to help learners achieve outcomes. Outcomes selected would need to be organised in a way so that the essential conceptual and thematic integrity of particular learning areas is not lost. This could be done by having a primary focus on one or more learning areas but also drawing on specific outcomes, content, process or context elements from other learning areas. These programs could be modified to meet changing needs of students. Whatever approach to teaching is used:

• ‘Your main focus should be on learning rather than teaching
• Students cannot learn if they do not think
• Thinking is facilitated and encouraged by the processes that you use to engage students with the content, as well as by the content itself
• Your subject does not exist in isolation — you have to help students make links to other subjects
• You have a responsibility to help students learn how to learn’ (p 14).

Proceeds to examine principles of assessment in OBE.


Traces the school restructuring movement in the US after the mid-1980s. While there were many variations in the process many schools personalised their programs with teachers adopting the role of mentor. There was also more local adaptation of curriculum and partnerships developed with parents. Of particular significance for Social Science educators is the fact that the cultural conditions associated with the movement included a stress on innovation, debate, inquiry and team-work. Teaching practices also changed with more interdependent work structures, teams and committees. There was also a premium placed on staff development.


Reports positively on the use of oral assessment in social studies but notes the impact of time. Keeping journals is important.

A series of papers that traverses the concept of standards, validity and reliability, the monitoring of affective and cognitive outcomes, performance and international comparisons.


Argues that the standards movement has some significant and dangerous elements:
- It claims that it is the way to school improvement
- Its covert commitment to dictating educational purpose, content selection, instructional methodology
- Its homogenous rhetoric
- Its power-laden and unquestioning attitude of many of its most ardent supporters
- Its zealous defence against a marginalised opposition.


Oral assessment needs to be based on thought-provoking questions and discussion should involve students in issues and problem-solving. Questioning should require students to apply prior knowledge to generate new knowledge.


What is wrong with standardised assessment?
- It is simplistic
- It promotes conformity
- It is based on fear of failure
- It de-professionalises teaching
- It is biased.

What is wrong with conventional testing?
- It is minimalist
- It trivialises teaching and learning
- It promotes unhealthy competition.

Authentic assessment:
- Encourages teachers to look beyond the school for models and inspiration in designing assessment tasks
- Attempts holistic and contemporary assessment
- Involves teacher, student and community judgement
- Promotes complex thinking and problem solving
- Encourages student ‘performance’ of their learning
- Engages with issues of equity.
Middle Schooling


- Have sound philosophical base
- Have a significant teacher for a significant time
- Establish a team of teachers
- Adopt a more flexible approach
- Establish democratic classrooms
- Adapt holistic change.


There are particular needs of young adolescents that should be addressed in middle schooling curriculum: identity, relationships, purpose, empowerment, success, rigour and safety. These essential components of middle schooling include that the curriculum be learner-centred, collaboratively organised, outcomes-based, flexibly constructed, ethically aware, community-oriented, adequately resourced and strategically linked.


Summarises the nine needs of early adolescents:
- Adjustment to changes, physical, social emotional and intellectual
- Growth towards independence (with a need for secure relationships)
- Experience in responsible decision-making
- A positive self-confidence achieved through significant success
- A sense of identity, including personal and social values
- Experience of social success
- Thinking in new ways that are more abstract and reflective
- Greater awareness and skill in interacting in the social and political world
- The establishment and maintenance of relationships with significant adults.


Argues that proponents of middle schooling often depict adolescents as a separate group either with dangerous tendencies, that should be controlled, or as part of a fairly uniform universal experience associated with all children of a particular age, and which needs to be guided. Argues that middle schooling should be a site of advocacy for young adolescents and an area that assumes difference and diversity and uses it to engage with students. Good middle schools open up alternative ways of being a successful student.

Using integrated curriculum guidelines designed by Beane (1994), where themes are established at the intersection of self and world questions, Roberts collated student questions to guide the curriculum. Questions of relevance to HSIE were:

- What kind of job will I have and how will I get it?
- Will there be enough jobs for everyone?
- Why is there so much poverty in the world?
- What are the causes of poverty?
- What is war?
- Will there ever be world peace?
- Why do animals become extinct?
- How is the world being polluted?
- Is Australia/the world over-populated?
- What new inventions do we need?

Argues that these questions can be answered and teachers can still attain curriculum guidelines.

**Roberts, J, (1997), ‘To the 3Rs add the 4Ds’, EQ, Autumn, pp 23-25.**

- Dignity
- Democracy
- Diversity and
- Dialogue


Practices in secondary schools are seen to be the most in need of change and so it is usually in secondary schools that most middle school initiatives are made. The real concerns of middle schooling though are those students who are in upper primary and lower secondary years and middle schooling is inextricably linked to the question of transition. ‘The dangers of self-satisfaction in the primary sector, and resistant reaction to perceived threat of methodological invasion in the secondary sector, cannot be over- emphasised’ (p 67). School leadership has a critical role to play in successful middle schooling programs and most middle schooling initiatives are often typified by small enclaves of highly committed teachers struggling to gain victories within broader school context. Lists some of the challenges of middle schooling.
Curriculum Documents from Australian States


Has curriculum frameworks around which schools build the curriculum that best suits particular schools and communities. Has schooling divided into five bands. High school is Year 7 to 10 and the post-compulsory area is Years 11 and 12. P-10 courses are developed by the schools. Years 11 and 12 courses are developed by the colleges and are approved by the BSSS using accreditation panels. The Studies of Society and Environment Learning area has five interrelated conceptual strands and one process strand. These are:

- Investigation, communication and participation
- Time, continuity and change
- Place and space
- Culture
- Resources and
- Natural and social systems

There are a number of cross-curriculum perspectives:

- Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander
- Australian
- Environmental education
- Gender equity
- Information Technology
- Language for understanding
- Multicultural education
- Special needs education
- Work education

and it also must incorporate a global perspective, a social justice perspective and a futures perspective.

Clusters of values included are:

- Social justice
- Democratic process and
- Ecological sustainability.

It is also expected that the content will provide for opportunities for involvement in a range of actions.


In Primary schools the HSIE area is called Social Education and it is taught in an integrated manner with other disciplines such as English. In secondary schools Studies of Society and Environment appear as separate courses of study — Business Education and Social Education. These two subjects are still interdisciplinary in
nature. In the post-compulsory years there are a variety of disciplinary and 
interdisciplinary courses available. There are also various sequences of study 
available ranging from one-semester to four-semester courses. 
The values and learning concepts that sequence the Transition to Year 10 curriculum 
are social justice, democracy and ecological sustainability. The learning processes are 
organised as investigating, communicating or participating. 
The other strands in Studies of Society and Environment are:

- Time, Continuity and Change
- Place and Space
- Culture
- Natural and Social Systems
- Indigenous Perspectives.


The Department of Education in Queensland has been developing ways to implement 
in classroom teaching situation some of these future approaches. Their project, which 
they call the ‘New Basics Project’, is based on a framework consisting of an 
understanding of New Basics (what is taught), Productive Pedagogies (how it is 
taught) and Rich Tasks (how students show it).

The New Basics are seen as four clusters of practices essential for survival in the 
future:
- Life Pathways and Social Futures (Who am I and where am I going?)
- Multiliteracies and Communications Media (How do I make sense of and 
  communicate with the world?)
- Active Citizenship (What are my rights and responsibilities in communities, 
  culture and economies?)
- Environments and Technologies (How do I describe, analyse and shape the world 
  around me?)

The Productive Pedagogies are classroom strategies that teachers can use to focus 
instruction and to improve student outcomes. There are twenty productive pedagogies 
grouped under four categories:
- Recognition of Difference: This involves student control, social support, 
  engagement, explicit criteria and self-regulation.
- Connectedness: This involves knowledge integration, background knowledge, 
  connectedness to the world and problem-based curriculum.
- Intellectual Quality: This involves higher-order thinking, deep knowledge, deep 
  understanding, substantive conversation, knowledge as problematic and 
  metalanguage.
- Social Support: This involves cultural knowledges, inclusivity, narrative, group 
  identity and citizenship.

The Rich Tasks are the assessment component of this framework. Students are 
assessed by rich tasks. The completion of these tasks is the culmination of learning 
achievements over a number of years of schooling. These tasks are intended to be 
intellectually challenging and have real-world value.

The compulsory years of schooling are catered for by the Years 1-10 Studies of Society and Environment key learning area. The area is seen as a range of interrelated concepts associated with key values and processes. The key values are:
- Democratic process
- Social justice
- Ecological and economic sustainability
- Peace.

The processes are:
- Investigating
- Creating
- Participating
- Communicating
- Reflecting.

There are four conceptual organisers:
- Time, continuity and change
- Place and space
- Culture and identity
- Systems, resources and power.

Within each of these conceptual organisers, five key concepts are developed. There are also optional syllabuses in history, geography and civics in Years 9 and 10 that use the same outcomes as the SOSE syllabus. There is very little specificity in regard to subject matter.


The compulsory years of schooling are catered for by the Society and Environment curriculum. It is divided into four strands:
- Time, Continuity and change
- Place, space and environment
- Societies and cultures
- Social systems.

It includes three clusters of shared values:
- Democratic processes
- Social justice
- Ecological sustainability.
It includes skills in context; a capacity to examine issues relating to values and attitudes in society locally and globally; and a capacity for socially responsible action.

There are five Essential Learnings that are incorporated in all Learning Areas:

- Futures
- Identity
- Interdependence
- Thinking
- Communication.


Tasmania is currently reviewing its SOSE area. SOSE is an integrated subject within P-6 based on the SOSE Planning Framework. In years 7 and 8 SOSE is delivered in a discrete timetabled subject or as part of an integrated subject like Humanities or SOSE/Health/English. Assessment is based on a combination of profile outcomes and criterion-based assessments. Moderation processes are internal.

The SOSE area is school-based until year 9 and 10 when a subject called Society and Environment has been developed from core units and a choice of optional units. Each of these units is to be taught for 25 hours. Students must choose 2 core and 2 optional units.

Core units are:

- The Law and You
- Australian Environments
- Australian People — Culture and Identity
- Australia’s Heritage
- Australian Political Systems — Civics and Citizenship.

Optional Units include:

- Asia and the Pacific Region
- Working in Australia
- Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Studies
- Case Study of a Social Issue
- Comparative Religions
- Case study of one Asian country
- Law in Australia and Overseas
- Economic systems — Australia and Others
- Australian connections
- Comparative cultures
- Comparative Political Systems
- Gender Issues in Society.

In senior school students can choose from a group of subjects including Aboriginal Studies, Ancient Civilisation, Australia in Asia and Pacific, Business Studies, Child Studies, Community Access, Economics, Geography, History, Legal Studies, Political Studies, Religious Studies, Society and Environment and Tourism.
From year 9 assessment is criterion- and competency-based and externally moderated through district and statewide processes.


Has three different approaches. In first three levels of schooling (Prep to Year 4) has a single focus called Society and Environment. The next three levels (Years 5-8 are levels 4-5; Years 9-10 are level 6) are divided into History; Geography; and Economy and Society. The final matriculation area offers a number of options both in traditional school subjects and also through VET pathways. For each subject in each level there is an statement that explains the curriculum focus, the cross-curriculum indicators expected to be achieved, the types of knowledge and skills expected to be developed and the links that are expected to be made to current issues in Australia. There are more specific outcomes and indicators developed and some sample programs developed.


Accredited subjects for Year 11 and 12 are: Ancient History — Greek; Ancient History — Roman; Australian Studies; Beliefs and Values; Economics; Geography; History; Law; Political and Legal Studies; and Practical Geography.


Has a Curriculum Framework that establishes outcomes from which schools and teacher develop their own teaching/learning programs. The Curriculum Framework has a core of five clusters of shared values and thirteen overarching learning outcomes. Will be fully implemented in all schools in 2004. Values include (briefly):

- A commitment to the pursuit of knowledge and achievement of potential
- Self-acceptance and respect of self
- Respect and concern for others and their rights
- Social and civic responsibility
- Environmental responsibility.

Overarching learning outcomes include:

- Students use language to understand, develop and communicate ideas and information and interact with others.
- Students select, integrate and apply numerical and spatial concepts and techniques.
• Students recognise when and what information is needed, locate and obtain it from a range of sources and evaluate use and share it with others.
• Students select, use and adapt technologies.
• Students describe and reason about patterns, structures and relationships in order to understand, interpret, justify and make predictions.
• Students visualise consequences, think laterally, recognise opportunity and potential and are prepared to test options.
• Students understand and appreciate the physical, biological and technological world and have the knowledge and skills to make decisions in relation to it.
• Students interact with people and cultures other than their own and are equipped to contribute to the global community.

These overarching outcomes are directly linked to each of the eight learning area statements.

The SOSE learning area has seven learning outcomes:
• Investigation, Communication and Participation
• Place and Space
• Resources
• Culture
• Time, Continuity and Change
• Natural and Social Systems
• Active Citizenship.

Skills developed include investigating, reasoning, participating and communicating. Values espoused include democratic process, social justice and ecological sustainability.

Its overall focus is on civic responsibility and social competence.

The Curriculum Council has produced a document called Using the Society and Environment Learning Area Statement. This document indicates that there are many ways to plan teaching activities that can be developed from processes, overarching outcomes or particular SOSE outcomes.
Curriculum Statements and Frameworks from Overseas.


The *Alabama Course of Study: Social Studies* uses history and geography as central disciplines. Core information and ideas from economics, law and US government are to be interwoven into all courses to attain the goals of historic, geographic, political and economic literacy. There is a commitment to provide solid content knowledge in the core social studies area, to give attention to developing critical thinking skills and to encourage personal qualities of responsibility and self-management to promote competent productive citizens. The program is divided into four stages, K-2, 3-5, 6-8 and 9-12. At the secondary school level the programs are divided into Behavioural Studies, Civics, Economics, Geography, Historical Understanding, US History and World History although most of these are incorporated into the history and geography subject matter. It argues for the importance of information literacy.


Argues that civic education should be considered central to the purposes of American education. Standards include content and intellectual and participatory skills. Has standards for different levels to cover certain key questions:
- What are civil life, politics and government?
- What are the foundations of the American political system?
- How does the government established by the Constitution embody the purposes, values and principles of American democracy?
- What is the relationship of the United States to other nations and to world affairs?
- What are the roles of the citizen in American democracy?


Twenty conceptual descriptors provide a hierarchy of economic understandings. Also lists key words associated with these understandings. Each standard has four parts: a content statement, essential reasoning and decision-making skills, a rationale, and benchmarks. Has online lessons and publications associated with them. Has benchmarks divided into learn abouts and learn tos.


A complex set of standards incorporating standards in:
- Historical thinking
- History for grades K-4 (family, regional, state, cultural history)
- United States History standards for grades 5-12
- World History standards for grades 5-12.
Each section is divided into eras and each era has performance descriptors for three levels of schooling.


Has 18 standards divided into:
- The World in Spatial Terms
- Places and Regions
- Physical Systems
- Human Systems
- Environment and Society
- The Uses of Geography.

These standards include geographic skills. The main document explaining the standards is called *Geography for Life. National Geography Standards* and was developed on behalf of the American Geographical Society, Association of American Geographers, The National Council for Geographic Education and the National Geographic Society.

Argues that there are a number of reasons for studying geography, some of them being based on the existential reason, the ethical reason, the intellectual reason and the practical reason.


Has ten themes and related performance expectations. The themes are:
- Culture
- Time, continuity and change
- People, places and environment
- Individual development and identity
- Individuals, groups and institutions
- Power, authority and governance
- Production, distribution and consumption
- Science, technology and society
- Global connections
- Civic ideals and practices.

Expounds the five key features of powerful Social Studies teaching and learning:
- Meaningful
- Integrative
- Value-Based
- Challenging
- Active.

Has ten learning areas of which one is Social Studies. Most of the Economics and Business Education is in another learning area called Applied Skills which includes Home Economics type skills, and Technology Education. The subjects included in Social Studies are:
- BC First Nations Studies 12
- Social Studies K-7
- Social Studies 8-10
- Social Studies 11
- Comparative Civilisations 12
- History 12
- Law 12
- Geography 12.

Has overriding perspectives of:
- Developing understandings
- Making connections
- Applying knowledge
- Practising active citizenship.

The strands in the 8-10 Social Studies curriculum are:
- Applications of Social Studies
- Society and culture
- Politics and Law
- Economy and Technology
- Environment.


There are four Key Stages in the National Curriculum. Key Stage 1 goes to about age 7; Key Stage 2 to age 11; Key Stage 3 to age 14 and Key Stage 4 to age 16. History and Geography are statutory for Key Stages 1, 2 and 3. Citizenship will be mandatory in Key Stage 3 and 4 from 2002. It will be incorporated into History and Geography in stages 1 and 2.

History has knowledge skills and understandings that include:
- Chronological understanding
- Knowledge of events, people and changes in the past
- Historical interpretation
- Historical enquiry
- Organisation and Communication.

At Key Stage 3 students study three British studies (Britain 1066-1500, Britain 1500-1750 and Britain 1750-1900), a European study before 1400, a World study before 1900 and a World study after 1900.

Has developed a set of 40 knowledge standards (what all students should know) in six learning areas and 33 performance standards (what all students should be able to do). These standards are to be tested at the end of grades 4, 8 and 12. There are four groups of process or performance standards:
- Gathering, analysing and applying information
- Communicating effectively
- Recognising and solving problems
- Making decisions and acting responsibly.

There are seven groups of standards in social studies:
- Principles of constitutional democracy
- Continuity and change in Missouri, US and the world
- Principles and processes of governance systems
- Economic concepts
- Geographical study
- Relationships between individuals and groups to institutions and cultural traditions
- The use of tools of social science inquiry.

The local school districts develop the curriculum from these frameworks. The framework urges them to choose the appropriate content that has special significance for advancing citizenship education — not to create professional historians or social scientists ‘or winners of Trivial Pursuit’. It explains that social studies programs must help students become competent in responding to issues of public concern; engage students actively in their own learning; expand students’ thinking across the boundaries of separate academic subjects; and should find a reasonable balance between breadth and depth of content.


This curriculum statement, which caters for students from years 1 to 10, consists of five knowledge and understandings strands inextricably linked with three process strands. These strands are taught in an integrated manner at 8 levels.

The Knowledge and Understanding Strands are:
- Social Organisation
- Culture and Heritage
- Place and Environment
- Time, Continuity and Change
- Resources and Economic Activities.
The Process Strands are:
- Inquiry
- Values Exploration
- Social Decision-making.

There are established achievement objectives and indicators at 8 levels in the compulsory years of schooling. There is no set content but teachers can use case studies to exemplify key themes.

The senior subjects in New Zealand have been revised and have achievement standards and exemplar assessment resources at three levels. They will be taken to provide credentials for the National Certificate of Educational Achievement (NCEA). These new courses will be introduced in 2002. Although these subjects are not grouped in any particular manner the subjects that would be seen as HSIE subjects are Accounting, Economics, Geography, History and Social Studies.


These standards are not meant to be the whole curriculum but are to be incorporated into a broader, locally designed curriculum. They do however define the essential understandings, knowledge and skills that are to be measured by the Standards of Learning tests. The History and Social Science area is seen to basically consist of:

- History
- Geography
- Civics
- Economics.

The early grades consist of an introduction to History and Social Science. From grade 3 there are designated skills and knowledge organised as:
- Virginia Studies
- United States History to 1877
- United States History: 1877 to the present
- Civics and Economics
- World History and Geography to 1500AD
- World History and Geography: 1500AD to the present
- World Geography
- Virginia and United States History
- Virginia and United States Government.

There are approximately eight skills listed for each of these themes but no levels of development. The knowledge strands are developed in 8 levels and consist of lists of topics to be covered. There is no specific provision for values, no guidance as to how to plan these in sequence, and no suggestions as to good pedagogy.
General Bibliography


Johnston, G L, (1989), Social Studies: In Search of a Rationale, Hawthorn: ACER.


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