**UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA**

# TEACHER TRAINEE PREPARATION AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM OF BASIC SCHOOLS IN GHANA

**ROSEMARY OSEI**

**2017**

**UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA**

# TEACHER TRAINEE PREPARATION AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM OF BASIC SCHOOLS IN GHANA

**ROSEMARY OSEI**

**8150140005**

**A THESIS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL STUDIES EDUCATION, FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCE, SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES, UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA, IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF A MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY DEGREE IN SOCIAL STUDIES**

**MAY, 2017**

# DECLARATION

**Student's Declaration**

I, Rosemary Osei, hereby declare that this thesis, with the exception of quotations and references contained in published works which have all been identified and duly acknowledged, is entirely my own original work, and it has not been submitted, either in part or whole, for another degree elsewhere.

**SIGNATURE …….**

**DATE …….....**

**Supervisor's Declaration**

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines for supervision of dissertation laid down by the School of Graduate Studies, University of Education, Winneba.

**NAME OF SUPERVISOR:** Augustine Yao Quashigah (Associate Professor)

**SIGNATURE:** ……..

**DATE:** ……..

# ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to thank the following persons for making the study and its final documentation a success. I am greatly indebted to Augustine Yao Quashigah (Associate Professor), my supervisor, of the Department of Social Studies, of the University of Education, for his co-operation and assistance, comments, advice and encouragement, which spurred me on to the conclusion of the study. I would like to register my appreciation to my husband, children, and friends including Dr. David Ayaaba, Bernice Oteng and Mac-Hubert, Mr. Emmanuel Eshun and Mr. Smith Kwaku Mamford, a huge amount of appreciation for the support, prayers, sacrifices and the greater endurance they exhibited during these two years of my study.

# DEDICATION

To my husband, Emmanuel and lovely children: Amma, Afua and Agyeibea for their warmth, cooperation and support.

# TABLE OF CONTENTS


| CONTENTS | | PAGE |
|---|---|---|
| DECLARATION | | ii |
| ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS | | iii |
| DEDICATION | | iv |
| TABLE OF CONTENTS | | v |
| LIST OF TABLES | | viii |
| LIST OF FIGURES | | ix |
| GLOSSARY | | x |
| ABSTRACT | | xi |
| **CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION** | | 1 |
| 1.1 | Background to the Study | 1 |
| 1.2 | Statement of the Problem | 10 |
| 1.3 | Purpose of the Study | 12 |
| 1.4 | Objectives of the Study | 12 |
| 1.5 | Research Questions | 12 |
| 1.6 | Significance of the Study | 13 |
| 1.7 | Delimitation of the Study | 14 |
| 1.8 | Definition of Research Variables and Terms | 14 |
| 1.9 | Organisation of the Study | 15 |
| **CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW** | | 16 |
| 2.1 | Introduction | 16 |
| 2.2 | The various Conceptions of Social Studies through Time and Space | 16 |
| 2.3 | Teachers' Perceptions of how Social Studies should be taught | 56 |
| 2.4 | Teacher Preparation for Social Studies Instruction | 102 |
| 2.5 | The Difficulties of Teaching Social Studies | 108 |
| 2.6 | Summary of Literature Review | 109 |

**CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY** 111

3.1 Introduction 111

3.2 Research Design 111

3.3 Population of the Study 113

3.4 Sample, Sampling Techniques and Procedures 113

3.5 Instrumentation 114

3.6 Validity and Reliability of Instruments 116

3.7 Data Collection Procedures 117

3.8 Data Analysis 118

3.9 Ethical Considerations 118

**CHAPTER FOUR: PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA** 119

4.1 Introduction 119

4.2 Socio-demographic Data of the Tutors 119

4.3 Analysis of Research Questions 121

**CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS** 139

5.1 Introduction 139

5.2 Socio-demographic Data of the Teacher Trainees 139

5.3 Teacher Trainees' Understanding of Social Studies 140

5.4 Teacher Trainees' Perceptions of the Nature and Content of Social Studies 140

5.5 Teacher Trainees' Perceptions of how Social Studies ought to be taught 141

5.5 Difficulties that Teacher Trainees are likely to Encounter during Teaching of Social Studies 142

**CHAPTER SIX: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES** 143

6.1 Introduction 143

6.2 Summary of Findings 143

6.3 Conclusions 145

6.4 Recommendations 146

6.5 Suggestion for Further Research 147

REFERENCES 148

APPENDIX 167

# LIST OF TABLES


| TABLE | | PAGE |
|---|---|---|
| 1. | Teacher Trainees' Understanding of Social Studies | 122 |
| 2. | Teacher Trainees' Perceptions of the Nature and Content of Social Studies | 124 |
| 3. | Teacher Trainees' Perceptions of the Nature and Content of Social Studies | 127 |
| 4. | Teacher Trainee Preparedness to Teach Integrated Social Studies at Basic School Level | 131 |
| 5. | Teacher Trainee Preparedness to Teach Social Studies using Subject Specific Approach | 132 |
| 6. | The Difficulties that Teacher Trainees are likely to face in the Teaching of Social Studies, after Training | 135 |

# LIST OF FIGURES


| FIGURE | | PAGE |
|---|---|---|
| 1. | Gender Distribution of the Teacher Trainees | 119 |
| 2. | Programmes of Study by the Teacher Trainees | 120 |
| 3. | Number of Times Teacher Trainees had taught Social Studies during Teaching Practice | 121 |

# GLOSSARY

ASSP - African Social Studies Programme

CIRCLE - Centre for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement

CIPP - Context, Input, Process and Product

CREDO - Centre of Curriculum Renewal in Educational Development

EDC - Educational Development Centre

GES - Ghana Education Service

GoG - Government of Ghana

JHS - Junior High School

NCSS - National Council for the Social Studies

NERP - New Educational Reform Programme

PRINCOF - Principals' Conference

SPSS - Statistical Package for Social Sciences

# ABSTRACT

This study was conducted in Akropong Presbyterian College of Education in the Eastern Region of Ghana. It investigated whether teacher trainees are well-prepared in Colleges of Education to teach Social Studies at the basic school level. A descriptive design using the mixed-methods sequential explanatory approach was employed for this study. Simple random and purposive sampling techniques were used to select 143 teacher trainees for the study. Questionnaire (Cronbach's alpha = 0.73) and semi-structured interview guide were the instruments used to collect data. The data collected were analysed and presented in tables and figures as frequencies and percentages. The interview data was analysed qualitatively through thematic and content analysis which were reported in narratives. The findings revealed that teacher trainees were well-prepared and confident in teaching Social Studies at the basic school level. This is because they have sufficient repertoire of strategies for teaching Social Studies. However, they are likely to face challenges in teaching Social Studies in Ghanaian basic schools after training because of the conflict of teaching Social Studies as social science subject, lack of/inadequate teaching and learning materials, and large/overcrowded classes. There are also challenges associated with using instructional approaches such as cooperative learning, role play, simulation, inquiry, fieldtrip, group and independent projects during teaching. It was recommended that Social Studies lecturers in Colleges of Education and universities that train Social Studies educators for pre-tertiary institutions should prepare trainees in pedagogies that centre on integrated approach of teaching and learning. Again, they should prepare Social Studies educators in the use of learner-centred interactive methods such as group work or cooperative learning, demonstration, fieldtrip and project methods of teaching (instruction) and learning, and to encourage the use of educational technology, including computer-based programmes to teach the subject.

# CHAPTER ONE

# INTRODUCTION

## 1.1 Background to the Study

Education is the engine that transforms the social, economic, political and cultural structures of a nation. These transformations are possibly based upon the quality of education that is given to the youth, especially in developing economies such as Ghana because of the important role that education plays in our lives the quality of teacher education or training should be paramount concern to all stakeholders. Training of teachers helps them to acquire the professional competence with which to impart knowledge that will be useful to the individual and society as a whole (Afful-Broni & Ziggah, 2006). It is therefore crucial to equip teachers with the necessary content, methodology as well as the philosophies of the subjects they are to teach to ensure effective outcome when they start practicing their profession. This is because education is recognised in all spheres of life as the tool for national development. It enlightens the mind, increases knowledge, fosters insight; develops abilities and strengthens the will (Afful-Broni & Ziggah, 2006). Social Studies is viewed as the subject in the Ghanaian educational curriculum that can serve as the vehicle for preparing students with the requisite skills, knowledge and values that make functional and effective citizens.

The term Social Studies was first used in 1905 by Thomas Jesse in the United States of America (Ayaaba, 2008). The introduction of Social Studies in Ghana, and the rest of the continent, has its root in the Mombasa Conference of 1968. In Ghana, Social Studies was introduced as a brainchild of the African Social Studies Programme (ASSP) in 1972 based

on the purpose set forth by the Mombasa Conference in 1968. At the conference, it was decided to introduce Social Studies in African schools and to use it as a tool in preparing the new African citizens in the new nations of the continent. An international organisation called the African Social Studies Programme (ASSP) was subsequently set up to help African countries to organise their own programmes in Social Studies and promote the subject across the continent including Ghana (Blege, 2001). Social Studies, from its early beginning, was intended as a nation building subject and a country's aspiration therefore constitutes the basis for teaching it as stated by Odumah (2008). Ayaaba (2008) reiterated this when he opined that citizenship preparation is a major preoccupation of Social Studies. This notwithstanding, there is no consensus among educators as regards what Social Studies is or ought to be (Odumah, 2008). Ofosu-Kusi (2008) corroborated this view when he asserted that, "the enigmatic nature of the subject has often baffled some Ghanaians and prompted them to question the relevance of the subject" (p. viii). This signifies that there is controversy surrounding Social Studies with regard to how it was conceptualised in terms of meaning, scope and objectives.

The designers of the 1987 Social Studies education syllabus defined the subject as an integrated interdisciplinary approach to the study of society and the environment (CRDD, 1987). This implies that Social Studies is not a subject but a method of teaching. Another school of thought, for example, perceives the subject as amalgamation of the Social Sciences. There are different conceptual approaches or conceptual perspectives of defining Social Studies. Ayaaba (2011) is of the view that educators in the field give various answers to the definition of Social Studies depending on their orientation and perception of the subject. A careful analysis of the literature reveals three main definitions of Social Studies,

namely: approach of teaching; amalgamation of the Social Sciences; and citizenship education. A research conducted by Quashigah, Eshun, Bordor and Bekoe (2014) revealed that "the scope of content of the Social Studies curriculum at the junior high school (JHS) level reflects the tools needed by the individual to solve personal and societal problems" (p. 10). The units/topics under this curriculum are based on themes derived from the present contemporary problems of Ghana and are trans-disciplinary in nature.

The nature of the content of Social Studies at the JHS level (CRDD, 2007) does not fall in line with that of the Colleges of Education. The courses in the Social Studies curriculum in the Colleges of Education are mainly facts, concepts and topics bootlegged from the discrete subjects in the Social Science with Geography taking precedence. Examples are maps and scales; methods of showing relief on maps; representation of direction, position, and conventional signs used on Ghana maps and methods of showing relief and drainage on maps among others. This supports the views of Bekoe and Eshun (2013) that the Social Studies curriculum has feuding and implementation challenges in Ghana. They also revealed that "teacher training institutions subscribe and use a particular conception of Social Studies curriculum for the production of Social Studies education graduates" (p. 44a). The implication is that teachers may come to conceptualize the subject differently based on how they will perceive the scope of the content of the subject. Bekoe and Eshun (2013b) recommended that "if importance is attached to Social Studies then resources already invested in its implementation in Ghana, must be followed by programme review and remedial measures taken early, so as to make it more effective and viable" (p. 44a).

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

qualified teachers who have subject matter knowledge in areas such as Geography. On the other hand, the JHS syllabus rather shows that the programme is to equip students with relevant knowledge which form the basis for enquiry into issues and how to solve personal and societal problems; and inculcate in students the attributes of good citizenship (Quashigah, et al., 2014). It shows clearly that "there are confusing arrays of conceptual perspectives concerning the aim nature and content of Social Studies and that cultivation of a clearer conception of the subject in Ghana has become very necessary" (Bekoe & Eshun, 2013, p. 93b).

Despite the varied schools of thought of what Social Studies is or ought to be, consensus has been built on citizenship education as the main goal of the subject, hence teachers should be trained to that effect, because pupils are trained towards the realisation of the ultimate goal of education in Ghana, which is creating a well-balanced (intellectually, spiritually, emotionally and physically) individual with the requisite knowledge-skills, values and attitudes for self-actualisation and for socio-economic and political transformation of the nation (GOG, 2002). According to Blege (2002), "In the context of Ghana, Social Studies is citizenship education which aims at producing a reflective, competent, responsible and participatory citizens" (p. 13). However, the state of Social Studies at the Colleges of Education in Ghana seemed doubtful and it is of paramount importance, hence the need for this research.

Eshun and Mensah (2013a) asserted that "Social Studies should be taught as a holistic subject which should reflect behavioural change in students and not facts from other social science" (p. 183). Social Studies teachers should stress on teaching of skills more than the factual content. The main role of the Social Studies teacher is to emphasize the

development of relevant knowledge, attitudes, value and problem solving skills of students. This calls for effective teacher who will assess his/her teaching and learning outcomes bearing in mind the general aims of Social Studies in the school curriculum in Ghana. Eshun, Bordoh, Bassaw and Mensah (2014) emphasized that "effective formative assessor requires someone who has the necessary depth of content knowledge of the subject he/she is teaching" (p. 47). This implies that Social Studies can be taught and assessed best, but by a teacher who is highly abreast with the scope of content knowledge of the subject curriculum. Bekoe, Eshun and Bordoh (2013) stressed that "students taught and assessed not to understand Social Studies as citizenship education is a problem" (p. 28).

Social Studies is one of the subjects that can help change attitudes of citizens and thereby contribute to the socio-economic development of a nation. According to Ayaaba (2008), Social Studies contributes to Ghana's development by preparing learners with the knowledge, skills, attitude and values needed to become effective and informed citizens. Poatob and Adams (2013) asserted that, the subject prepares students to participate actively in constructive public actions, which encompass registering to vote and to be voted for, claiming their rights as citizens of the nation and performing their responsibilities effectively as loyal members of the society. With the important role that Social Studies plays in the country, it appears the content given to the teacher trainees at the Colleges of Education does not equip them adequately enough to teach Social Studies to effect the necessary change and equip students well to solve their personal as well as their societal problems. Therefore, there is urgent need for this research to find out if the Social Studies curriculum of Colleges of Education equips trainees well for the basic level of our education.

A quick glance at the course description and goals and objectives for the first two semesters when students are given the opportunity to learn solely the content presents the following accounts. The course description for semester one, thus FDC 118 has it that "for this course two subjects; Environmental Studies and Social Studies have been put together and called Environmental and Social Studies. Basically, the subject borrows ideas, concepts, facts and generalizations from the Social Sciences and humanities to explain social issues and address societal problems. This course examines the concept environmental and Social Studies, the environment and its components which is buttressed with basic mapping skills. It also examines various natural features of the earth, the major earth movements, continents and oceans, weather and climate, earth movement, types of mountains and others as noted by Principals' Conference (PRINCOF, 2009). The course description of the first semester appears to share the views of the school of thought that perceive the subject as amalgamation of the Social Sciences and humanities in other to bring a more purposeful understanding of a central idea. With the second semester course description, the purpose and content of this course is closely related to citizenship education, which is cherished in many societies (PRINCOF, 2009).

However, with regard to the level of integration, it appears that the developers of the Social Studies course structure believe in conglomeration of topics from the Social Sciences. With the subject goals, the course has been designed to: create an awareness of the component of the environment, equip students with basic mapping skills; help students to develop the ability to make rational decisions; provide opportunities for students to participate in project and activities; encouraging students with knowledge and skills required to handle the subject effectively at the basic school level. The course description and the goals in the

first year of the Colleges of Education Social Studies syllabus raises questions about the quality of teachers that are being trained to teach Social Studies at the basic level, because it appears the developers of the syllabus are of the school of thought which perceive the subject as amalgamation of the Social Sciences. The debate is the Social Studies curriculum in Colleges of Education and that of basic schools contradict each other. Therefore, Social Studies is faced with challenges such as dealing with certain outmoded practices associated with marriages, festivals, widowhood rites, child raising habits and current vices in our societies, such as poor attitudes to work, corruption, and teenage pregnancy. As a result of this, it is expected that teachers are trained to be responsive to the needs of the nation.

There is controversy surrounding Social Studies with regard to how it was conceptualised in terms of meaning, scope and objectives. There are different conceptual approaches or conceptual perspectives of defining Social Studies. Ayaaba (2011) is the view that educators in the field give various answers to the definition of Social Studies depending on their orientation and perception of the subject. A careful analysis of the literature reveal three main definitions of Social Studies, namely, approach of teaching, amalgamation of the Social Sciences and citizenship education.

Social Studies has its goal which aims at helping the realisation of the national goals. Martorella (1994), maintain that “the enduring goals of Social Studies is the development of reflective, competent and concerned citizens” (pp. 12-13). Social Studies is therefore important in the school curriculum. With the important role that Social Studies play in the country, it appears the content given to the teacher trainees at the College of Education does not equip them adequately enough to teach Social Studies to effect the necessary change and equip students well to solve their personal as well as their societal problems.

Therefore, there is urgent need for this research to find out if Colleges of Education Social Studies curriculum equip trainees well for the basic level of our education.

Teacher trainees' preparation should entail all the necessary conditions needed to equip prospective teachers for the transformation needed in education. Peter (1977) posited that if anything is regarded as a specific preparation for teaching, priority must be given to a thorough grounding in something to teach. It is important to equip teacher trainees with subject matter content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge respectively. Subject matter understanding strengthens the teachers' power and in so doing, heightens the possibilities of his art (Scheffler, 1973). Also, equipping trainees with pedagogical content knowledge equips them of the knowledge of task they are to perform, knowledge of students' prior knowledge and knowledge of instructional methods (Kraus et al., 2008). Equipping teacher trainees with both the subject matter as well as pedagogical content knowledge position their sense of preparedness to perform well when they go to the field to practice. Tschannen-Moran, Hoy and Hoy (2001) assert that teacher efficacy is a joint, simultaneous function of a teacher's analysis of his or her teaching task and assessment of his or her personal teaching competence or skills.

Equipping trainees with pedagogical content knowledge equips them of the knowledge of the task they are to perform, knowledge of students' prior knowledge and knowledge of instructional methods (Kreuss, 2008). Fisher and Firestone (2006) argued that the role teachers play in classroom change and improvement depends on factors such as self-efficacy. This could mediate and influence teacher learning and pedagogical change. Hence, it is important to equip teacher trainees with subject matter content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge. Equipping teacher trainees with both the subject matter as

well as pedagogical content knowledge position their sense of efficacy to perform well when they go to the field to practice. Other researchers have provided additional support linking teacher preparedness to students' achievement (Anderson, Greene & Loewen, 1998). Gibson and Dembo (1984), succinctly agree, when they asserted that highly efficacious teachers tend to persist in helping struggling students arrive at correct answers rather than simply students answers or allowing others to provide the correct answer. Similarly, Ashton and Webb (1986), in a study observed that, "teachers with a high sense of preparedness seemed to employ a pattern of strategies that minimized negative effect, promoted an expectation of achievement, and provided a definition of the classroom situation characterised by warm interpersonal relationships and academic work" (p. 125). It is therefore necessary for all the stakeholders of education in Ghana to focus their situation on teacher preparation especially Social Studies teachers who are expected to help change attitudes, values and skills needed to help pupils function as active members of the nation.

The Curriculum, Research, and Development Division (CRDDD, 2007) asserted that Social Studies prepares the individual by equipping him or her with the knowledge about the culture and ways of life of their society, its problems, its values, and its hopes for the future. It can be deduced that citizenship preparation is the core value of Social Studies. To achieve the core mandate of Social Studies in the curriculum of the basic schools, it is important to have a critical look at how Social Studies teachers are prepared to teach the subject.

The course description and the goals in the first year of the Colleges of Education Social Studies syllabus raises questions about the quality of teachers that are being trained to teach

Social Studies at the basic level, because it appears the developers of the syllabus are of the school of thought which perceive the subject as amalgamation of the Social Sciences. Due to this, the objectives of Colleges of Education Social Studies and that of the basic level contradict each other.

Social Studies is faced with challenges such as dealing with certain outmoded practices associated with marriages, festivals, widowhood rites, child raising habits and current vices in our societies, such as poor attitudes to work, corruption, teenage pregnancy etc. As a result of this, it is expected that teachers are trained to be responsive to the needs of the nation. Thus, productions of competent, concerned, reflective and participatory individuals that will help solve personal as well as societal problems.

It is suspected that the goals of Social Studies are not being achieved because of this, Colleges of Education should try to help teacher trainees to a better understanding of the subject. This will influence their teaching and learning of the subject. Philosophies and conception formed on Social Studies at the College of Education will in effect have an impact on the attainment or hinder the attainment of the subject's goal. This research interrogates the mismatch of the Social Studies curriculum, investigates the dilemmas of teacher trainees in teaching the subject, and informs policy formulation on curriculum issues.

## 1.2 Statement of the Problem

Teacher trainees from the Colleges of Education in Ghana are relatively not well-prepared for teaching Social Studies at the basic school level. This is because differences seem to be evidenced in the scope of content in the Social Studies Curriculum for Colleges of

Education, and in the Social Studies syllabus for basic schools in Ghana. This situation confuses trained teachers (teacher trainees) as to how to teach the subject since the structure of the basic school Social Studies syllabus is not in consonance with the contents of the Social Studies curriculum for Colleges of Education. As a result, teacher trainees from the Colleges of Education tend to have conceptualised the subject differently. Although many efforts have been made to improve on the teaching of the subject through curriculum innovations and upgrading of the teacher training colleges to the status of Colleges of Education, it is suspected that the goals of Social Studies are not being achieved. Documentary evidence on the Social Studies curricula of Colleges of Education and basic schools in Ghana shows clear conceptual difference in what the subject is. For instance, an amalgamation of the Social Sciences influences the way tutors teach Social Studies in Colleges of Education. Thus, the nature of the content of Social Studies at the basic school level does not fall in line with that of the Colleges of Education in Ghana as noted by the CRDD (2007). The courses in the Social Studies curriculum of the Colleges of Education are mainly facts, concepts and topics boot legged from the discrete subjects in the Social Sciences with geography taking precedence. Examples are maps and scales; methods of showing relief on maps; representation of direction; position and conventional signs used on Ghana maps; and methods of showing relief and drainage on maps among others. There is therefore the need to conduct this research to find out (determine) whether the Social Studies curriculum in the colleges of education equip teacher trainees well to handle Social Studies at the basic schools in the country.

## 1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to investigate whether teacher trainees are well-prepared in Colleges of Education to teach Social Studies at the basic school level.

## 1.4. Objectives of the Study

This research is meant to:

1. assess teacher trainees' conception of Social Studies.
2. examine teacher trainees' perception of how Social Studies should be taught in Ghanaian basic schools.
3. examine whether Social Studies graduates from Colleges of Education are well-prepared to teach the subject in Ghanaian basic schools.
4. investigate the difficulties teacher trainees are likely to encounter in teaching Social Studies in Ghanaian basic schools, after training.

## 1.5 Research Questions

The following research questions guided the study:

1. What are the views of teacher trainees of Social Studies?
2. What are the perceptions of teacher trainees of how Social Studies should be taught in Ghanaian basic schools?
3. How well-prepared are teacher trainees from Colleges of Education to teach Social Studies in Ghanaian basic schools?
4. What are the difficulties that teacher-trainees are likely to encounter during teaching of Social Studies in Ghanaian basic schools, after training?

## 1.6 Significance of the Study

For policy formation in education, the findings of this research will provide guidelines for Social Studies education in Ghanaian schools. The findings will help the Ghana Education Service and the colleges of education to streamline the curriculum of the two institutions. Also based on this research, Ghana education service may use the findings as a guiding principle to organise in-service training to cater for the gap in knowledge and requisite expertise needed by teachers at the basic level of our education.

It may also guide the Curriculum Research and Development Division (CRDD) to reorient the essential elements of Social Studies teaching syllabus and text books to be more of attitude building, skills and values. This may help the student teacher to stress on imbuing in students attitudes, values and skills and not only the knowledge component of the subject.

This work will be of immense benefits to the implementors of the Colleges of Education Social Studies curriculum, thus, the teachers teaching Social Studies at the College of Education. It will help them to re-asses the vacuum that has been created and necessary recommendations to the Institute of Education, University of Cape Coast.

In addition, the findings of this study will give guidelines for educational planners, policy makers and school administrators for which inferences can be made on the state of the subject in Ghana and how it is taught in the basic schools. The findings may give a benchmark for in-service programmes for classroom teachers, identify areas where support on materials are needed, to improve and upgrade pedagogical skills in the field of teaching Social Studies. The finding will also suggest areas of neglect, which may help researchers

and classroom teachers in meaningful teaching and also add more knowledge to existing literature.

## 1.7. Delimitation of the Study

Despite the importance of the study, its scope could not cover the entire six Colleges of Education in the Eastern Region. Thus, the study was delimited to only one College of Education in the Eastern Region. However, the research also covered only the Social Studies curriculum of the Colleges of Education in Ghana. The selection of one College of Education and their trainees on teaching practice made it difficult to extrapolate the findings to the entire region and other Colleges of Education in Ghana.

## 1.8 Definition of Research Variables and Terms

**Teacher trainees:** These are students being trained with the content and methodologies of teaching.

**Perception:** The way one understands or interprets information or one's idea about something.

**Curriculum:** It is the subjects taught at an educational institution or topics taught within a subject.

Social Studies curriculum conceptions: Broad understanding or element of teaching Social Studies. Examples are: Amalgamation of the Social Sciences, including citizenship education.

## 1.9 Organisation of the Study

The study was organised into five chapters. Chapter one contains the introduction of the research, which includes the background, statement of the problem, the objectives, research questions, significance of the study, delimitation, definition of terms and organisation of study. Chapter two contains a review of the related literature of the study. Chapter three describes the methodology, which includes the research design, population, sample and sampling techniques, instruments for data collection, validity and reliability of instruments, procedure for data collection and how the data was analysed. Chapter four deals with the analysis of the data, the presentation of findings and discussions based on the analysis. Chapter five summarises the findings with reference to some implications for teaching the subject, draw conclusions, recommendations and suggest possible areas for further research.

# CHAPTER TWO

# LITERATURE REVIEW

## 2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature related to the issues pertaining to the study. The review is divided into five (5) main sections as follows:

a. The various conceptions of Social Studies through time and space;
b. Perceptions of Social Studies instruction
c. Teacher preparedness and Social Studies instruction.
d. Difficulties in teaching of Social Studies.
e. Summary of literature review.

## 2.2. The various Conceptions of Social Studies through Time and Space

Social Studies have its roots from the United States of America. Social Studies was introduced in America in the 1880s and was linked up with the activities of the American Historical Association until 1921 when the National Council for the Social Studies was formed to circulate information on the current trends of the subject. By 1920, the subject had metamorphosed from being purely a study of history into a subject that aims at acquainting the youth with the skills needed to solving societal problems. In the 1930s, the subject focused on human problems (Quartey, 1984). The beginning of Social Studies in America, Blege (2001) asserts that some years ago it became obvious that the America society was in a difficulty as a result of violence and all kinds of social disharmony, the youth were also becoming increasingly wayward while group violence and child

delinquency were flourishing. Stakeholders of education in America advocated for the introduction of a subject in the school curriculum to address these problems and to produce good and responsible American citizens. This led to the introduction of Social Studies in America in an attempt to find solution to social disharmony threatening the survival and integration of the youth due to social forces with the country. It was also introduced because of the concerns and fear that Africa Americans and native Americans may not be able to fit into the society unless they understand the society and the social forces that operated within it and ways to recognise and respond to social power (Tabachnick, 1991).

However, Social Studies was introduced in Britain in the 1920s, and following the Hadow Report of 1926, it focused on how to equip the youth to become well trained adults in an industrialised society (Quartey, 1984). The development of Social Studies in Britain was for nation building out of its trade recession in the wake of its industrial revolution. The introduction of the subject had its shortfalls as indicated by Lawton and Dufour (1976) that the British Education system had some dissatisfaction in the 1950-60s when Social Studies, describes as liberal education in Britain, lost its early impact because it was focused on industrialisation and dictatorship in changing society. The young learners in the States schools were taught to honour the Queen, to obey superiors and run away from every police officer.

Social Studies in Ghana, according to the content of 2007 syllabus, are the study of society and its problems. The subject throws more light on matters of the society (for example, constitution and national building, rights and responsibilities of the individual; the institution of marriage; self-identity, the youth and national development; education and social change; and others), whilst according to Quartey (1984) that of Nigeria basically

deals with social issues. To him, Social Studies of America has grown from learning purely history into a subject that aims at acquainting the youth with skills that can cause the necessary change in the citizen, whilst in Britain Social Studies is seen as inculcating industrial skills in the individual to catch up with the needs of the industrial revolution. This shows the conception of Social Studies will always dictate the philosophy of the subject.

Social Studies as a discipline has suffered from identity crisis over the years due to many definitions given to it. According to Ayaaba (2008), "There are therefore as many and varied definitions of Social Studies as there are Social Studies teachers and educators" (p. 4). This implies differences in conception will ultimately influence the content and create confusion as to which direction the particular content has to go. This brings to the fore the different schools of thought about what Social Studies is or ought to be. However, the focuses are the objectives around which the various proponents identified as elements of their definitions.

Social Studies could be defined as an approach of teaching. The CRDD (1987) defined Social Studies as the Social Sciences simplified for pedagogical purposes, distinguished its method. Social Studies is an integrated interdisciplinary approach to the study of society and the environment (CRDD, 1987). In effect, what they mean is that the content of Social Studies must reflect its methods of teaching, different from other subjects.

Another school of thought also views the subject as an amalgam, interdisciplinary and integrated and that, it is an outgrowth of the Social Sciences (Barr, Barth, & Shermis, 1977; Aggarwal, 2002; Tamakloe, 1994). Martorella (1985) opined that "Social Studies gains

some of its identity from the Social Sciences such as history, political science, geography, economics, sociology, anthropology and psychology" (p. 5). Aggarwal (2002) supports this view when he states that Social Studies include much of the subject matter of history, geography, civics and economics. This is not different from Dynneson and Gross (1999) when they assert that, Social Studies is an interdisciplinary field of learning, drawing upon the concepts and means of the Social Sciences and related areas. The proponents of this conceptual approach therefore perceive Social Studies as a subject that draws together knowledge and content from Geography, History, Sociology, Anthropology and Civics in order to bring more powerful understanding of a central idea.

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

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

Banks view of citizenship education is in line with what Quartey (1984) postulated Social Studies to be, as the study that equips the youth with tools necessary in solving personal and community related problems. To them, the main emphasis of Social Studies as citizenship education is on developing the relevant knowledge, skills, attitudes and values that will enable learners to make reflective decisions and act on them to solve both personal and societal problems. Mathias (1973) defines Social Studies as the study of man in society. The same view is shared by the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS, 1916) in a report that indicated Social Studies is understood to be those whose subject matter relates directly to the organisation and development of human society and to man as member of the social group. The report emphasises that Social Studies deals with woman/man in relation to the environment. This means woman/man must be able to influence her/his environment to her/his benefit.

The authors stressed that Social Studies has the sole aim of developing civic competences. According to Aggarwal (2002), citizenship education is the development of the ideas, beliefs, habits, behaviours and attitudes of the individuals so that citizens may become useful members of the society and contribute their share for the uplifting of the society. This means that the main mission of this conceptual perspective is that Social Studies prepares students to be responsible, productive and concerned citizens with the ability to make informed and reasoned decisions for the public good as citizens of a culturally, diverse, and democratic society in an interdependent world. This implies Social Studies deals with solving the problems of man. This view is also supported by Quartey (1987), Bank (1985), Engle and Ochoa (1970) and Blege (2001). They all have the notion that the subject must equip the individual with civic competence that will enable an individual to

live and to be lived with. In this direction their expectations are that the content and scope of the subject must be issue centred and problem solving.

If valid objectives are to be drawn from the various definitions given above, then each of them will have a different outline of content altogether. The confusion created by varying definitions could hinder the teaching and attainments of objectives. However, putting the various conceptions and explanations of Social Studies together, Dynneson and Gross (1999) provide a definition that can be used to support any Social Studies instructional programme. In their view, Social Studies can be seen as "an integration of broad field of learning, and drawing upon that can summarily be seen as integration of concepts and processes of the Social Sciences and related areas; it features problem-focused inquiry, ethical decision making, and personal or civic action on issues vital to individual and their society" (p. 13). Their definition has two implications. The first is the material that is studied (the content of Social Studies).

This includes information, ideas, skills, generalisation, concepts, principles, issues, inquiry procedures drawn from the Social Sciences – History, Geography, Government, Civics, Political Science, Economic, Sociology, and Anthropology. Others are literature, music and the visual and performing arts, religion and archaeology. These fields serve as resources for the Social Studies curriculum which blends and integrates them as and when necessary to provide learners with worthwhile experiences. The second implication is the purpose of Social Studies, which is citizenship education.

A survey of definitions of Social Studies according to Ayaaba (2008) reveals that "there is general agreement that citizenship education is a crucial element and an important reason

for Social Studies education" (p. 6). As a result teaching Social Studies holds a special hope of creating responsible citizens. On this Risinger (1997), observed that all the arguments, convention speeches and journal articles, it seems clear that the term citizenship education lies at the heart of Social Studies. This suggests that development of Social Studies must depend on a consensus building of a definition which in its effect will enhance its contents, objectives and even the assessment tools to be used for the subject by its experts. On this, Maxim (1983) and Jaromelike (1984) held the view that definition provides distinctiveness of scope, nature, focus and structure of a subject. This shows that consensus definition and conception of Social Studies will help to sharpen its focus and enhance its growth in Ghana and the continent of Africa. However, it appears reaching consensus has been problematic. Ayaaba (2011) stressed that there is no consensus among educators as regards what Social Studies is or ought to be, Ayaaba (2008) argued that Social Studies has been taught for several decades in America, Britain, and other parts of the developed world, yet there is still no consensus on what should be included.

According to Quarety (1984), "It was the effort of review Social Studies in Britain that brought about Africa Social Studies Programme (ASSP). The Oxford conference in 1967 and the Mombasa Conference of 1968 also influenced the study of Social Studies in Africa" (p. 14). The introduction of Social Studies in Ghana and the continent has its roots in the Mombasa Conference of 1968. In that year a group of newly independent African states met in Mombasa, Kenya, under the chairmanship of Dowuona Hammond, then Ghana's Minister of Education to take a decision on previous exploratory conference on Social Studies. At the conference, they introduced Social Studies in African schools and to use the subject as a tool in preparing citizens of the newly independent states in the African

continent. An international organisation called the African Social Studies Programme (ASSP) was set up to help African countries to organise their own programme in Social Studies and to promote the subject across the continent including Ghana (Blege, 2001). This led to the introduction of a new system of education, which shifted from the British subject-centred curriculum to an integrated curriculum. First on an experimental basis in 1976 and nationwide in 1987 and emphasised an inquiry approach to teaching and learning which laid emphasis on the attainment of effective objectives and the development of vocational and creative skills, as well as the attainment of cognitive objectives (Avotri, 1993). It was anticipated that Social Studies, for example, would facilitate the development of more positive attitudes towards society and the environment among students (GES, 1987).

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

1. Lack of competent teachers to handle the subject effectively: Teachers were not trained in the philosophy, methodology, aims and objectives as well as the techniques of teaching Social Studies.

2. Conflicts with traditionalist ideas: The ideas of subject integration had not been well received by many traditionalists. People were afraid that their pet subjects such as Geography, History, Economics and Government would lose their distinct identity and methodologies if each was made to become a microscopic member of an integrated Social Studies programme. Social Studies was therefore not welcome.
3. Lack of textbooks on integrated Social Studies was another factor that contributed to the collapse of the idea (Tamakloe, 1994; cited in Odumah, 2003)

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

The introduction of Social Studies in the Ghana national school curriculum led to important questions about what knowledge should and should not be included in the curriculum and how the included knowledge should be arranged. Scott (2008), asserts that dominant modes of curriculum in the twenty first century suggests there is established, recognised knowledge that is included in school curricula within disciplines such as Social Studies, Physics, Mathematics, and Literature and that the disciplines themselves almost always provide the structure of the school day. According to Kelly, Luke and Green (2008), this is 'widely current, and education-based. Debates, however, question the assumption that there is an amount of disciplinary received wisdom that is beyond criticism.

According to Odumah (2008), Social Studies from its early beginnings was intended as a nation-building subject and a country's aspirations therefore constitute the bases for teaching it. He further stressed that this notwithstanding, there is no consensus among educators as regards what Social Studies is or ought to be. Barr, Barth and Shermis (1971) held the view that the field of Social Studies is so caught up in ambiguity, inconsistency and contradiction that it represents a complex educational enigma, defying any final definition acceptable to all. As a result of this, Ayaaba (2008) asserted that Social Studies has been taught for several decades in America, Britain, and other parts of the develop world, there is still no consensus on what should be included. Quartey (1984), support this view when he stated that, "in the academic world, almost every subject has had its changing views" (p. 13). With regard to Quartey, these changing views are good in so far as the focus aims at helping shape the focus of the subject. It also implies that there has been emerging conceptions of Social Studies concerning its meaning, scope, nature, objectives and even the way assessment-tools are selected in teaching it.

### 2.2.1. The Development and Conceptions of Social Studies through Time and Space

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

views of Quartey (1984), “In the academic world, almost every subject has had its changing views” (p. 3).

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

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

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

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

It is however, important to note that in the United States of America, there is no national Social Studies syllabus for all schools. Each school district writes its own Social Studies syllabus. Social Studies in America, as observed by Obebe (1990) does not have a static structure. It has transformed from citizenship education for national development by

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

Social Studies in the United States of America today can therefore be said to be focusing on the reduction of pressures, social and environmental problems which are of national and international concerns, with contents usually drawn from a variety of discipline-interdisciplinary approach. Students are being taught to think globally as they act locally. Learners are taught in ways that make learning active, interactive, hands on and engaging. It must be noted that any society, which intends promoting democratic discipline through Social Studies education, requires individuals who are willing and able to participate effectively in the solution of common problems. They must also be willing at times to take decisions which demand compromise among different points of view. This is important for society to develop towards desired goals. This is the idea of Social Studies in the United State of America. While it is true, that other subjects also contribute towards the development of desirable goals in the youth, Social Studies is viewed as bearing the greater responsibility. Westheimer and Kahne (2003) assert that through Social Studies students can receive the support they need to express their opinions on political, social and controversial issues. In this way, students can develop the ability to critique, analyse and formulate possibilities for action critical for responsive citizenship. This is because Social

Studies deals directly with human problems and tries to shape the behaviours of individuals.

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

However, Social Studies was known to have had initial setbacks in the history of the British educational system. By 1926, there was a criticism of the content of the school curriculum through the Hadow Report. The report pronounced that the general character of teaching should take account of the pupils' natural and social environments. This implies the desire for a curriculum that is socially relevant and capable of preparing the young ones to go out and become adults in an industrialised society. The report also noticed some elements of indoctrination in what was being taught in schools, for example, children were taught to "honour the queen" and 'run away from every police man (Lawal, Obebe, James, & Fatimeyin, n. d.).

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

Between 1945 and the early 50s there was therefore a tremendous growth in the thought of Social Studies and British schemes were developed on integrated approach to the subject. These growing thoughts were reflected in the series of teachers' handbooks that were produced in Social Studies. For instance, by 1945, the movement produced a document in which Social Studies was going to be taught as a common core course for the younger ones. The Social Studies programme that emerged during this period however faced a lot of resentment from subject specialists like the historians and geographers, who saw nothing special in the growing thoughts of the subject. They felt insecure because of continuous

spread of the subject. This resentment did not allow the teaching of the subject to further develop especially between the late 1950s and 1960s. By the early 1960s there was a revival of interest in Social Studies as a result of the recommendations of the Crowther Report of 1959 and the Newton Report of 1963. The two demanded that school curricula should be relevant to industrialised and changing society. By 1968, an important year for Social Studies, key books and curriculum projects on the subject emerged. The dynamic growth of the British society and advancement in technology have all combined to improve the thoughts of Social Studies in Britain to the extent that the focus of the discipline has shifted and the subject is now seen as Modern Studies with its contents including living in the community, living with others, urban life and learning.

From the foregoing one could say that the general objectives of British Social Studies course may be seen as developing in children a more critical and balanced social awareness. The new Social Studies in Britain emphasise insights, concepts and generalisations partially derived from the Social Sciences. Discussion on Social Studies thought in the United States of America and Britain without Africa as a continent may be seen as an incomplete exercise because, Social Studies growth and development has been a universal phenomenon (Lawal & Oyeleye, 2003). A close look at the development of historical thought of Social Studies in the U.S and Britain will reveal that, it has had a great influence on Social Studies thought in Africa (Lawal, 2003).

In Africa, Social Studies is a fairly recent curriculum innovation coming after 1960 in the wake of independence. During this period, most African countries were European colonies. They faced a problem of educating their citizens in European values, which had already been included in the curricula of African schools. The educational policies of the colonial

government were formulated to serve the needs of the colonial masters. Teaching was geared towards training Africans who would be able to serve the interest of the colonial government. Africa indigenous values, attitudes and skills were neglected. However, colonial education had some aspects of Social Studies. These were in the form of general knowledge, religion, and moral instruction which were taught as Civics and Government. History, Geography and Government were considered paramount teaching school subjects during the colonial period to achieve the goals and objectives. Good children upbringing was emphasised by colonial masters as a tool making them submissive to colonial rule (Lawal et al., n.d).

At the attainment of independence by some African countries in 1960, colonial education came under very severe attack by the same colonially educated Africans. The British system of education was described as one geared towards separating the African child from his/her cultural values, instead of developing positive values in him/her. The most important areas which were of greater concern to both the leaders and the generality of Africans were the educational systems and curriculum development. By 1967, according to Obebe (1990), more concrete international concern was shown in the development of Social Studies thought in Africa, especially as a thing of continental concern. So at an international conference held at Queens College, Oxford, United Kingdom, the introduction of Social Studies as a formal school subject was proposed, and this conference led to the important and historic 1968 Mombassa Conference held in Kenya. The Mombassa Conference which was sponsored by Educational Development Centre (EDC) Newton, USA and Centre of Curriculum Renewal in Educational Development Overseas (CREDO), London, laid the foundation for an understanding of the meaning of Social

Studies and an application of Social Studies in Africa. The conference deliberated on the issues surrounding the development of a new Social Studies curriculum for different countries of Africa.

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

Social Studies as an integrated discipline was not in existence during the colonial era in Nigeria (1840-1960). What was found in the primary and post primary schools in the country was the teaching of a kind of curriculum called “General Knowledge” (Udoh, 1989). The development of Social Studies in Nigeria however came earlier than those of other countries in Africa. This was because as early as 1958, the Ohio State University in the United States of America had sponsored some Nigerians for training programmes in

Social Studies. The arrival of the recipients of such training programmes greatly influenced their thoughts about Social Studies. For instance, they perceived the social ills that accompanied Nigeria's transition from colonial era to independence. They discovered the high rate of acculturation among Nigerians and the rate at which the nation's cultural traditions were breaking down. They therefore, felt that the only way to salvage the country was to train the young ones in a manner that would provide them with opportunities to catch up with the new problem of change (Lawal, 2003). According to Adesina (2010), the main purpose of its introduction into the country's educational system is to produce good and socially competent citizens that would live cordially with the members of the society and contribute individually and collectively to the growth and development of Nigeria.

In Ghana the introduction of a new system of education shifted from the British subject-centred curriculum to an integrated curriculum, first on an experimental basis in 1976 and nationwide in 1987 and emphasised an inquiry approach to teaching and learning which laid emphasis on the attainment of affective objectives, and the development of vocational and creative skills, as well as the attainment of cognitive objectives (Avotri, 1993). Avotri further asserts that this culminated in the introduction of subjects such as Social Studies, cultural studies, life skills and vocational subjects. It was anticipated that Social Studies, for example, would facilitate the development of more positive attitudes towards society and the environment among students (GES, 1987).

According to Bekoe (2007) Social Studies in Ghana underwent a radical change in 1998, at the time that it was being introduced at the Senior Secondary School level of the Ghana's educational system. He further asserts that it evolved from a collection of mainly specific history and geography topics, which used to characterise the early Social Studies

curriculum, into an issue centred (trans-disciplinary) subject. To him, this evolution/change succeeded in transforming Social Studies curriculum from the amalgam, (citing Kissock, 1981) of discrete traditional social science disciplines to one that is issue centred (citing Noddings, 2005; Farris, 2001) and problem solving in nature (with reference to Martorella, 1994).

Social Studies in Ghana according to the content of the 2007 JHS syllabus throws more light on social issues (for example, our constitution; managing and preventing conflict; adolescent reproductive health; citizenship and human rights; the use of land in our community; education and productivity; promoting political stability in Ghana; problems of development in Ghana; and others), whilst according to Quartey (1984) that of Nigeria basically deals with matters of the society. To him, Social Studies of America had grown from learning from purely history into a subject that aims at acquainting the youth with skills that can cause the necessary change in the citizen, whilst in Britain Social Studies is seen as inculcating industrial skills in the individual to catch up with the needs of the industrial revolution. This shows that the conception of Social Studies will always dictate the philosophy of the subject.

Social Studies as a discipline has suffered from identity crisis over the years due to many definitions given to it. Martorella (1994), for instance, argues that its ambiguous nature has turned it into educational puzzle. This will create differences in conception and ultimately influence the content and create confusion as to which direction the particular content has to go. This brings to the fore the different schools of thought about Social Studies through time and space. However, the focuses are the objectives around which the various proponents identified as elements of their definitions. The same view is shared by the

National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS, 2006) in a report that indicated Social Studies is understood to be those whose subject matter relates directly to the organisation and development of human society and to man as a member of the social group. The report emphasises that Social Studies deals with man in relation to his environment. This means man must be able to influence his environment to his benefit.

Other authorities define Social Studies as an approach of teaching (Makindes, 1979). The CRDD (1987) defines Social Studies as man in society and perceives it as the Social Sciences simplified for pedagogical purposes, distinguished by its method. In effect what this perspective mean is that the content of Social Studies must reflect its method of teaching, different from other subjects. Another school of thought also views the subject as an amalgam, interdisciplinary and integrated and that, it is an outgrowth of the Social Sciences (Barr et al., 1977; Tamakloe, 1994). Martorella (1985to) asserts that Social Studies gains some of its identity from the Social Sciences such as history, political science, geography, economics, sociology, anthropology and psychology. The proponents of this conceptual approach therefore perceive Social Studies as a subject that draws together knowledge and content from geography, history, sociology, anthropology and civics in order to bring more powerful understanding of a central idea.

There are others too, who perceive the subject as citizenship education. In response to the calls of those like Butts (1988:162) for "the revitalizing of the historic civic mission of American education" (p. 162). The Carnegie Foundation and CIRCLE (The Centre for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement) (2003:6) issued the Civic Mission of Schools report, which concluded that:

(a) "school-based civic education should be seen as an essential approach to increasing young people's informed engagement with political institutions and issues; and

(b) that Social Studies was the curricular area best able to develop competent and responsible citizens". The National Council for the Social Studies (1994) confirmed Social Studies' unique mission to "help young people develop the ability to make informed and reasoned decisions for the public good as citizens of a culturally diverse, democratic society in an interdependent world."

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

Barr et al.'s work was critiqued by Shaver (1977) and White (1982), but others such as Martorella (1994) built upon their work. Martorella, for example, identified five "alternative perspectives on citizenship education." The intent here is not only to review the on-going discussion of citizenship education, but simply to acknowledge that a variety of approaches have been documented in the literature, which have been informed by a vigorous, on-going discussion about the purposes for and approaches to citizenship education. What is noteworthy about most of the approaches to citizenship education as identified by those such as Barr et al. and Martorella is that civic participation, be it biennial

voting or continuous, active pursuit of the passage of a particular public policy, is to be studied and possibly practiced in a classroom or school setting, but rarely in the community.

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

In answering question about what citizenship means, in this literature I rely upon three "kinds of citizens" depicted by Westheimer and Kahne (2004), which are based on prominent theoretical perspectives, important differences in the ways that educators conceive of democratic educational aims and ideas and ideals that resonate with practitioners. The first kind of citizen is a "personally responsible citizen," one that acts responsibly in his or her community by picking up litter, giving blood, recycling, and obeying laws. The second is a "participatory citizen," one who actively participates in the civic affairs and the social life of the community at the local, state, or national level. Finally, a "justice-oriented citizen" is one with the attributes of a participatory citizen, but who also seeks to improve society by critically analysing and addressing social issues and injustices.

Westheimer and Kahne's work offers a useful means to link what students are expected to learn (relative to civic engagement) to a particular type of citizen. In defining civic

engagement, Torney-Purta and Lopez (2006), drawing upon the work of Patrick (2003, 2005), made a distinction between intellectual skills and participatory skills. Patrick (2006) had noted that in "combination with cognitive civic skills, participatory civic skills are tools of citizenship whereby individuals, whether acting alone or in groups, can participate effectively to promote personal and common interests in response to public issues" (p. 19). Patrick (2005) identified the following as universal participatory skills:

> …interacting with other citizens to promote personal and common interests; monitoring public events and issues; deliberating and making decisions about public policy issues; influencing policy decisions on public issues; implementing policy decision on public issues; and, taking action to improve political and civic life locally, nationally, and globally. (p. 19).

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

> Schools and other organisations foster civic engagement when they help students to do the following: working with others toward political goal; interpreting political information; participate in respectful discourse about social and political issues; learn about effective leadership in groups of peers, and how to mitigate the influence of negative experiences such as bullying; join other students and adults to address a community need; assess opportunities to solve community problems; express their views in media forms that are attractive and familiar to them (p. 7).

They concluded that traditional citizenship education is well suited to developing some of the intellectual skills necessary for civic and political participation. The same, though, was not true for the participatory skills, particularly those addressing either actual participation in the political system or substantive policy issues, since such issues were likely to prove controversial and disquieting to the community (a finding supported by Niemi & Niemi,

2007). As a result, citizenship education rarely heeded the advice of those like Engle and Ochoa (1988) "to recognise values formation as a central concern of Social Studies instruction" (Parker, 1996:124).

Although Menezes (2003) argued that, "citizenship education should…focus on students' empowerment for assuming an active role in the (democratic) process defining and expanding citizenship itself" (p. 432). Torney-Purta and Lopez (2006) argued and reported that "there is hesitation about whether and how to incorporate enhanced opportunities for students' voice and input in their schools and classrooms" (p. 15). Also, notable is that "because of the political nature of teaching and learning citizenship, teacher trainees often are unsure of the boundaries around engaging students in political activities" (Torney-Purta & Lopez, 2006:17), a finding supported by Martin and Chiodo (2010).

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

Parker; 1996; Patrick & Hoge, 1991; Stanley, 1991; Hahn, 1996; Patrick, 1999, 2002). The premise driving this argument is that an active approach to learning by students will be reflected later in an active approach to participative citizenship as adults (Print & Smith, 2000).

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

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

Banks stressed that Social Studies has the sole aim of developing civic competences as its primary goal. Also, citizenship education according to Aggarwal (2002) "is the development of the ideas, beliefs, habits, behaviour and attitudes of the individual so that he may become a useful member of the society and contributes his share for the uplift of the society" (p. 237). Banks and Aggarwal's view of citizenship education is in line with Quartey's (1984) assertion that Social Studies is a course of study that equips the youth with tools necessary in solving personal and community related problems. To them, the main emphasis of Social Studies as citizenship education is on developing the relevant knowledge, skills, attitudes and values that will enable learners to make reflective decisions and act on them to solve both personal and societal problems. This means that the main

mission of this conceptual perspective is that Social Studies is to prepare students to be responsible, productive and concerned citizens with the ability to make informed and reasoned decisions for the public good as citizens of a culturally diverse democratic society in an interdependent world. This implies Social Studies deals with solving the problems of man. This view is also supported by Engle and Ochoa (1988), Barr et al. (1977), Kissock (1981), Banks (1985), Quartey (1987), Blege (2001), and Eshun and Mensah (2013a). They all have the notion that the subject must equip the individual with civic competence that will enable an individual to live and to be lived with. In this direction their expectations are that the content and scope of the subject must be issue centred and problem solving. From the perspective of the traditions of Social Studies (Barr, Barth & Shermis, 1977), Social Studies in the Ghanaian context is largely taught as citizenship transmission and as a simplified social science.

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

According to Merryfield and Wilson (2005):

> multicultural education and global education had very different origins. Emerging from the civil rights movement in the 1960's, multicultural education was initiated by African Americans and others to bring about educational equity, social justice, and academic success for children of colour. As global education developed in the 1970s and 1980s, tensions developed between these fields as they competed for resources and the attention of the education community (p. 20).

Rapoport (2009) asserted that:

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

First, there is no consensus on the meaning of global citizenship. We cannot use the familiar definition derived from the definition of citizen, argued Noddings (2005) because global citizenship is not about allegiance to a global government that is nonexistent. Mcintosh (2005) related the idea of the global citizen to "habits of mind, heart, body, and soul that have to do with working for and preserving a network of relationships and connections across lines of difference and distinctness, while keeping and deepening a sense of one's own identity and integrity" (p. 23). Dunn (2002) referred to "a citizenry that knows and cares about contemporary affairs in the whole world" (p.10). The absence of a mutually agreed upon definition of global citizenship, which spans from a vague sense of belonging to a global community to more specific ways of individual and collective involvement in global politics (Heater, 1997; Ibrahim, 2005), has enabled researchers and educators to use this term and related terms loosely. It is not much of a surprise that this relatively new concept has also generated a lot of criticism, much of which is related to its social and political aspects. The emerging global civil society that perpetuates global citizenship and "is supposed to give it a 'political' character" (Armstrong, 2006:349) faces several accusations itself: it is terminologically ambiguous, its supporters uncritically apply nation-state phenomena to global processes, and it undermines democracy by weakening the democratic institutions of nation-states. Armstrong (2006) argued that:

> The supposedly "global" elements of global citizenship are much less universal and transcendental and thus, the claim that a meaningful global regime of citizenship is emerging...should be treated with caution (p. 355).

Secondly, global citizenship education is usually conceptualised within the framework of international education, global education (Davis, Evans, & Reid, 2005), multicultural education (Gay, 1988; Sleeter & Grant, 1988; Quashigah, 2001; Dunn, 2002; Bennett, 2003; Banks, 2004; Marri, 2005; Ming & Dukes, 2006), peace education (Oyebamiji, 2001; Smith & Fairman, 2005; Odejobi & Adesina, 2009), human rights education (Guadelli & Fernekes, 2004), moral education (Adesina, 2010), or economic education. Practitioners are very well aware that none of these approaches, except may be economic education, has secured a position in school curricula so far. Thus, global citizenship education, if taught as one of the topics within those frameworks, has become even more secondary. Obviously, global citizenship education should be placed within the broader framework of citizenship education due to the similarity of rationale and the variability of models that the latter offers (Davis et al., 2005). Citizenship education is about civic knowledge, skills, and values. UNESCO resolution No. 39 affirms that the values of tolerance, universality, and mutual understanding are relevant to international organisations, states, and civil societies as well as individual citizens (Pigozzi, 2006). Global citizenship education is not nation citizenship education (Davies, 2006). It is the logical development of a citizenship that is required for all citizens in the 21st century. It should help students to develop cultural, national, and global identifications; it also significantly contributes to civic democratic development (Banks, 2004).

Although Social Studies viewed as global citizenship had its root from the USA, many educators outside that country understood this long ago (Holden, 2000; Engler & Hunt;

2004; Ebbeck, 2006; Ibrahim, 2005), while the attitudes of many US educators to global citizenship education can still be described as cautiously suspicious. The implication here is that teaching and learning about how to inculcate into students how to become competent, reflective and responsible citizens and the functions of democratic government or about decision-making cannot be only based on local or central paradigms. Davies (2006) contended that global education "implies a focus on many different, though overlapping levels from very local and immediate to the vast realities named with phrases such as 'world societies' and 'global village" (p. 6). Sheppard (2004) put it even more succinctly: "Global citizenship is a daily responsibility" (p. 35).

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

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

Schools play a key role in citizenship education and, therefore, are one of the critical providers of global citizenship education. Due to the schools' potential to be aligned with transnational efforts in promoting global civility (Reimers, 2006), the role of teachers can hardly be overstated. Nonetheless, a research demonstrates, teachers are mostly oblivious to the purposes, methods, and content of global citizenship education. For example, out of over 700 teachers in England who rated education for global citizenship as important, very few were confident of their ability to teach it (Davies et al., 2005 in Yamashita, 2006). Overall, passive and in many cases sceptical attitudes to global citizenship and related concepts eventually has resulted in neglect of global citizenship education in many schools worldwide. The growing amount of comparative research, demonstrates that "the

traditional notion of developing democratic understanding needs to be expanded to encompass attention to decision making, controversial issues, and civic action set in multicultural and global contexts" (Hahn, 2001, p. 21). There is also the case where "education system at best approximates the goal of developing national citizens with some relativistic understanding and awareness of the rest of the world" (Myers, 2006, p. 389).

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

> We need an appreciation of global issues which would lead to the realisation that the world has a common course and then we can talk about a common future. We have been emphasising this is America, this is Africa, instead of emphasising this is the world… the U.S. is rich and powerful and exploits resources so it has tons of garbage to be dumped elsewhere. Should that garbage be exported to West Africa? (p. 37).

In the framework of citizenship education, Quashigah (2001) uses multicultural perspective and asks for double consciousness that might lead to a common future. Numerous definitions of multiculturalism and multicultural education have been proposed by scholars, researchers and organisations. According to Bennett (2003), "Multicultural Education is an approach to teaching and learning that is based upon democratic values and beliefs and that affirms cultural pluralism within culturally diverse societies in an

interdependent world" (p. 14). Gorski's (2001:1) definition of multicultural education provided a strong foundation on which curriculum should be developed:

> Multicultural education is a transformative movement in education that produces critically thinking, socially active members of society. It is not simply a change of curriculum or the addition of an activity. It is a movement that calls for new attitudes, new approaches, and a new dedication to laying the foundation for the transformation of society (p. 1).

Banks (1999) suggested a parallel view:

> Multicultural education is an idea, an educational reform movement, and a process whose major goal is to change the structure of educational institutions so that male and female students, exceptional students, and students who are members of diverse, racial, ethnic and cultural groups will have an equal chance to achieve academically in school (p. 1).

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

Maxim (2006) described cultural pluralism as how all the parts of society contribute to a country's whole. Since schools represent community, importantly, schools must reflect the diversity of society. "If children frequently observe ethnic conflict among different minority groups in their neighbourhoods, their behaviour in school may mirror that conflict" (Pattnaik, 2003, p. 207). Schools can make a significant difference for respect for diversity. The key factor is to help children construct an understanding of different cultures, respect for differences, and at the same time, overcome racial and ethnic barriers.

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

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

Teaching culturally different students is more process-oriented than content oriented. Teaching about cultural pluralism emphasises materials development and curriculum design, teaching the culturally different gives priority to teacher education, staff development, and classroom instruction (Bennett, 2003). Teachers play an important role for developing effective multicultural practices in children's lives, and they affect children's views, conceptions, and behaviours (Ming & Dukes, 2006). Young children's

perspectives on diversity are influenced by the beliefs and behaviours of family members and teachers (Ramsey, 1987; Seefeldt, 1997). These people have significant power in guiding children's learning about cultural differences, either positively or negatively. Active intervention by teachers through all aspects of daily classroom life can change children's negative concepts about another group. A more global perspective involves influencing the environment in which children's daily classroom lives create an anti-bias culture in their classrooms, thus preparing children for a diverse society. Also important are teachers' beliefs, values, and perspectives of the other cultural groups affect curricula and teaching practices (Garmon, 2004). As teachers examine and realise their biases and stereotypes, they begin to recognise how these biases influence their teaching and relationships with children who are culturally diverse. Ming and Dukes (2006) pursued the examination of beliefs and values as introspection. "During this time of self-reflection, teachers analyse their own feelings toward those who are culturally different, determine how it relates to the dominant culture, and think about what frame of reference influences these feelings" (Ming & Dukes, 2006, p. 44).

Sleeter and Grant (1988) generated five common approaches that can minimise the influences:

a. teaching culturally different students to fit into mainstream society.
b. human relations that emphasises diverse peoples living together harmoniously.
c. single group studies which concentrates on developing awareness, respect and acceptance of one group at a time.

d. focusing on prejudice reduction, providing equal opportunities and social justice for all groups, effects of inequitable power distribution on ethnic or cultural groups; and
e. multicultural and social re-constructionist for teaching students to become analytical and critical thinkers and social reformers who are committed to redistribution of power and other resources among diverse groups.

Culturally responsive teaching strategies bring home and community culture into classroom practice. "Effective teachers use knowledge of their students' culture and ethnicity as a framework for inquiry and they organise and implement instruction" (Banks et al., 2001, p. 198). Those are the teachers who understand, accept, and adopt multicultural perspectives in the name of Social Studies. Knowledge of multicultural education in Social Studies is an invaluable cognitive experience of analysing various cultures in today's interdependent world (Faggella-Luby & Deshler, 2008). It increases capacity for intellectual open-mindedness and develop a global perspective about issues to effectively navigate a global landscape by encouraging an understanding of cultural differences (Davis, 2009; Salako, 2010). Equity in pedagogy exists when teachers modify their teaching in ways that will facilitate the academic achievement of students from diverse racial, cultural and social-class groups (Banks, 2009). The development of skills required for all these call for the introduction of appropriate approaches of teaching Social Studies.

Another conceptual perspective about Social Studies is how morals are imparted to children. Moral education was introduced into the school system at the elementary stage in order to inculcate moral uprightness in small children so that by the time they grow up they would not become a menace to the nation (Adesina, 2010). According to Adesina, factors

such as poor teaching methods, lackadaisical attitudes of the learners to learning because of social influences such as the attitude of the masses especially in regards to looking for money or wealth at all cost, corruption by law enforcement agents and politicians and the inconsistencies of government policies as regards to education militate against the achievement of the goals set for the subject.

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

Peace education in the name of Social Studies is defined by Oyebamiji (2001) as an excellent instrument for the promotion of peace among youth and adult members of any given society. It is the systematic acquisition of relevant peace knowledge in our environment and the world around us. Peace Education is essentially the type of education in which learners are taught how to develop sense of maturity in their activities or encounters with people and embrace the principles of cultural relativity and shun cultural ethnocentrism. The development of game spirit and political maturity are essential ingredients' in learning peace tenets. Atanda (2010) listed the effects of conflicts in the home, school, work places, larger communities and among nations as destruction of public properties, disobedience to constituted authorities (social disorder or anarchy), disturbance

of social and economic activities and prolonged conflicts which may lead to tribal or civil war. This results from not imparting to children peace education. Peace Education is best introduced to the children if the type of education would achieve its goals. This view is supported by the assertion of Oyebamiji (2001) who wrote that:

> The state of youth violence in our society has reached a stage of an urgent need for appropriate solution if we are to develop our nation. Education is a major agency in the socialisation of youths. As such when the younger generation tends to be more deviant, the indication is that something is wrong within the educational system. The present educational system has failed to serve as a means of transmitting the main ingredients of our culture to the younger generations. The need to make education socially relevant cannot be over-emphasised (p. 1).

Since the youthful stage is the common stage where people get involved in crises and conflicts and it is the immediate level of development after childhood, introducing peace tenets to children before developing to the youth stage would likely be appropriate. Children tend to remember and think fast about what they hear, see and experience. When the ideal in peace education are properly taught, students may likely retain what they learnt and use them in their latter endeavours.

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

> Combining learning, training, information and reaction, international education should further the appropriate intellectual and emotional development of the individual. It should develop a sense of social responsibility and of solidarity with less privileged groups and should lead to observance of the principles of equality in everyday conduct. It should also help develop qualities, aptitudes, and abilities which enable the individual to acquire a

> critical understanding of problems at the national and the international level; to work in a group; to accept and participate in free discussion; and to base value-judgments and decisions on a national analysis of relevant facts and factors (p.132).

Also, religious studies has as one of its major aims, the teaching of religious values which would bring about ideal behaviours among learners with the hope of improving the future as indicated by the National Examination Council (NECO, 2011). If valid objectives are to be drawn from the various definitions/conceptions given above, then each of them will have a different outline of content altogether. The confusion created by varying definitions and perceived objectives could hinder the teaching and attainments of the subject's goal. However, putting the various conceptions and explanations of Social Studies together, Dynneson and Gross (1999) provide a definition that can be used to support any Social Studies instructional programme. In their view, Social Studies can summarily be seen as:

> An integration of broad field of learning, drawing upon the concepts and processes of the Social Sciences and related areas; it features problem-focused inquiry, ethical decision making, and personal or civic action on issues vital to individuals and their society. (p. 13)

Their definition has two implications. The first is the material that is studied (the content of Social Studies). This includes information, ideas, skills, generalisations, concepts, principles, issues, and inquiry procedures drawn from the Social Sciences - History, Geography, Government, Civics, Political Science, Economics, Sociology, and Anthropology. Others are Literature, Music and the Visual and Performing Arts, Religion and Archaeology. These fields serve as resources for the Social Studies curriculum which blends and integrates them as and when necessary to provide learners with worthwhile

experiences. The second implication is the purpose of Social Studies, which is citizenship education.

By surveying the various definitions/conceptions, it is equally true to assert that in spite of the turmoil in Social Studies there is a general agreement among academics about what the essential goals and, especially, the overarching goal of Social Studies ought to be. Risinger (1997) has observed that "for all the arguments, convention speeches, and journal articles, it seems clear that the term citizenship education lies at the heart of Social Studies" (p. 223). Likewise, the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) (2006) has long been a leading advocate in this area, linking citizenship education to the core mission of the Social Studies, as well as the leading scholars in Social Studies, have all identified citizenship education as the major and overarching goal of Social Studies. This view is also shared by CRDD (2007) and was, in fact, the basis for the introduction of Social Studies into the curriculum of Ghanaian basic school. This suggests that development of Social Studies must depend on a consensus building of a definition which in its effect will enhance its contents, objectives and even the assessment tools to be used for the subject by its experts. On this, Jarolimek (1981) and Maxim (1983) hold the view that definition provides distinctiveness of scope, nature, focus and structure of a subject. This shows that consensus definition and conception of Social Studies will help to sharpen its focus and enhance its growth in Ghana and the continent of Africa. The conceptions of the various ideas can influence teachers in their classroom teaching and learning.

## 2.3 Teachers' Perceptions of how Social Studies should be taught

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

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

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

students who induce teachers to adopt a more didactic approach (Richardson 2005). In addition, teachers who experience different contexts may adopt different approaches to teaching in those different contexts (Lindblom-Ylanne & Trigwell, 2006). Efforts to improve teaching have often failed because the complexity of teaching has been underestimated and such attempts should consider the integrated system of relationships that constitute the teaching experience as a whole (Leveson, 2004). One such important complicating influence is differences that are found between discipline areas (Lindblom-Ylanne et al., 2006), which suggest a need to understand teaching from both a general and discipline-specific perspective (Leveson, 2004). Beliefs about teaching vary markedly across different disciplines and these variations are related to the pedagogue's beliefs about the nature of the discipline they are teaching (Richardson, 2005). There is a lack of empirical evidence that development in conceptions of teaching will result in prompt improvement in teaching practice (Ho et al., 2001). There is at least one alternate model (Guskey, 1986; Guskey, 2002) of teacher change that suggests it is the experience of successful implementation that changes the attitudes and beliefs of teachers. Pedagogues believe change will work because they have seen it work and this experience is what changes their conceptions of teaching and learning (Guskey, 2002). Existing research informs us of the static relationship between existing conceptions and teaching practice, but has limited findings in terms of the dynamics of the way changes in teaching conceptions are transferred to changes in teaching practice and at what rate (Ho et al., 2001). This implies that responsive-evaluation procedures need to be carried out to allow curriculum implementers and evaluators to respond to emerging issues as well as to preconceived issues as there are changing conceptions of teaching and learning.

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

According to Chandler (2005), factors that influence teachers' acceptance or rejection of an idea include perception of relevance and self-interest. Kyle (1999) adds that in many cases student-teachers are tailored to certain concepts and are expected simply to appropriateness as embodied in their teachers' mind set, how they are expected to think in their subject areas and the routines of activities that they are to observe and how they are to behave. Again, Kyle (1999) asserts that the early period of modelling, guidance and scaffolding give way to a phase in which student-teachers assume the role of a teacher towards the subject they are to teach. This implies that the formal training of teacher-trainees must be taken seriously for them to form a better conception about the Social Studies that will help to realise the purpose of introducing the subject (positive attitudinal building) in the Ghanaian school curriculum.

Shiundu and Mohammed (1994) emphatically remark that it is all too often unfortunate but true that teachers teach the way they are taught. According to Shiundu and Mohammed (1994), "One fundamental problem of the existing preserves of Social Studies teacher

training programmes in many countries is that they have very little or no demonstrable relevance for the functions and responsibilities which teachers are expected to perform" (p. 6). This problem is reflected either in the makeup of the curriculum or in its deliberations. Akinlaye (2003) therefore clearly states, "It is ethically and professionally appropriate that teachers must understand what 'teaching and learning' process of Social Studies is all about" (p. 15). He further explains that the tactics adopted by the teachers in going about in discharging their functions is greatly influenced by their perception of teaching Social Studies.

Brown (1992) asserts that "teachers' perception about their subject greatly influences their teaching and does so negatively" (p. 3). Some drawbacks as revealed by curriculum (syllabus) and instruction; teachers get confused about their course content and teachers apply inaccurate and inappropriate measurements of what is taught and learned. Parker (2001) sharing the same view, asserts that Social Studies professionals who actually work with children in schools and implement the curriculum have the strongest possibilities of reforming the subject. Akinlaye (2002) asserts that "what teachers' believe to be good instructional content to teach and appropriate methods to use in the classroom are greatly influenced by teachers' perception of the subject" (p. 4). This implies that teachers who are indoctrinated with a given concept will be difficult to be de-indoctrinated and this will go a long way to influence their teaching.

Studies conducted by Almarza (2001), Chiodo and Byford (2004), and Bekoe and Eshun (2013) also reveal that, it is the teacher who is the key to what Social Studies means to students, because teachers' conception of the subject Social Studies, in turn affects the way they teach and transmit knowledge to students. A study by Quashigah, Eshun and Mensah

(2013) concluded that "the pedagogical content knowledge of Social Studies teachers do influence the way they assess their lessons" (p. 84). Chiodo and Byford's (2004) study revealed that teachers' attitudes towards Social Studies education have unique influence on the Social Studies curriculum. Similarly, the findings from other studies indicate that the decisions of what to teach our children under Social Studies education often shift and are dependent on the influence of the conception of the teacher about the subject (Evans, 2004; Todd, 2005; Bekoe & Eshun, 2013c). Akinlaye (2003) asserts that, all over the world, the value of instruction depends; to a large extent on the quality of professional training of teachers and the perceptions they hold about their subject areas. This implies that teachers hold the key to sound educational system of any nation and that the educational standard of the teachers, their quality, and competency and above all the cognition they have and form about a subject need to be taken into prominence.

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

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

There is agreement in general education studies that teachers' belief greatly impacts their instructional decisions in the classroom (Shavelson & Stern, 1981; Tillema, 2000). As Borg (2003) suggests, "teachers are active, thinking decision-makers who make instructional choices by drawing on complex practically-oriented, personalised, and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts, and beliefs" (p.81). Indeed, research has indicated that teachers possess a vast array of complex beliefs about pedagogical issues including beliefs about students and classroom practices (Shavelson & Stern, 1981; Burns, 2000; Borg, 1998, 2003). These beliefs are said to form a structured set of principles and are derived from a teacher's prior experiences, school practices, and a teacher's individual personality (Borg, 2003). Furthermore, and as noted by Shavelson and Stern (1981), what teachers do in the classroom is said to be governed by what they believe and these beliefs often serve to act as a filter through which instructional judgments and decisions are made. This implies that teachers' curriculum conception may probably influence the way an educational package is delivered to pupils with the aim of fulfilling individual and societal goals.

**Teachers' Curriculum Conception and Curriculum Implementation**

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

According to Whitson (2007), a syllabus describes the content of a programme and can be seen as one part of a curriculum. Most curricula are not developed from scratch and all operate within organisational and societal constraints. Since teacher-trainees use the curriculum in their teaching practice, it makes sense to investigate teacher-trainees' conception and sense in implementing the basic school Social Studies curriculum in Ghana. According to Urevbu (1985), formal curriculum refers to:

> What is laid down as the syllabus or that which is to be learnt by students. It is the officially selected body of knowledge which government, through the Ministry of Education or anybody offering education, wants students to learn. This curriculum meets specified objectives of educating identified groups of learners or students in their varying settings. In other words, formal curriculum is the selected written programmes or courses students go through (p. 3).

Urevbu (1985) refers to informal curriculum as "the curriculum in use." Teachers or instructors may not adhere to the presented formal curriculum but can include other aspects of knowledge derived from other sources. This additional material is called the "informal curriculum" (p. 3). The actual curriculum refers to both written and unwritten syllabuses

from which students encounter learning experiences (Tanner & Tanner 1979). Learning experiences can be selected from other sources rather than the prescribed, official and formal syllabuses. The actual curriculum is the total sum of what students learn and teachers teach from both formal and informal curricula.

Hidden curriculum according to Urevbu (1985) is the "non-academic but educationally significant component of schooling" (p. 3). Tanner and Tanner (1995) prefer to call it the 'collateral curriculum'. They argue that the word 'hidden' implies deliberately concealing some learning experiences from students. Since this is not written or officially recognised, its influence on learning can manifest itself in students' attitudes and behaviour, both during and after completing their studies. What is acquired or learned from hidden curriculum is usually remembered longer than information learned at school. Tanner and Tanner (1975) recommend that positive learning from the hidden curriculum should be acknowledged and treated as an integral part of the planned and guided learning experiences. As already implied, the hidden or collateral curriculum is often responsible for the values students may exhibit later in life. This implies that the curriculum that is written and published, for example as course documentation, is the official or formal curriculum.

The aim of educational development is to ensure that the official curriculum is delivered as the functional curriculum and there is not a mismatch as development turns into implementation. The official curriculum can also be distinguished from the hidden, unofficial or counter curriculum. Paul Willis' work on the sociology of schooling for example describes how the informal pupil group comprising working class 'lads' has its own sub-culture and counter curriculum which involves 'mucking about', 'doing nothing'

and 'having a laugh' (Willis, 1977, pp. 62-63). The hidden curriculum describes those aspects of the educational environment and student learning (such as values and expectations that students acquire as a result of going through an educational process) which are not formally or explicitly stated but which relate to the culture and ethos of an organisation. This highlights that the process of learning is as important as its product and as such pre-service teachers need to be aware of both the formal and informal factors which impact on learning.

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

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

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

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

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

Finally, the academic curriculum focuses on necessary knowledge needed to spring forward into the workforce. This conception acknowledges change, and seeks to form a foundation that can be used in various disciplines. Students should learn to ask questions, hypothesise, synthesise, execute scientific procedures, and apply their skills in new contexts. Some subjects have universal value, and can be applied in many situations.

Essentially, students learn how to learn, thereby preparing them for problems in the future not yet imagined.

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

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

Defining what should be in the curriculum plans for the classroom requires answering the questions:

a. Who should determine what is taught?
b. What material should be taught?

It would appear that there are a limited number of options available to curriculum developers in answering these questions. Who determines the curriculum can only be one or more of the following:

a. Students' needs or wants.
b. Teachers' knowledge and expertise.
c. Government's policies in response to society's problems or issues.

The options for determining the substance of curriculum relates to either:

a. Important content, such as what make up citizenship education.
b. Important processes, such as knowing how to learn.

Many studies have explored how teachers' conception of various subjects, including, Social Studies, Mathematics, English language, and History impact on curriculum implementation (Thompson, 1992; Calderhead, 1996). Studies have shown that teachers develop a subject understanding that is "broad and deep, enabling them to facilitate the building of similar connections in the minds of others" (Calderhead, 1996, p. 716). They also have shown that the way teachers understand their subject affects the way they teach and assess. A reason for looking at Social Studies curriculum is that most teachers are not

just delivery mechanisms or conduits for curriculum; rather they are creators or makers and implementers of curriculum (Clandinin & Connelly, 1992).

In this study the term 'Social Studies conception' is used to capture all that a teacher thinks, believes, and prefers about the nature and purpose of the subject in an educational process and practice (Thompson, 1992) and is a useful term to capture responses to complex and difficult categories of experience as used in curriculum (White, 1994). Other researchers (Eisner & Vallance, 1974; Cheung & Wong, 2002) use the term "orientation", which is considered to be equivalent in meaning (Brown, 2008). Five major orientations to curriculum have been described:

a. Curriculum is about the development of processes or skills, especially in the cognitive domain rather than just in life or social domains.
b. Curriculum is about exploiting approaches to maximise outputs.
c. Curriculum is about reforming or revolutionizing society in order to bring about greater justice and benefits for all.
d. Curriculum is about maximizing the humanity of individuals by helping them develop their full potential.
e. Curriculum is about identifying and passing on valued academic knowledge and intellectual developments (Eisner & Vallance, 1974; Cheung, 2000).

Cheung (2000) has argued that these orientations to curriculum:

a. Explain why teachers emphasise certain topics.
b. Clarify the real meaning or intent of curriculum documents.
c. Influence both teaching profession and curriculum development.

Inspection of curriculum practice is not guaranteed to expose teachers' true orientation to curriculum as various contextual constraints may impose common curriculum practices on teachers with highly divergent views of curriculum (Cheung & Ng, 2000). Although teachers have interconnected conceptions of curriculum drawing on several orientations simultaneously, there appear to be patterns in teacher conception of curriculum (Cheung, 2000).

Thompson (1992) defines a teacher's conception as:

> Teacher's conscious or subconscious beliefs, concepts, meanings, rules, mental images, and preferences concerning the discipline of mathematics. Those beliefs, concepts, views, and preferences constitute the rudiments of a philosophy of mathematics, although for some teachers they may not be developed and articulated into a coherent philosophy (p. 132).

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

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

Research studies (Thompson, 1992) conclude that teachers' conception of a subject or a curriculum would shape their perceived curriculum and therefore their implemented curriculum. This implies that teachers' conception is of high importance in the implementation process. It is therefore useful to inquire into the characteristics of pre-service teachers' conception of Social Studies if we want to have a deep understanding of the implementation process of the basic school Social Studies curriculum.

Indeed, the importance of the teacher in the successful implementation of curriculum reform has been revealed in studies both in the West (that is, Nias, Southworth, & Campbell, 1992; Fullan, 2001) and the East (Adamson, Kwan, & Chan, 2000; Lee, Woo & Mackenzie, 2002). Under the school-based curriculum development policy, the importance of teachers to the implementation of integrated programmes like Social Studies in schools is even more obvious. The importance of studying teachers' conception and curriculum implementation can be seen from Goodlad's (1979) five levels of curriculum, namely ideal, formal, perceived, implemented, and experiential curricula. The theories and principles about curriculum integration derived from literature and research studies could be seen as representing the "ideal curriculum." The "formal curriculum" of the initiative is developed or decided by local curriculum developers or policy-makers. Teachers' interpretation of the formal curriculum becomes their "perceived curriculum." The

"implemented curriculum" represents the classroom implementation of curriculum integration. In reality, teachers' perceived and implemented curricula are usually affected by the "social context." Social context implies the social environment of teachers, including the tradition and culture of society, the expectation of parents and other stakeholders, the school context, and so on. Finally, students will go through the "experiential curriculum" as teachers deliver it. As Goodlad (1979) postulates, the implemented curriculum often differs in diverse ways from the ideal or formal curriculum. The perceived and implemented curricula vary from the conception of persons (policy-makers or curriculum developers) who plan or devise a curriculum innovation. Teachers usually do not strictly adhere to a proposed change but implement their own version of a curriculum with their own interpretation or conception.

In general, studies of teachers' understanding of the subjects they teach have shown those conceptions affect the way teachers teach and assess (Ertmer, 2005; Kane, Sandretto, & Heath, 2002; Prosser, Martin, Trigwell, Ramsden, & Lueckenhausen, 2005). These implicit orientations to curriculum shape the topics teachers emphasise and the meaning teachers give to curriculum documents. For example, in Social Studies, different major conceptions of the subject (that is, multidisciplinary, traditional or discrete subjects understanding versus problem-solving oriented and trans-disciplinary understanding) are claimed to be major disagreement. With subject like mathematics, according to Thompson (1992), different major conceptions of the subject (that is, relational understanding versus instrumental understanding) are claimed to be "at the root of disagreements about what constitutes 'sound' approaches to the teaching of the subject and what constitutes 'sound' student assessment practices" (p. 133). Cheung and Wong (2002) have argued that

teachers' conceptions of curriculum affect the content of curriculum implementation. In contrast, Olafson and Schraw (2006) found that the practices of the teachers they studied were not strongly aligned with their dominant world views, which they exemplified with the case of one teacher who strongly supported a student-centred contextualist position (that is, humanistic) but who also made robust use of a scripted programme associated with a realist position (that is, academic knowledge). Thus, it may be that humanistic teachers who believe curriculum is predominantly about nurturing children may well believe that developing their cognitive skills and academic knowledge is a fundamental component of such care. Hence, this association may be a logical association to the teacher, but this blending of conceptions may have "more to do with naivety than reflective selection" (Olafson & Schraw, 2006, p. 79). It seems important then to understand how teachers conceive of the material they are actually teaching for its relations to other classroom practices.

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

It is important that a classroom practitioner knows what is involved in implementing the prescribed curriculum. Curriculum implementation entails putting into practice the officially prescribed courses of study, syllabuses and subjects (Urevbu, 1985). The process involves helping the learner acquire knowledge or experience. It is important to note that curriculum implementation cannot take place without the learner. The learner is therefore the central figure in the curriculum implementation process. Implementation takes place as the learner acquires the planned or intended experiences, knowledge, skills, ideas and attitudes that are aimed at enabling the same learner to function effectively in a society (University of Zimbabwe, 1995, p. 8). Viewed from this perspective, curriculum implementation also refers to the stage when the curriculum itself, as an educational programme, is put into effect. Putting a curriculum into operation requires an implementing agent. Stenhouse (1975) identifies the teacher as the agent in the curriculum implementation process. She argues that implementation is the manner in which the teacher selects and mixes the various aspects of knowledge contained in a curriculum document or syllabus. Implementation takes place when the teacher-constructed syllabus, the teacher's personality, the teaching materials and the teaching environment interact with the learner (University of Zimbabwe, 1995). Curriculum implementation therefore refers to how the planned or officially designed course of study is translated by the teacher into schemes of work and lessons to be delivered to students. If one aims at quality practice one cannot wish that practitioners take a curriculum proposal literally, but should work towards a one-to-one translation of the curriculum proposal into practice. Curriculum practitioners need to apply it to the local practice as true as possible to the original intentions, since knowledge in general-preliminary, hypothetical, incomplete, more or less de-contextualised and worth

of being scrutinised and developed. Rather, one must wish that teachers take the specific circumstances of their locality and of their constituencies into account in order to produce and evaluate a local version of the curriculum which is adapted to what is productive and feasible under these specific circumstances.

Stenhouse (1975) states that:

> The mistake is to see the classroom as a place to apply laboratory findings rather than as a place to refute or confirm them. Curriculum workers need to share the psychologists' curiosity about the process of learning rather than to be dominated by their conclusions (p. 26).

Thus, the main actors of implementation are the practitioners themselves, because they are responsible for the educational process and they cannot pass on this responsibility to external agencies (Stenhouse, 1985). External agencies and persons, such as researchers, curriculum developers, in-service trainers may support and stimulate the development of practice; decisions about initiating development and the control over its direction are the realm of practitioners' professional judgment (Stenhouse, 1975). Curriculum development is not just the production of written goals and materials before classroom practice but, at the end, concrete interaction in the classroom between learners and teachers aiming to develop situations with high learning potential. Factors that influence curriculum implementation are: teacher, learners, resource materials and facilities, interest groups, school environment, culture and ideology, instructional supervision (Whitaker, 1993).

Whitaker (1993) asserts that teachers view their role in curriculum implementation as an autonomous one. They select and decide what to teach from the prescribed syllabus or curriculum. The curriculum implementation module of University of Zimbabwe (1995)

states that: “since implementation takes place through the interaction of the learner and the planned learning opportunities, the role and influence of the teacher in the process is indisputable” (p. 28). This implies that teachers are pivotal in the curriculum implementation process, but what is their role in the curriculum planning process?” If the teacher is to be able to translate curriculum intentions into reality, it is imperative that the teacher understand the curriculum document or syllabus well in order to implement it effectively. Teachers must be involved in curriculum planning and development so that they can implement and modify the curriculum for the benefit of their learners. In educational practice, these factors interact with each other and generate influences that cannot be attributed to one factor or another. This implies it should be viewed as a whole.

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

McNeil (2009) states that “curriculum evaluation is an attempt to throw light on two questions: Do planned learning opportunities, programmes, courses and activities as developed and organised actually produce desired results? How can the curriculum offerings best be improved?” (p. 134). Ornstein and Hunkins (1998) define curriculum evaluation as “a process or cluster of processes that people perform in order to gather data that will enable them to decide whether to accept, change, or eliminate something - the curriculum in general or an educational textbook in particular” (p. 320). Gay (1988) on his part argues that the aim of curriculum evaluation is to identify its weaknesses and strengths

as well as problems encountered in implementation; to improve the curriculum development process; to determine the effectiveness of the curriculum and the returns on finance allocated. According to Gatawa (1990), the term curriculum evaluation has three major meanings:

a. The process of describing and judging an educational programme or subject.
b. The process of comparing a student's performance with behaviourally stated objectives; and
c. The process of defining, obtaining and using relevant information for decision-making purposes. There is the need to understand that each of these definitions does not exist in isolation from the others, although each can be an activity on its own (p. 50).

The first activity involves the collection of descriptive and judgemental information for the purpose of establishing whether an educational programme or project is doing what it is expected to do. The evaluator pronounces judgement at the end of the exercise. The second activity involves comparing the performance of one or more students with set standards. Such an evaluation determines the extent to which the objectives of a learning activity are being realised. This is the kind of evaluation teachers do on a daily basis. The third activity is concerned with the identification of deficiencies in an educational programme or syllabus for the purpose of effecting revision and improvement (Gatawa, 1990). Urevbu (1985) advised that curriculum evaluation exercises must usually combine these three activities. Data is collected for passing judgement, to identify deficiencies in programmes and to analyse programmes in order to determine alternatives or find appropriate interventions.

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

With regard to how curriculum evaluation functions, Urevbu (1985) has identified some to be:

a. Informing decision-makers on the state of affairs of certain curriculum programmes or syllabuses.
b. Enabling teachers to evaluate themselves.

With respect to the first function, Partlett and Hamilton, in Urevbu (1985), argue that "the principal purpose of evaluation is to contribute to decision making" (p. 64). In this circumstances it implies, curriculum evaluations are conducted in order to correct deficiencies, make improvements and establish new priorities. This shows for meaningful decisions to be made, they must be supported by evidence from evaluation exercises. This puts, the teacher, at the centre of the evaluation exercise. The advantage of self-evaluation is that it allows you to change the curriculum or instructional strategies if evaluations show that they could be more effective (Urevbu, 1985). If we are to make adjustments in the future we must know why we are changing and the direction in which change should proceed (Gatawa, 1990). This emphasises the fact that evaluation is not something which

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

> There are limitations to the amount and nature of the evaluative role that a teacher may take. First, a teacher's life is a busy one, and time constraints will limit the amount of effort that most teachers may put into evaluation. Second, because a teacher is a teacher, and thus, a significant person in the learning process, his / her roles as evaluator will be limited. It is possible to be too closely involved in a situation, politically and emotionally, to ask questions that might challenge one's own interests (p. 37).

The problem cannot be ignored; however, as it is only through the processes of marshalling information and mounting arguments that interested individuals are able to participate in critical debate about curriculum matters and issues. What can be done? The solution would seem to share the tasks. In this way, co-operative, group efforts can spread the load and reduce the pressure on individual teachers (Stake, 2004). A classroom is a very complex place and it is impossible to evaluate everything. Even with the best intentions, two or more people evaluating a lesson may see different things. The task is to enable people to look

through the same eyes. We need to be able to agree on what is to be observed, when, by whom and for what purpose. We then need to be able to discuss our findings in such a way that individuals do not feel threatened, so that positive and constructive evaluation can be made (Gatawa, 1990).

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

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

There does exist, however, a range of curriculum evaluation models, which can provide a useful structure for teachers wishing to make more effective their role as curriculum implementers and act as evaluators. The Stufflebeam CIPP model of 2001, the Stake's Countenance model of 1967 and the Standards-Based and Responsive Evaluation model of 2004 proposed by Stake are discussed out of other models like the Eisner's Connoisseurship Model (1979), and the Davis' Process Model (1981). Stake's models will

be discussed as theories underpinning the research. Daniel L. Stufflebeam (2001), chaired the Phi Delta Kappa National Study Committee on Evaluation, and introduced a widely cited model of evaluation known as the CIPP (Context, Input, Process and Product) model (Gatawa, 1990). The approach when applied to education aims to determine if a particular educational effort has resulted in a positive change in school, college, university or training organisation. A major aspect of the Stufflebeam's model is centred on decision making or an act of making up one's mind about the programme introduced. According to Stufflebeam (1971), for evaluations to be done correctly and aid in the decision making process, curriculum evaluators have to:

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

To decide whether to maintain, modify or eliminate the curriculum or programme, information is obtained by conducting the following four types of evaluation: context, input, process and product. Stufflebeam's model of evaluation relies on both formative and summative evaluation to determine the overall effectiveness of a curriculum programme and that evaluation is required at all levels of the programme implemented (Gatawa, 1990).

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

**Effective Teaching of Social Studies**

In the teaching and learning of Social Studies as a subject, Schmidt (2007) suggested three aspects of instruction - content, learning and outcomes - that need to be reconnected with the fundamental humanity of this discipline. This means that aside content, teacher trainees need to learn methodology before going on practice. This indicates that techniques of teaching and assessment need to be taken seriously to reflect the subject objective of building positive attitudes. This can be acquired through observation, initiation and practice. This notwithstanding, according to Eshun and Mensah (2013b) "discrepancies exist between what teachers said they assessed and what they actually assessed in Social Studies" (p. 194). A research conducted by Eshun and Mensah (2013b) revealed that test items addressed in the end of term examination in Social Studies were mainly those measuring cognitive outcomes. Within the cognitive domain, the only levels which were covered are knowledge or recall and a little bit of comprehension. More objective test questions were used than the essay type of questions. The authors concluded that these results are a clear indication that the way students are tested in the Social Studies end of term examination is contrary to the main goals and objectives of the subject which is to develop a reflective, concerned, responsible and participatory citizen in the civic life of individuals in a country. The Curriculum Research and Development Division of Ghana (CRDD, 2007) asserts that Social Studies prepares the individual to fit into society by

equipping him/her with knowledge about the culture and ways of life of their society, its problems, its values and its hopes for the future. This task calls for effective curriculum implementers. Eshun, Bordoh, Bassaw and Mensah (2014) assert that "effective formative assessor requires someone who has the necessary depth of content knowledge of the subject s/he is teaching" (p. 46). To them, lesson delivery is seen to be a two way affair only if teachers share achievable success criteria with student in lesson presentation; using relevant activities from the beginning of the lesson to the end. This suggests that achieving this lofty goal of Social Studies to a large extent depends on how well the teacher handles the subject. Thus, the subject teacher must be trained Social Studies and must be able to develop teaching and learning methods that will lead to the effective attainment of the subject's goal, is development of positive attitudes of students.

Teaching, according to Borich (2004), is a complex and difficult task that demands extraordinary abilities. According to Kyriacou (1995), effective teaching is essentially concerned with how best to bring about the desired pupil learning by some educational activities. He further asserts that the term effective teaching also derives from psychological perspective on thinking about teaching, where the implicit emphasis is on identifying observable behaviour in the classroom which can be linked with an influence on observable and measurable product variables in line with the general psychological perspective regarding how best to explore human behaviour. This goes to say that an effective teacher plans his or her lessons with some objectives to achieve at the end of the lesson in order to instil in the students the desirable knowledge, attitudes, values and skills. To inculcate the right skills, values, knowledge, and attitudes in students to see Social Studies as a problem-solving activity, there is the need for effective teaching in all the

phases of teacher education. Klu (1997) posits that teacher education is in three phases which are pre-service, induction and in-service all of which must be seriously executed to enable the teacher to be abreast with the demands of his job. Duodu (2002) also postulates that effective teacher education depends on the quality of instruction given in training institutions and the induction given to them at their new stations. This implies that imbuing of appropriate skills should be given priority in pre-service preparation and in-service training as a support for the transition into full professional teacher status and survival of a novice teacher. The inculcation of the right attitude, values and skills in learners, in the depends on the selection of content, teaching and assessment techniques, which the ideal Social Studies teacher must be competent enough to possess. This however, according to Bekoe, Eshun and Bordoh (2013), is due to hasty nature in formulating formative assessment and scoring, tutors rather laid emphasis on cognitive domain to the neglect of affective and psychomotor domains which are also of paramount importance. This implies teaching and learning has not taken place until the learner has shown observable evidence of change in attitude. Making good use of formative strategies in assessing students helps them to examine their strength and weakness and this result in improving teaching practice (Eshun et al., 2014). This suggests that there is the need for effective teaching and learning of students to imbue the affective skills for them to do right things and to be problem solvers.

Affective learning according to Plutchik (1980) is the outcome or the feeling or tone that is expressed by such term as attitude, beliefs, values, appreciation or interest. To him, these are concepts that many teachers are not likely to know that they can be taught. They therefore pay little attention to its pedagogy. This suggests that affective teaching and

learning is often neglected because it is a phenomenon that is poorly understood. The implication here is that students are always taught facts and these facts are memorised for examination purposes.

I wish to argue further that theoretical concept will become part of the individual's frame of reference only after he has experienced meaningfully at an emotional level. Reflection plays an important role in this process by providing a bridge, as it were, between experience and theoretical conceptualisation. In addition, with teacher-directed approaches using structured lesson or lecture formats and teacher-initiated discussion, learning takes place mainly at an intellectual level. The students remain more or less passive recipients of information that does not require them to examine their own emotional responses to the subject matter. They can thus remain personally unaware of the effects of their own responses of the subject matter on themselves or on other people, and the intensity of such responses will be very low. The way Social Studies is taught needs to get a makeover. So many Social Studies teachers only teach by lecturing and expect rote memorisation from their students. This happens often because of the "overwhelming amount of material contained in a typical state of Social Studies curriculum framework" (Vogler & Virtue, 2007). The teachers have so much information they are required to cover that they "have trouble getting beyond "just the facts" content coverage and into higher-level, critical thinking, especially because of the limited class time available" (p. 55).

One main reason teachers have to cover so much information is because of high stakes testing. Researchers have found that "teachers under the pressure of high stakes testing tend to increase their dependency on teacher-centred instructional practices (for example, lecture) and the superficial coverage of content driven textbooks" (Vogler & Virtue, 2007,

p. 56). High stakes testing has caused teachers to move away from student-centred approaches "such as discussion, role-play, research papers, and cooperative learning" because they need to learn "just the facts" because that is what the tests cover as stated by Vogler and Virtue (2007, p. 55).

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

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

> There are four basic elements that are essential for the success of any role-playing activity. The first element is that the activity

> builds on knowledge the students already possess about a particular historical context. A teacher cannot expect students to role-play about something they have no prior knowledge of. The second element is to design the roles yourself to maximise student involvement and student conflict. Having conflicting perspectives is a must. The third element is to set up a specific situation. Do not let the students go without giving them a focal point for debate. The last element is the instructor's limited involvement and willingness to be flexible. The instructor needs to guide the students along, but not overbear the conversation and let the students take their own path to understanding (pp. 357-360).

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

Morris (2003) wrote about a type of role-playing for history classes that is also effective. Morris says when students act out history, their act engage the subject matter. The rest of his article gives suggestions for how to create Social Studies lessons using drama or in other words role-playing. In order to come up with a good role-playing lesson, the teacher must have first read extensively on the subject being covered and then "summarise the information and convert the material into a meaningful story with a setting, characters, and conflict" as pointed out by Morris (2003, p. 44). The next step is for the teacher to convert the summary of the lesson into objectives and put them up in the form of questions somewhere in the classroom that is highly visible to the students to enable the students to see what they should be learning from the lesson (Morris, 2003). Morris's idea for the actual lesson is to have the students divided into groups and have them go around to different stations where they participate in something from the time period they are studying. An example would be to have one station with where they listen to music of the

time period and learn a dance. Another station would be a meeting of farmers talking about their crops and how they get them to grow. They get to learn about the culture as well as the economy within the time period. Morris (2003) states:

> because they have learned both background knowledge and conceptual tools by acting out, all students can experience success. For the assessment...the task can seem daunting, but the students are prepared to handle it because the material has become part of them (p. 47).

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

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

This idea is supported by Schaap (2005) that "role-playing is more likely to promote active learning amongst undergraduate students than a traditional university lecture (p. 46)." Schaap asserts that by using role-playing technique students have a high level of energy and excitement, they are encouraged to express ideas and they are able to get immediate feedback on ideas. Chan (2012) mentioned that role-play makes the classroom more dynamic through various verbal and non-verbal acts of the students in addition to their cognitive process that is required to understand, interpret and analyse the meanings of the role play. Riera, Cibanal and Mora (2010) noted that learning with role-playing enables students to gain confidence while reduces their anxiety, furthermore role-playing

encourages creativity, sharpens one's perception and enables the participants to understand group dynamics, personal freedom and improve and empower their communication skills (Manzoor, Mukhtar & Hashmi, 2012). According to Cherif, Verma and Somervill (1998), role-playing activities can be divided into four stages: first, the preparation and explanation of the activity by the course instructor, second, student preparation of the activity, third, performing the role-play and fourth, the debriefing or discussion after the role-play activity.

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

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

> Taking students to museums, historic sites and memorials to enhance and build on the material taught. The artefacts they display, narratives they tell, and re-creations of the past they exhibit potentially engage students with content in ways unavailable in a classroom setting or by reading a textbook. Going to places like this help students develop historical empathy by allowing them to experience history and make personal connections to people in the past (p. 105).

Going to museums, historic sites and memorials helps students make connections and feel empathy just like role-playing does. This technique is a nice alternative to role-playing and produces similar outcomes. Another teaching technique that can produce a similar outcome as role-playing is having students write narratives. Once a teacher is done lecturing on a

topic, each student could be assigned to pretend to be a person in that time period and write a story about that person, including, how they feel , what they are doing and what their life is like in general (Harris, 2007). According to Harris (2007):

> Stories resonate with life experiences and remind people of how they fit into their culture and connect to others' culture. By writing stories, students get to use their own life experiences and compare and contrast them to a person of the past. Storytelling enables them to connect to the material and feel empathy to the person living in that time period (p. 111).

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

> Allowing students to construct a biographical narrative of figures of interest to them enables them to make sense of their biographical subjects' lives and connects their lives to those who went before them. Writing narratives in Social Studies classes has been tested and proved effective at helping students learn about historical figures in a challenging and enjoyable way (p. 272).

Discussion is another teaching technique that can be effective because they can be challenging, promote learning and encourage tolerance. It is well reported that gaining student attention and engagement during class is very challenging. The primary method to bring about active learning is discussion, according to Svinicki and McKeachie (2011). However, the purpose of discussion is not just to have students discuss; the purpose of discussion is to provide practice and feedback for the kinds of thinking that are the goal of the course. Social Studies teachers are charged with giving students an understanding of what democracy entails, and accepting other ideas and opinions different from the majority is a key aspect of democracy (McMurray, 2007). McMurray (2007) states "meaningful discussion should be promoted in a manner to ensure that learning is occurring, beliefs are

substantiated by evidence, and minority opinions are protected" (p. 49). Discussions can make learning meaningful like role-playing does if they are done correctly.

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

Cooperative learning has been found to be an effective strategy for Social Studies classes. Several of the methods mentioned earlier are types of cooperative learning activities. Role-playing itself can be a cooperative learning activity.

Critical thinking is the most important skill for problem solving, inquiry and discovery in Social Studies. It is the systematic approach of skilfully evaluating information to arrive at the most feasible solution to a variety of structured and ill-structured problems (Winch, 2006; Laxman, 2010; Shah, 2010). Yet teaching Social Studies does not always result in this outcome. This suggests that many teachers who include promotion of critical thinking skills as a learning outcome for their teaching could not define the construct nor distinguish between critical thinking and content coverage. Teaching for critical thinking competence

necessitates a philosophical shift in focus from learning to thinking (Chun, 2010), drill and practice to problem-based learning (Savery, 2009), subject isolation to subject integration, output to process, what is convenient to what is needed, and now to the future (Peddiwell, 1939).

Guiding students through the process of thinking like researchers and participating in activities helped them to appreciate the importance of not jumping to conclusions (Parker, 2009). Role play is commonly applied in problem-based learning (Savery, 2009). Although problem-based learning is primarily used in the teaching of science and technology, students may also be encouraged to assume the role of linguists, palaeontologists, cartographers, meteorologists, and archaeologists to motivate them to unearth information that explains unfamiliar ideas. "To encourage active engagement, teachers must design authentic tasks that reflect the complexity of the environment" as stated by Mandernach (2006, p. 4). A classroom culture that fosters inquiry is likely to nurture students to become intellectually curious.

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

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

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

through successive approximation (Martin & Briggs, 1986). This shows that teachers presenting lesson in Social Studies should focus on using practical things in life and allow their students to come out with repercussions associated with each chosen and why such things must not be repeated by them or be emulated in life.

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

The fact that attitudes are stored separately from their related cognitions means that a person may experience a feeling without remembering the information or event that

triggered it, attitudes will generally be stronger when the link between their cognitive and affective components is consciously recalled (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991). For this to work, of course, the recipient must attend to the message providing that information. A tendency toward passive viewing of mediated messages may be reduced by instructing students to attend and alerting them to the fact that the content will be tested (Wetzel, Radtke & Stern, 1994). According to Zimbardo and Leippe, (1991):

> A persuasive message is most likely to cause attitude and behaviour change if it can shape both beliefs about its topic and beliefs about what important individuals and social groups think about the topic and how they behave toward it (p. 188).

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

Apart from using persuasive messages and the affective-cognitive consistency theory to build attitude and behaviour change in students, there are other theories of learning that help in attitude development. Social judgment theories also emphasise the role of prior attitudes in shaping attitude formation and change. Smith and Ragan (1999) described attitude as a kind of spectrum with latitude of acceptance surrounding a current attitude; a new position is more likely to be accepted if it falls within this latitude and is less likely to be accepted if it does not. In Social Studies, this theory suggests that change in attitude position might be greater in response to the presentation of a moderate persuasive position than in response to a more extreme message. As with dissonance theory, social judgment

theory presents attitude change as a response to the receipt of a message that is not entirely congruent with the currently held attitude. Acceptance of the new position is contingent upon its falling within the latitude of acceptance of the receiver. "The use of successive approximations can expand the latitude of acceptance and thereby permit greater attitude change than might otherwise be possible" as indicated by Bednar and Levie (1993, p. 295).

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

messages less closely than those presented directly, thereby diminishing their effectiveness (Bednar & Levie, 1993). Social learning theories of attitude change are closely related to theories that emphasise the role of social learning in cognitive development.

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

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

the creation of an aroused state in the learner through emotional and intellectual involvement.

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

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

> When designing instruction for attitude change, three approaches emerge from the theoretical literature: providing a persuasive message; modelling and reinforcing appropriate behaviour; and inducing dissonance between the cognitive, affective, and behavioural components of the attitude. These approaches are ideally used in tandem (p. 282).

Summary from the number of studies on guidelines for effective design of attitude instruction from the above suggest that children should take integral part in teaching and learning activities and without their involvement in classroom activities implies learning has not taken place. There is, at present, no firm agreement about the optimal order in which to present the various cognitive and affective messages contained in a given unit of instruction. Some researchers have found that "knowledge about a topic was often a

necessary prerequisite for a positive attitude position toward the idea" (Simonson & Maushak, 2001). This implies that Social Studies must always be taught by those trained in the subject, who are taught to imbue the ideals of citizenship education and be able to activate students' background knowledge in the teaching and learning process if we really want bad attitudes to change and positive ones develop.

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

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

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

and express their own cognitive responses to the information presented. Each phase of the instruction should present "plausible, important messages with new information in order to provoke more cognitions and hence increase attitude change" (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991, p. 150). Thus, the persuasive component should not merely restate the information provided earlier, but should elaborate and expand upon it.

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

As discussed above, affective components are often already present in many lesson plans. Adding affective objectives to other instruction need not take an overwhelming amount of time. A meta-analysis of attitude change studies relating to bias and prejudice has shown that shorter treatments generally produced more attitude change than did longer ones. In other words, "less treatment time was apparently more conducive to prejudice reduction"

(Underleiger & McGregor, 1993:222). The implications of this finding are greatest for interventions where attitude change is the principal goal. If a teacher perceives that his or her students' attitudes are already aligned with the objectives, he or she may be tempted not to address the affective component of the lesson. However, reinforcement remains important." Lack of resistance (to persuasion) is likely when attitudes and beliefs are still in formative stages or when the individual is cast into a new and vastly different social environment" (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991:225). Thus, the importance of confirming and strengthening existing positive attitudes should not be overlooked. The more thought-through an attitude is, the more resistant it is to change (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991). The implication here is that as students are motivated it reflects on their attitudes and instruction may lead to an increase in their intensity and permanence.

Teachers must not only be abreast with teaching skills in the affective but must also be knowledgeable on how to assess attitude learning. While general attitudes are good predictors of general behaviours, and specific attitudes are good predictors of specific behaviours, the general does not reliably predict the specific or the specific the general (Simonson & Maushak, 2001). Therefore, in assessing attitude learning, any Likert-type scale or similar closed-ended measurements should be used in tandem with more open-ended instruments. This will help the teacher to ascertain where the students are lacking in terms of positive attitude building and remedial measures given out to forestall any future moral decadence.

## 2.4 Teacher Preparation for Social Studies Instruction

If anything is to be regarded as specific preparation for teaching, priority must be given to a thorough grounding in something to teach. Subject matter as an essential component of teachers' knowledge is neither a new nor controversial assertion. After all, if teaching entails helping others learn, then understanding what is to be taught is a central requirement of teaching. The numerous tasks of teaching, such as selecting worthwhile learning activities, giving helpful explanations, asking productive questions, and evaluating students' learning, all depend on the teacher's understanding of what it is that students are to learn. It would be odd to expect a teacher to plan a lesson on, for instance writing reports in science and to evaluate related student assignments, if that teacher is ignorant about writing and about science, and does not understand what student progressing writing science reports might mean.

### Teacher Preparation in Subject Matter Knowledge

Helping students learn subject matter involves more than the delivery of facts and information. The goal of teaching is to assist students in developing intellectual resources to enable them to participate in, not merely to know about, the major domains of human thought and inquiry. These include the past and are relation to the present; the natural world, the ideas, beliefs and values of our own and other peoples; the dimensions of space and quantity; aesthetics and representation.

Students should see themselves, either alone or in collaboration with others, as capable of figuring things out of using mathematics to define and reasons through a problem; of tracking down the origins of current social policy; of interpreting a poem or story, of

understanding how physical forces operate; of recreating in writing a feeling, idea, or experience. They should both be able and inclined to challenge the claims in a politician's speech, to make sense of and criticize presentations of statistical information, and to write an effective letter to the editor. A conceptual mastery of subject matter and the capacity to be critical of knowledge itself can empower students to be effective actors in their environment. Theoretical arguments as well as common sense support conviction that teachers' own subject matter knowledge influences their efforts to help students learn subject matter. Conant (1963) wrote "if a teacher is largely ignorant or uninformed he can do much harm (p. 93). When teachers possess inaccurate information or conceive of knowledge in narrow ways, they may pass on these ideas to their students. They may fail to challenge students' misconceptions. They may use texts uncritically or may alter them inappropriately. Subtly, teachers' conceptions of knowledge shape their practice, the kinds of questions they ask, the ideas they reinforce, and the sorts of tasks they assign.

**Teacher Preparation in Content Knowledge**

What teachers need to know about the subject matter they teach extends beyond the specific topics of their curriculum. Shulman (1986) argues that teachers must not only be capable of defining for student's the accepted truths in a domain. They must also be able to explain why a particular proposition is deemed warranted, why it is worth knowing, and how it relates to other propositions. This kind of understanding encompasses an understanding of the intellectual fabric and essence of the subject matter itself. For example, while English teachers need to know their particular authors and their works, about literary genres and styles, they also need to know about interpretation and criticism (Grossman, 1990). A history teacher needs detailed knowledge about events and people of the past but must also

understand what history, the nature of historical knowledge is and what it means to find out or know something about the past. Scheffler (1973) argued that this kind of subject matter understanding "strengthens the teacher's powers and in so doing, heightens the possibilities of his art".

Good teaching demands that teachers know a lot of other things outside their field of expertise, for instance, about learning, about the students, and about the cultural, social, and political contexts within which they work. That teachers may hold such goals for student learning that grow out of their study of subject matter does not, however, dictate a particular pedagogy. In helping students develop such understandings, teachers may play a variety of roles and draw on a variety of knowledge and skills. Teaching styles and the manner in which teachers organise their classroom may also vary.

**Teacher Preparation in Pedagogical Content Knowledge**

Shulman (1986) criticised the sharp division between subject matter mastery and teacher's pedagogical skills. He introduced the concept of pedagogical content knowledge, briefly described as "subject matter knowledge for teaching". Pedagogical content knowledge is about selection of topics, useful forms of presentation, analogies, illustrations, examples, explanations and demonstration. Pedagogical content knowledge also includes understanding of what makes the learning of specific topics easy or difficult, including knowledge about conceptions and misconceptions that students bring to the subject. The assumption is that deep knowledge about the content and structure of a subject matter area is the crucial precondition for teachers' reliance on pedagogical content knowledge in their teaching. Pedagogical content knowledge includes knowledge of the conceptual and

procedural knowledge that students bring to the learning of a topic, the misconceptions about the topic that they may have developed, and the stages of understanding that they are likely to pass through in moving from a state of having little understanding of the topic to mastery of it. It also includes knowledge of techniques for assessing student's understanding and diagnosing their misconceptions, knowledge of instructional strategies that can be used to enable students to connect what they are learning to the knowledge they already possess, and knowledge of instructional strategies to eliminate the misconceptions they may have developed.

Additional components sometimes include in the concept are knowledge of the appropriate use of teaching materials and media, as well as strategic knowledge on the application of teaching strategies. Krauss et al (2008) define three main components of pedagogical content knowledge:

a. Knowledge of tasks.
b. Knowledge of students' prior knowledge.
c. Knowledge of instructional methods

These authors measured pedagogical content knowledge by means of an assessment centre type of approach, in which teachers rated real-life teaching scenarios in mathematics classes. Their results gave a basis for the hypothesis that teachers with more pedagogical content knowledge display a broader repertoire of teaching strategies for creating cognitively stimulating learning situations. Another interesting outcome Gymnasium, pedagogical content knowledge was highly correlated with subject matter mastery, thus suggesting that deep knowledge of the subject matter is indeed the critical precondition for

pedagogical content knowledge. There are two interpretations of pedagogical content knowledge. The two interpretations are analytical distinction that seem to have implications for teacher training. In the first interpretation, which they will call 'the integration model", pedagogical content knowledge is seen as the integrative results of independent components: subject matter mastery, and pedagogical knowledge of the teaching context. The implication of this interpretation would be that training for these three components could be done separately, with integration taking place as a creative synthesis by a teacher.

Accruing to the second interpretation, which they refer to as "transformational", pedagogical content knowledge is seen as a new kind of knowledge developed on the basis of subject matter mastery, pedagogical knowledge and contextual knowledge. For the first interpretation, course work in each of the components would be the most likely form of training, whereas the second would call for training in practice simulations and observation in real-life teaching situations. Wineburg and Wilson (1988) describe two very different but equally excellent high school history teachers, Mr. Price and Ms. Jensen, teaching their students about the American Revolution: the Juxtapostion of Price and Jensen offers a study in contrasts. Watching Price, we see what Cuban has called "persistent instruction" in which whole-group recitation with teacher at the centre, leading discussion, calling on students, and writing key phrases on the chalkboard. Jensen's classroom, on the other hand, departs from the traditional: Cooperative small groups replace whole-group instruction; student debate and presentation overshadow teacher recitation; and the teacher's voice, issuing instructions and dispensing information, is largely mute. Despite differences in their pedagogy, these teachers conceive of history and of what is important for students to

learn about history in similar ways. Both want their students to understand that history is fundamentally interpretative learning history means studying accounts of the past that have already been constructed as well as learning about alternative accounts of the same phenomenon and how such accounts are constructed. These teachers's knowledge of history underlies their power and strength as pedagogues. Whether or not they intend to, teachers in all subjects influence students through their own engagement in ideas and processes. Teacher's intellectual resources and dispositions largely determine their capacity to engage student's minds and hearts in learning. For instance, Lampert's deep interest in numbers and their patterns is transmittable. And the understanding of mathematics as an active domain of human interest and inquiry leads her to devise opportunities for learning that offer from those found in many mathematics classes.

Hashweh (1985) is of the view that pedagogical content knowledge is the set or repertoire of private and personal content-specific general event-based as well as story-based pedagogical constructions that the experienced teacher has developed as a result of repeated planning and teaching of, and reflection on the pedagogical content knowledge represents personal and private knowledge, a collection of basic units called teacher pedagogical constructions. Constructions result mainly from planning, but also from the interactive and post-active phases of teaching, constructions result from an inventive process that is influenced by the generalised event-based and a story-based kind of memory. Pedagogical constructions are topic specific and are labelled in multiple interesting ways that connect them to other categories and subcategories of teacher knowledge and beliefs.

## 2.5 The Difficulties of Teaching Social Studies

A number of challenges have been identified by researchers to impede the teaching of Social Studies by teachers. Some of these challenges include negative past experiences with Social Studies, lack of interest in teaching Social Studies, confusion over the nature of Social Studies, and conflicting/conservative sociological beliefs.

Teachers' negative perception of their past encounters with Social Studies presents a serious challenge. Research indicates that students often perceived Social Studies as a boring subject (Shaughnessy & Haladyna, 1985). What should come as no surprise is the connection between the negative past experiences of the participants and their current lack of interest in teaching Social Studies. Although the history of Social Studies is replete with conflicting views about its nature and definition (Allen, 1996; Barr et al., 1977; Barr et al., 1978), pre-service elementary teachers should fundamentally understand that it is a field of study (Engle & Ochoa, 1988; Maxim, 1995) that draws content from a variety of sources, predominately from the Social Sciences (Martorella, 1994; National Council for the Social Studies, 1994).

Pre-service elementary teachers who enroll in a course that addresses Social Studies methods, after having been exposed to the ideals of education in introductory education courses, are predisposed to accept a university perspective and readily agree with most of the general elements of this perspective. On a practical level, the issue is whether or not professors should spend as much time (let alone an entire semester) attempting to persuade preservice elementary teachers of the merits of the general elements of a university perspective. To use the limited amount of time efficiently, professors need to engage

preservice elementary teachers in new, challenging, and unresolved issues rather than in those on which, for the most part, they are already in agreement. The findings should encourage professors to spend more time discussing critical and complex topics and less time covering generalities that relate to a university perspective.

Another challenge is selecting and teaching content that is new, challenging, complex, and specific, rather than that which is redundant, simple, and general. By going beyond the general, valuable and enriching discussions can occur between professors and pre-service elementary teachers.

## 2.6 Summary of Literature Review

Social Studies as a subject has been conceptualised differently by its practitioners over the years since its inception. Some scholars conceptualised it as amalgamation of the Social Sciences, citizenship education, and as an approach or method of teaching. Others viewed it as the study of humanities and social science subjects. However, it seems that there is an agreement of its being seen as a problem solving subject based on the literature reviewed. This shows that there is the need for definition of a subject since that determines the goal and objectives, and the content of the subject. This will serve as a guide to enable the teacher to select appropriate techniques to be presented in a lesson.

The various conceptions of Social Studies through time and space have gone to influence trained Social Studies teachers teaching the subject. Teachers' perception about their subject greatly influences their teaching. Research studies conclude that teachers' conception of a subject or a curriculum would shape their perceived curriculum and therefore their implemented curriculum. In general, studies of teachers' understanding of

the subjects they teach have shown those conceptions affect the way teachers teach and assess. The implications of the varying conceptions of Social Studies through time and space is that those who conceptualise it as the amalgamation of the Social Sciences are compelled to teach it by presenting bootleg facts from the Social Sciences whilst those pedagogues who conceptualise it as citizenship education (that is, issue-oriented) will teach the subject helping their students to be problem solvers. It came to light from the review that Social Studies lessons should be based on practical learning experiences of learners, and on real-life situations.

It emerged from the literature review that teacher preparation for Social Studies instruction should focus on teacher preparation in subject matter knowledge, content knowledge, and in pedagogical content knowledge which includes understanding of what makes the learning of specific topics easy or difficult, including knowledge about conceptions and misconceptions that students bring to the subject. It unfolds from the review that scholars

use both the integrated and the subject-specific (traditional) approaches in preparing Social Studies educators. A number of challenges have been identified by researchers to impede the teaching of Social Studies by teachers. Some of these challenges include negative past experiences with Social Studies, lack of interest in teaching Social Studies, confusion over the nature of Social Studies, and conflicting/conservative sociological beliefs.

# CHAPTER THREE

# METHODOLOGY

## 3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the method used to carry out the study. It includes the research design, population, sample and sampling techniques, instrumentation, validation of research instruments, reliability of instrument, data collection procedure, ethical considerations, and method of data analysis.

## 3.2 Research Design

This study which is descriptive in nature adopts the mixed-methods sequential explanatory design. The reason is that this research was non-experimental and it is intended to study relationship in the national setting and the description of an existing phenomenon. Quartey and Awoyemi (2002) describe descriptive research as a research aimed at producing an accurate description of a particular ongoing situation or real life setting. A mixed-methods research is the class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research technologies, methods, approaches, concepts or languages into a single study. Mixed method research is also an attempt to legitimate the use of multiple approaches in answering research questions, rather than restricting or construction and researches choices. It is an expansive and creative form of research, not a limiting form of research. Thus, it is in exclusive, pluralistic, and complementary, and it is sufficient that researchers take an eclectic approach to method selection and the thinking about the conduct of research.

Johnson and Turner (2003) argued that the fundamental principle of mixed methods research is that multiple data should be collected with different strategies and methods in ways that reflect complementary strengths and non-overlapping weaknesses, allowing a mixed methods study to provide insights when possible. In other words, mixed methods research allows for "opportunity to compensate for inherent method weaknesses, capitalize on inherent method strengths and often effect inevitable method biases" (Green, 2007, p.x111). While the mixed methods research combines qualitative and quantitative methods in ways that draw on the strength and of both traditions of inquiry, it is a dear step away from the boundaries and practices of those traditions, especially those linked to qualitative methods.

The mixed-methods sequential explanatory design consists of two distinct phases: quantitative followed by qualitative (Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann & Hanson, 2003). The sequential explanatory design is characterized by the collection and analysis of quantitative data followed by the collection and analysis of qualitative data (Creswell et al., 2003) in two consecutive phases within one study. In this design, a researcher first collects and analyses the quantitative (numeric) data. The second phase, qualitative builds on the first phase, quantitative, and the two phases are connected in the intermediate stage in the study. The rationale for this approach is that the quantitative data and their subsequent analysis provided a general understanding of the research problem.

The strengths and weaknesses of this mixed-methods design have been widely discussed in the literature (Creswell, 2003, 2005). Its advantages include straightforwardness and opportunities for the exploration of the quantitative results in more detail. This design can be especially useful when unexpected results arise from a quantitative study (Morse, 1991).

The limitations of this design are lengthy time and feasibility of resources to collect and analyse both types of data. It is not easy to implement.

### 3.3 Population of the Study

There are six Colleges of Education in the Eastern Region of Ghana. The target population for this study included 700 final year students in the Akropong Presbyterian Colleges of Education in Ghana. This college was conveniently chosen because of geographical accessibility and ease of access to information from the teacher trainees.

### 3.4 Sample, Sampling Techniques and Procedures

One hundred and forty-three (143) final year students (teacher trainees) which represent 20.42% of the study population were selected through the simple random sampling technique from Presbyterian College of Education for the study. The 20.42% of the study population is based on Krecjie and Morgan's (1970) assertion that at least 10% of a study population gives a proportional representation.

The 143 teacher trainees were chosen using the lottery approach of simple random sampling. In this approach, pieces of paper which equal to the total number of teacher trainees in the Presbyterian College of Education were designed by the researcher. One hundred and forty-three (143) pieces of the paper had the inscription "yes" whilst the other 557 pieces of paper were captioned "no". The pieces of paper were folded, and put in a box. The box was turned over and over again to ensure that the pieces of paper were well mixed to guarantee that each teacher trainee have an equal opportunity of being selected. The teacher trainees were required to pick the pieces of paper at random during assembly or dining session. Teachers who selected the pieces of paper which had 'yes' responses,

were enrolled as study participants for this study. The random selection ensured that each teacher trainee had an equal chance of being selected, and this is required for generalisation of the results to the target population as noted by Creswell (2009). The simple random sampling technique ensured representativeness of the sample, and it also eliminated selection bias. Also, 6 teacher trainees were purposively selected for this study.

## 3.5 Instrumentation

Data were collected using structured questionnaire and semi-structured interview guide to ensure triangulation. When data are triangulated, that is, more than one data collecting method is used, gaps in collected data are filled and false or misleading information can be detected (Greeff, 2002).

### 3.5.1 Questionnaire

Sekyere (2006) defined questionnaire as a set of written questions answered by a large number of people that is used to provide information. There is a clear structure, sequence and focus, but the format is open-ended, enabling the respondent to respond in her or his own terms (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000 as cited in Kusi (2012). The structured questionnaire for this survey contained a five-point close-ended Likert-type items: strongly agree (SA) = 5), Agree (A) = 4), Neutral (N) = 3, Disagree (D) = 2 and Strongly Disagree (SD) = 1. The items were built to reflect on the key themes raised in the research questions. The questionnaire consisted of three sections. The first section was based on the background information such as age, sex, and period of teaching the subject. The second section focused on teacher trainees understanding of Social Studies. The third section was based on whether there exists any correlation between the curriculum of the College Of

Education Social Studies and that of basic schools in Ghana as well as their conception of Social Studies and whether it positions them to teach effectively or otherwise. The questionnaire was made up of 33 closed ended and open - ended items. The questionnaire was used to determine the extent of agreement or disagreement on some issues that were raised by the researcher. This was administered to the 143 sampled final year students of the Presentation College of Education.

Questionnaire has some strengths and weaknesses. According to Sekyere (2012), questionnaire are answered by a large number of people. There is a clear structure, sequence and focus, but the format is open-ended, enabling the respondent to respond in her or his own terms (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000 as cited in Kusi, 2012).

### 3.5.2 Semi-structured Interview Schedule

The semi-structured interview schedule was developed in accordance with guidelines suggested by Smith et al. (2009), for example sequencing questions from least to most sensitive and including more general and neutral questions together with more specific and explicit prompts. The interview schedule was developed by the researcher in consultation with the research supervisor. In this study, participants' interpretations, thoughts, and feelings about academic performance are important, and they cannot be grasped by observations, so in-depth interviews were conducted to achieve the objectives of the study. This instrument allowed the researcher to respond to the emerging points of view, and new ideas of the respondents as stated by Babbie and Mouton (2001). The researcher used the responses to the interview schedule for respondents to clarify, verify and confirm stated facts. It was also to corroborate the propositions put forward in the literature review and

guided interview by the study participants. The interview guide which was made up of 5 semi-structured items, and this was answered by the 6 purposively teacher trainees.

The use of interview guide has advantages and disadvantages. This data gathering tool gives the respondents freedom to express whatever they know about the topic under investigation. This probably provides a greater depth of response. Therefore, the respondents could reveal what they really know about each item they are requested to respond to, and possibly the reason for their responses. However, it cannot be used to collect data from a large sample. It is also time consuming. Data analysis is cumbersome.

### 3.6 Validity and Reliability of the Instruments

Validity refers to the extent to which the research instrument serves the use for which it is intended (Seidu, 2006). Face validity was carried out by giving the instruments to colleague MPhil students in the Department of Social Studies in the University of Education, Winneba (UEW) for scrutiny. Their comments and suggestions were considered for review of the questions. The content validity of the questionnaire and interview guide was ensured by experts in the area of Social Studies as well as the research supervisor who scrutinized the items for their suitability before pre-test. All the necessary corrections in the items were made and declared valid by the supervisor. Construct validity was ensured by critically developing the items or questions within established theoretical framework. For instance, level of education of parents was restructured and expanded to read level of education of father or mother/guardian.

Joppe (2000) defined reliability as the extent to which results are consistent over time and if the results of a study can be reproduced under a similar methodology, then the research

instrument is considered to be reliable. To ensure reliability of the research instruments, they were pre-tested on 30 teacher trainees of Koforidua SDA College of Education. The result were subjected to Cronbach's alpha reliability analysis using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20.0 to determine the reliability coefficient (r) in order to establish the reliability of the instrument. This yielded a reliability coefficient (r) of 0.73. This is deemed as an acceptable measure of reliability because more than 0.70 the threshold value of acceptability is achieved as a measure of reliability (Cohen, 1988).

### 3.7 Data Collection Procedures

For ethical reasons, a letter of introduction from the Head of Department of Social Studies of the University of Education, Winneba was obtained to introduce the researcher during the data collection, after establishing the necessary contacts with the respondents. The researcher explained the purpose of the study and procedure for responding to the questionnaire to the study participants. Participants were assured of the necessary confidentiality. The administration of the questionnaire was done after consent is sought from the Principal of the College. The questionnaires were personally administered to the 143 teacher trainees, and they were retrieved same day. This was done to ensure high coverage, completion, and return rate. The face-to-face interviews was personally done. All the 143 questionnaire which were completed and duly retrieved. This ensured a 100% completion and return rate.

## 3.8 Data Analysis

Both qualitative and quantitative methods were used to describe and analyse the data. Frequency and percentage distributions of responses were generated according to each research question raised, and this was presented in tables and figures or charts. For the interview and observation data, responses were categorized into themes according to the research questions.

## 3.9 Ethical Considerations

The protection of participants and their responses were assured by obtaining informed consent, protecting privacy and ensuring confidentiality. In doing this, description of the study, the purpose and the possible benefits were mentioned to participants. The researcher permitted participants to voluntarily or non-voluntarily participate if they deemed it fit.

# CHAPTER FOUR

# PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

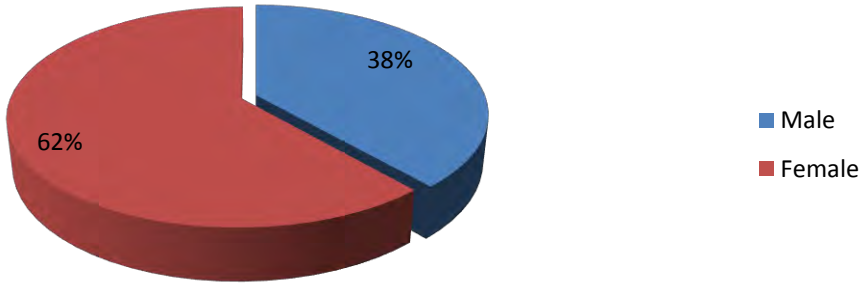
## 4.1 Introduction

This study investigated whether teacher trainees are well-prepared in Colleges of Education to teach Social Studies curriculum at the basic school level. The data were put in tables as frequency and percentage.

## 4.2 Socio-demographic Data of the Teacher Trainees

The bio data covers the following: gender, programme of study, level or grade, and number of terms of teaching Social Studies during teaching practice. Figure 1 presents the gender distribution of the teacher trainees.

(n = 143)



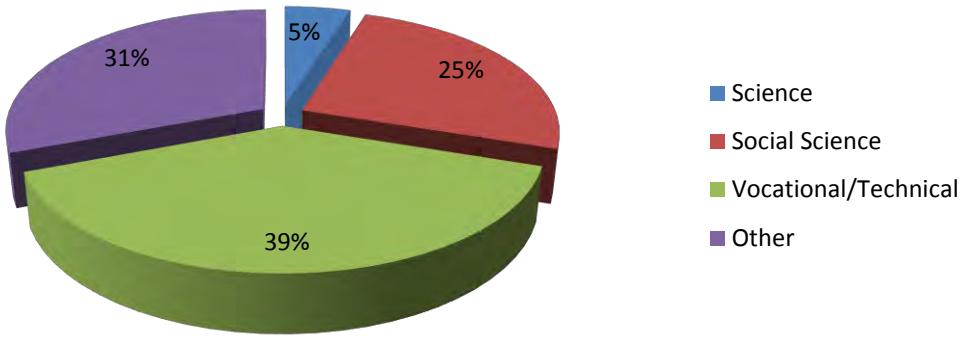

Source: Fieldwork data (2017).

**Figure 1: Gender Distribution of the Teacher Trainees**

The data in Figure 1 shows that 55 (38%) teacher trainees were males and 88 (62%) of them were females. This suggests that there were more female than male teacher trainees in the sampled schools.

Figure 2 below shows the programmes of study by the teacher trainees.

(n = 143)



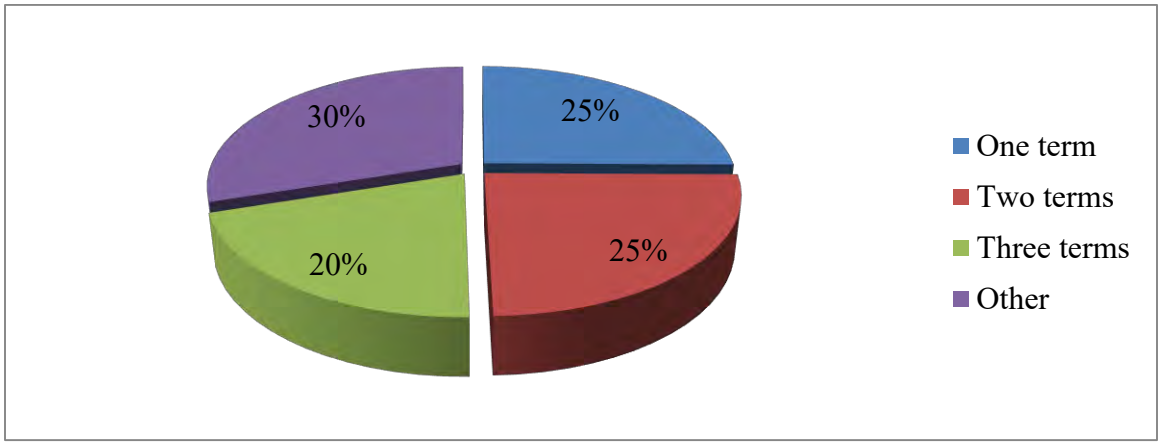

Source: Fieldwork data (2017).

**Figure 2: Programmes of Study by the Teacher Trainees**

The findings show that a small number (7) representing 5% of the teacher trainees were Science students. Also, Figure 2 shows that 36 (25%) of the respondents were social science students while 56 (39%) of them were vocational/technical students. Of the rest, 44 (31%) teacher trainees studied general education programmes. This result indicates that more (64%) teacher trainees studied social science and vocational/technical programmes in the sampled Colleges of Education.

Figure 3 presents data on the number of terms teacher trainees had taught Social Studies during teaching practice.

(n = 143)




Source: Fieldwork data (2017).

**Figure 3: Number of Terms Teacher Trainees had taught Social Studies during Teaching Practice**

Thirty-six (25%) teacher trainees had taught Social Studies for one term only. Of the rest, 35 (25%) of them had taught the subject for two terms, and 29 (20%) of them had taught it for three terms during teaching practice. The remaining 43 (30%) teacher trainees had taught for more than three terms during teaching practice. This result suggests that teaching practice is a major component of teacher training curriculum in the Colleges of Education in Ghana.

## 4.3 Analysis of Research Questions

The result is organized and presented under four main themes. These were: teacher trainees' understanding of Social Studies, teacher trainees' perceptions of the nature and content of Social Studies, teacher trainees' teaching perceptions of how Social Studies ought to be taught, and difficulties that teacher-trainees are likely to encounter during teaching of Social Studies.

*4.3.1 Research question 1: What are the views of teacher trainees of Social Studies?*

The responses for this research question were coded: 5 = Strongly Agree (SA); 4 = Agree (A); 3 = Undecided (U); 2 = Disagree (D), and 1 = Strongly Disagree (SD). The data (responses) were further collapsed into three categories: agree, disagree and undecided. This was done in order to find out the level of agreement or disagreement on the concept of Social Studies. The results are depicted in Table 1.

**Table 1. Teacher Trainees' Understanding of Social Studies**

(n = 143)

| Statements | A | | U | | D | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | F | % | F | % | F | % |
| Social Studies is an amalgamation of Social Sciences | 119 | 83 | 6 | 4 | 18 | 13 |
| Social Studies is an approach or method of teaching | 82 | 57 | 18 | 13 | 43 | 30 |
| Social Studies is citizenship education | 125 | 87 | 4 | 3 | 14 | 10 |
| Social Studies aims to equip pupils with knowledge, skill, attitude & values needed to solve personal & societal problems | 132 | 92 | 8 | 6 | 3 | 2 |
| The primary role of Social Studies is to develop positive attitudes in learners | 131 | 92 | 5 | 3 | 7 | 5 |
| The purpose of Social Studies is to prepare students for life | 126 | 88 | 7 | 5 | 10 | 7 |
| The scope of Social Studies education is based on current issues in the society | 91 | 64 | 13 | 9 | 39 | 27 |
| Social Studies is social science in practice | 104 | 73 | 18 | 13 | 21 | 14 |

Source: Fieldwork data (2017).

**Key:** F = Frequency; % = Percentage; A = Agree; U = Undecided; D = Disagree

Table 1 presents data on teacher trainees' understanding of Social Studies. The majority (119) of the teacher trainees which represents 83% of them agreed with the statement, 18 (13%) of them disagreed, whereas 6 (4%) of them were irresolute with the statement that Social Studies is an amalgamation of Social Sciences. Also, 82 (57%) teacher trainees

averred that Social Studies is an approach or method of teaching. In contrast, 43 (30%) teacher trainees disclaimed, whereas 18 (13%) of them were undecided.

A large number (125) which represents 87% of the teacher trainees asserted, 14 (10%) of them denied, and 4 (3%) of them were irresolute with the statement that Social Studies is citizenship education. In addition, 132 (92%) teachers asserted, 3 (2%) of them disagreed, whereas 8 (6%) of them were irresolute with the statement that Social Studies aims to equip pupils with knowledge, skill, attitude and values needed to solve personal and societal problems.

Similarly, the majority (131) which represents 92% of the teacher trainees affirmed that the primary role of Social Studies is to develop positive attitudes in learners. However, 7 (5%) teacher trainees held divergent views and 5 (3%) of them were undecided. Moreover, 126 (88%) teacher trainees admitted, whereas 10 (7%) of them disclaimed and 7 (5%) of them were irresolute with the statement that the purpose of Social Studies is to prepare students for life.

Ninety-one (64%) teacher trainees agreed, 39 (27%) of them disagreed and 13 (9%) of them were irresolute with the statement that the scope of Social Studies education is based on current issues in the society. Again, 104 (73%) teacher trainees averred, 21 (14%) of them disagreed, and 18 (13%) of them were irresolute with the statement that Social Studies is social science in practice.

**Table 2. Teacher Trainees' Perceptions of the Nature and Content of Social Studies**

(n = 143)

| Statements | A | | U | | D | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | F | % | F | % | F | % |
| Social Studies curriculum should be subject-centred | 72 | 50 | 11 | 8 | 60 | 42 |
| Social Studies curriculum should focus on problem solving | 110 | 77 | 11 | 8 | 22 | 15 |
| The scope of Social Studies should include a combination social science subjects | 123 | 86 | 10 | 7 | 10 | 7 |
| The scope of Social Studies education should be based on current issues in society | 98 | 68.5 | 18 | 12.5 | 27 | 18.8 |
| The scope of Social Studies education should be based on solving issues that threaten human survival | 109 | 76.2 | 12 | 8.4 | 22 | 15.4 |
| The Social Studies curriculum should be determined by content that is essential for developing positive attitude of pupils | 121 | 85 | 13 | 9 | 9 | 6 |
| Social Studies curriculum planners should consider key social and cultural situation in the community | 128 | 90 | 6 | 4 | 9 | 6 |

Source: Fieldwork data (2017).

**Key:** F = Frequency; % = Percentage; A = Agree; U = Undecided; D = Disagree

Table 2 presents data on teacher trainees' perceptions of the nature and content of Social Studies. The majority (72) which represents 50% of the teacher trainees affirmed that Social Studies curriculum should be subject-centred. However, 60 (42%) teacher trainees disagreed and 11 (8%) of them were irresolute with the statement.

One hundred and ten (77%) teacher trainees admitted that Social Studies curriculum should focus on problem solving. However, 22 (15%) disagreed with the statement while 11(8%) of them were undecided. Again, 123 (86%) teacher trainees averred that the scope of Social Studies should include a combination of social science subjects. Ten (7%) teacher trainees disagreed with the statement, and 10 (7%) of them were indecisive.

Also, 98(68.5%) teacher trainees asserted that the scope of Social Studies education should be based on current issues in society. Conversely, 27 (18.5%) teacher trainees disagreed while 18 (12.5%) of them were irresolute with the statement. In addition, 109 (76.2%) teacher trainees indicated that the scope of Social Studies education should be based on solving issues that threaten human survival. Nonetheless, 22 (15.4%) teacher trainees disagreed with the statement while 12 (8.4%) of them had indifferent opinion.

One hundred and twenty-one (85%) teachers agreed, 9 (6%) of them disagreed, and 13 (9%) of them were irresolute with the statement that the Social Studies curriculum should be determined by content that is essential for developing positive attitude of pupils. More so, 128 (90%) teacher trainees admitted, 9 (6%) of them disclaimed and 6 (4%) of them were irresolute with the statement that Social Studies curriculum planners should consider key social and cultural situations in the community.

In response to the interview question which sought to find out teacher trainees' conception or understanding of Social Studies, some of the respondents had these to say:

> Social Studies is a subject taught in schools, and it provides learners with social and interactional skills to enable them live in a society which apply all the prospective rules, policies and regulations (Teacher trainee # 1).
>
> Social Studies is a subject taught in schools that helps pupils to know their immediate environment and how to interact with it. It deals with human relationships and way society works. It is a discipline which impacts positive attitudes in people, immediate environment, and the world at large (Teacher trainee # 2).
>
> Social Studies is the integrated and child centred learning to help the individual cope with his/her environment. It is the study of our environment and other state institutions. Equipping pupils with the knowledge and understanding of themselves and how to relate with others in their environment (Teacher trainee # 3).

> Social Studies is the study of history, geography, civics, sociology, economics and other social science subjects especially in primary and secondary schools (Teacher trainee # 4).
>
> Social Studies is a subject taught in all educational levels, and it is integration of various social science subjects such as geography, history, economics… It aims at the total development of individual to fit into a society (Teacher trainee # 5).
>
> Social Studies is the study of humanity that is its study provides the individual with knowledge about himself and how to relate to others. It is a subject that deals with how human should relate with one another. It is the study of various subjects such as government, history and geography (Teacher trainee # 6).

It is evident from the result of this study that between 57% and 87% of the teacher trainees conceptualized Social Studies as citizenship education, as an amalgamation of Social Sciences, and as an approach or method of teaching. Others viewed it as the study of humanities and social science subjects. The interviewees held similar views.

*Research question 2: What are the perceptions of teacher trainees of how Social Studies should be taught in pre-tertiary institutions?*

The data for this research question are depicted in Table 3.

**Table 3. Teacher Trainees' Perceptions of the Nature and Content of Social Studies**

(n = 143)

| Statements | | A | U | D |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Introduction of Social Studies lessons should be based on practical learning experiences of learners | Freq | 125 | 7 | 11 |
| | % | 87 | 5 | 8 |
| Lesson presentation by Social Studies teachers should focus on practical things in life | Freq | 116 | 14 | 13 |
| | % | 81 | 10 | 9 |
| Social Studies teachers should use persuasive message that will get students think about issues | Freq | 123 | 13 | 7 |
| | % | 86 | 9 | 5 |
| Social Studies teachers should use follow-up activities & open-ended questions in the teaching & learning process | Freq | 129 | 5 | 9 |
| | % | 90 | 3 | 7 |
| Learners involvement in lesson delivery & post instruction discussion is necessary | Freq | 128 | 9 | 6 |
| | % | 90 | 7 | 3 |
| Instruction should be should be realistic, technical, stimulating with problem solving approach | Freq | 129 | 7 | 7 |
| | % | 90 | 5 | 5 |
| Modelling & reinforces should be used in instructions to elicit appropriate response | Freq | 122 | 10 | 11 |
| | % | 85 | 7 | 8 |
| Teachers should elicit & arouse interest in learners through purposeful emotional & intellectual involvement | Freq | 118 | 13 | 12 |
| | % | 83 | 9 | 8 |
| Social Studies instruction should focus on learners acquisi-tion of knowledge in only history, geography, history, etc | Freq | 72 | 13 | 58 |
| | % | 50 | 9 | 41 |
| Social Studies instruction is all about the teaching of geography, history, government, etc topics | Freq | 72 | 12 | 59 |
| | % | 50 | 8 | 42 |
| The integrated approach of teaching is the best method of teaching Social Studies | Freq | 112 | 14 | 17 |
| | % | 78 | 10 | 12 |
| Social Studies should be taught same way as the Social Sciences such as geography | Freq | 65 | 37 | 41 |
| | % | 45 | 26 | 29 |
| Teachers with knowledge from the various social science subjects should be made to teach Social Studies | Freq | 106 | 14 | 23 |
| | % | 74 | 10 | 16 |
| Social Studies instruction should focus only on acquisition of knowledge & application, etc for the students to do | Freq | 72 | 22 | 49 |
| | % | 50 | 15 | 34 |
| Social Studies teachers should draw together knowledge from civics, economics, anthropology, history, geography | Freq | 113 | 18 | 12 |
| | % | 79 | 13 | 8 |

Source: Fieldwork data (2017).

**Key:** F = Frequency; % = Percentage; A = Agree; U = Undecided; D = Disagree

Table 3 presents data on teacher trainees' perceptions of the nature and content of Social Studies. The majority (125) which represents 87% of the teacher trainees stated that Social Studies lessons should be based on practical learning experiences of learners. However, 11 (8%) teacher trainees gave opposing views while 7 (5%) of them were irresolute with the statement. Similarly, 116 (81%) teacher trainees averred that lesson presentation by Social Studies teachers should focus on practical things in life. Conversely, 13 (9%) trainees gave divergent views and 14 (10%) of them were undecided.

As many as 123 (86%) teacher trainees admitted, 7 (5%) of them disagreed, and 13 (9%) of them were irresolute with the statement that Social Studies teachers should use most persuasive messages in a credible manner that will get students to think about issues that have definite implications in their life. A considerable number (129) which represents 90% of the teacher trainees indicated that teachers should use follow-up activities and open-ended questions in the teaching and learning process. Nonetheless, 9 (7%) trainees disagreed with the statement and 5 (3%) of them were undecided.

Again, 128 (90%) teacher trainees concurred, 6 (3%) of them disagreed and 9 (7%) of them were irresolute with the statement that learner involvement in lesson delivery and post instruction discussion is necessary. Furthermore, 129 (90%) teacher trainees agreed, 7 (5%) of them disagreed and 7 (5%) of them were irresolute with the statement that instruction should be realistic, technical and stimulating with problem solving approach.

As many as 122 (85%) teacher trainees opined that modelling and reinforcement should be used in instruction to elicit appropriate behaviour. However, 11 (8%) trainees disagreed with the statement while 10 (7%) of them were undecided. A significant number (118)

which represents 83% of the teacher trainees agreed, 12 (8%) of them disagreed, and 13 (9%) of them were irresolute with the statement that teachers should elicit and arouse interest in learners through purposeful emotional and intellectual involvement.

Most (72) which represents 50% of the teacher trainees admitted, 58 (41%) of them disclaimed and 13 (9%) of them were irresolute with the statement that Social Studies instruction should focus on learners acquisition of knowledge in history, geography, economics and government only. Similarly, 72 (50%) teacher trainees indicated that Social Studies instruction is all about the teaching of geography, history and government topics. However, 59 (42%) trainees gave incongruent views and 12 (8%) of them were undecided.

In response to the question on how Social Studies should be taught in pre-tertiary institutions, some of the interviewees had these to say:

> Social Studies should be taught based on relevant information which learners were required to know, and it should be related it to the immediate surrounding, societal and environment issues. Yes, I must keep in mind the problem or issues being addressed in the syllabus as I teach any topic (Teacher trainee # 1).
>
> The Social Studies teachers should be informed on the topics to teach. This should be in the Social Studies syllabus, textbook for pupils, and teachers guide. He/she should surf the internet and reading books for information. Again, making enquiries from professional teacher on the issue/problem. Also, Social Studies lessons should be made practical to make concepts more understandable to learners. He/she should read books, newspapers, periodicals and magazines for information, and also seeking for information from experience teachers on the problem (Teacher trainee # 2).
>
> Yes, the Social Studies teacher should keep in mind the problem or issues being addressed in the syllabus as he/she teaches any topic. Cooperative learning should be encouraged during the presentation of certain topics. For instance, meeting in school clubs to discuss issues on the topics like 'adolescence'.

> Sometimes, lessons should be presented through club meetings and discussion about effect of behaviours and the causes of it (Teacher trainee # 3).
>
> Brainstorming, follow-up activities and open-ended questions should be used by the Social Studies teacher when presenting lessons. They should also use instructional media or technology to make lessons real. It is ideal that he/she take out learners for a fieldtrip, excursion or a walk around the environment when teaching some topics about the environment (Teacher trainee # 4).
>
> The teacher should arouse interest in learners by letting them know that problems of Social Studies live with us through the community and the nation as a whole. Topics could be presented using activity method to all the pupils to be involved in the teaching and the learning process. Teachers' understanding of Social Studies is necessary to make lesson more practical and meaningful (Teacher trainee # 5).
>
> Teaching Social Studies requires that the teacher uses the activity method, role play, field trips, and other child-centred instructional approaches to enhance better understanding of concepts at the basic school level (Teacher trainee # 6).

The majority (90%) of the respondents opined that teaching and learning of Social Studies should be interdisciplinary, integrated, and learner-centred via such methods as cooperative learning, activity method, role play, field trips, use of instructional media or technology, and other child-centred instructional approaches. Also, 87% of the respondents indicated that Social Studies lessons should be based on practical learning experiences of learners. More so, 86% of them averred that lesson presentation should be motivating, persuasive and based on real-life situations. The interviewees expressed similar opinions.

*4.3.2 Research question 3: How well are teacher trainees from Colleges of Education prepared to teach Social Studies in pre-tertiary schools?*

The data for this research question were obtained from the responses in the questionnaire, and the results are depicted in Table 4.

**Table 4. Teacher Trainee Preparedness to Teach Integrated Social Studies at Basic School Level**

(n = 143)

| **Statements** As a teacher trainee | | **A** | **U** | **D** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| I am well prepared to apply the integrated approach of teaching Social Studies at the basic school level | Freq | 83 | 20 | 40 |
| | % | 58 | 14 | 28 |
| I am well prepared to apply the subject-specific approach of teaching Social Studies at the basic school level | Freq | 50 | 9 | 84 |
| | % | 35 | 6 | 59 |
| I am well prepared to draw together knowledge from civics economics, anthropology, history, geography, etc | Freq | 72 | 11 | 60 |
| | % | 50 | 8 | 42 |
| I have sufficient repertoire of strategies for teaching integrated Social Studies at the basic school level | Freq | 75 | 13 | 55 |
| | % | 52 | 9 | 38 |
| I have sufficient repertoire of strategies for teaching individual Social Studies subjects at the basic school level | Freq | 47 | 7 | 89 |
| | % | 33 | 5 | 62 |

Source: Fieldwork data (2016).

**Key:** F = Frequency; % = Percentage; A = Agree; U = Undecided; D = Disagree

Table 4 presents information on teacher trainee preparedness to teach integrated Social Studies at basic school level. Eighty-three (58%) teacher trainees agreed, 40 (28%) of them disagreed, and 20 (14%) of them were irresolute with the statement that they were well prepared to apply the integrated approach of teaching Social Studies at the basic school level. Also, 50 (35%) respondents agreed with the statement while 84 (59%) disagreed and 9 (6%) of them were not sure of the statement that they were well prepared to apply the subject-specific approach of teaching Social Studies at the basic school level.

Also, 72 (50%) teacher trainees agreed with the statement while 60 (42%) of them disagreed and 11 (8%) respondents were indecisive about the statement that teacher trainees were well prepared to draw together knowledge from civics economics,

anthropology, history, and geography. In addition, 75 (52%) respondents agreed with the statement that teacher trainees have sufficient repertoire of strategies for teaching integrated Social Studies at the basic school level. Conversely, 55 (38%) teacher trainees disagreed with the statement while 13 (9%) of them were not sure. Forty-seven (33%) teacher trainees agreed, 89 (62%) of them disagreed while 7 (5%) of them were irresolute with the statement that teacher trainees have sufficient repertoire of strategies for teaching individual Social Studies subjects at the basic school level.

**Table 5. Teacher Trainee Preparedness to Teach Social Studies using Subject Specific Approach**

(n = 143)

| **Statements** As a teacher trainee, I am prepared to effectively teach these subjects | | **HE** | **ME** | **LE** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| History | Freq | 96 | 47 | 0 |
| | % | 67 | 33 | 0 |
| Geography | Freq | 6 | 75 | 62 |
| | % | 4 | 52 | 43 |
| Economics | Freq | 20 | 73 | 50 |
| | % | 14 | 51 | 35 |
| Government | Freq | 71 | 72 | 0 |
| | % | 50 | 50 | 0 |
| Citizenship education | Freq | 143 | 0 | 0 |
| | % | 100 | 0 | 0 |
| Other subject | Freq | 41 | 102 | 0 |
| | % | 29 | 71 | 0 |

Source: Fieldwork data (2016).

**Key:** F = Frequency; % = Percentage; HE = High Extent; ME = Moderate Extent; LE = Low Extent

Table 4 presents teacher trainee preparedness to teach Social Studies using subject-specific approach in basic schools. Ninety-six (67%) teacher trainees admitted to a high extent, and 47 (33%) of them admitted that to a moderate extent that they were prepared to effectively teach history.

Only 6 (4%) teacher trainees stated to a large extent, 75 (52%) of them admitted to some extent, whereas 62 (43%) of them admitted to a low extent that they were prepared to effectively teach geography. Twenty (14%) teacher trainees admitted to a high extent, 73 (51%) mentioned to a moderate extent while 50 (35%) of them stated to a low extent that they were prepared to effectively teach economics.

It came to light that 71 (50%) teacher trainees stated to a high extent and 72 (50%) of them mentioned to some extent that they were prepared to effectively teach government. It also emerged that all the 143 (100%) teacher trainees held to a high extent that they were prepared to effectively teach citizenship education. Forty-one (29%) teacher trainees admitted to a high extent while 102 (71%) of them stated to a moderate extent that they were prepared to effectively teach other Social Studies subjects.

As regards teacher trainee preparedness to teach Social Studies in basic schools, the interviewees commented as below:

> I am tutored in the use of role play and fish bowl methods of teaching. With the aid of well-planned lesson notes and appropriate teaching and learning materials (TLM's), I will be able to make lessons more practical, and citing examples around them. My understanding of the discipline would even help me to involve pupils actively in lessons taking into consideration their sociogram (Teacher trainee # 1).

> As a trained Social Studies teacher, I will be able to arouse interest in learners. I would do this by relating topics to the immediate environment of the learner, and then using appropriate learning activities such as discussion, and role play. I am taught to use community resources including resource persons, teaching and learning materials to enhance the teaching of Social Studies lessons (Teacher trainee # 2).

> Certainly, I am well-prepared to teach Social Studies in basic schools. I am trained to use teaching learning materials and activity

> method during lessons. I have also acquired pedagogical skills and competencies to use instructional techniques such as role play, simulation, brainstorming, and discussion to facilitate and enhance better understanding of concepts. Using instructional approaches like role play, simulation will make concepts understandable and relevant to learners (Teacher trainee # 3).
>
> I have been groomed to understand that the teaching of Social Studies does not only involve a single approach. It depends in what approach will be suitable to the child at a particular time. Discussion, demonstrations, drama and activities would dominate my approach to the teaching of Social Studies. I would make lessons more meaningful by using teaching and learning materials, by involving learners in lesson through questions, by using syllabus, teacher's guide and appropriate pedagogy when teaching (Teacher trainee # 4).
>
> Yes, as a Social Studies teacher, I would use questionnaires, interview, teacher made test and observation guide or checklist as assessment tools to measure all the domains: cognitive, psychomotor and affective during lesson delivery. I would observe pupils as wells as interview them. In some cases, I would sometimes visit learners at their homes to observe how they behave (Teacher trainee # 5).
>
> As a Social Studies teacher, I am well-equipped to teach each lesson or topic under Social Studies from the pupils immediate or background knowledge to the wider world. That is, using their relevant previous knowledge (R.P.K) based on the topic taught, and help them build upon it. This is to enhance deeper understanding of the subject (Teacher trainee # 6).

The majority (58%) of the teacher trainees affirmed that they are well-prepared and confident to apply or use the integrated approach of teaching Social Studies at the basic school level. Teacher preparedness and confidence to teach some social science subjects such as history was 67%, 52% for geography, 50% for government, and 14% for economics. It could be concluded from this result that the teacher trainees were prepared to use both the integrated and the subject-specific (traditional) approaches of teaching Social Studies at the basic school level. The interviews expressed congruent views.

### *4.3.4 Research question 4: What are the difficulties that teacher-trainees are likely to encounter during teaching of Social Studies, after training?*

The data for this research question were obtained from the responses in the questionnaire and interview guide, and the results are depicted in Table 5.

**Table 6. The Difficulties that Teacher Trainees are likely to face in the Teaching of Social Studies, after Training**

(n = 143)

| Statement | HE | | LE | | NE | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | F | % | F | % | F | % |
| Confusion over the nature of Social Studies | 36 | 25 | 68 | 48 | 39 | 27 |
| Conflict of teaching Social Studies as social subjects science | 73 | 51 | 51 | 36 | 19 | 13 |
| Inability to effectively teach some concepts or topics | 69 | 48 | 58 | 41 | 16 | 11 |
| Challenge of using instructional approaches like cooperative learning, roleplaying, simulation, inquiry, fieldtrip, group and independent projects | 71 | 50 | 62 | 43 | 10 | 7 |
| Lack of/inadequate teaching & learning materials | 70 | 49 | 38 | 27 | 35 | 24 |
| Large classes/overcrowded classrooms | 65 | 45 | 72 | 50 | 6 | 5 |
| Other challenges | 13 | 9 | 61 | 43 | 69 | 48 |

Source: Fieldwork data (2017).

**Key: F** = Frequency; % = Percentage; **HE** = High Extent; **LE** = Low Extent.

Table 5 presents responses on possible challenges or difficulties that teacher trainees would face in the teaching of Social Studies, after training. Confusion over the nature of Social Studies is a likely challenge that could hinder the teaching of Social Studies by teacher trainees, after training to a high extent as noted by 36 (25%) teachers. Sixty-eight (48%) teachers held same views to some extent, and 39 (27%) of them indicated no extent.

The conflict of teaching Social Studies as social science subjects is a likely limiting factor to its teaching to a high extent as observed by 73 (51%) teachers. Fifty-one (36%) teachers held congruent views to a slight extent, whereas 19 (13%) of them indicated not at all.

The inability to effectively teach some Social Studies concepts or topics is a possible challenge to its teaching to a large extent as stated by 69 (48%) teachers. A small number (58) which represents 41% of the teachers concurred to some extent, and 16 (11%) of them mentioned no extent. Seventy-one (50%) teachers held to a large extent the challenge of using instructional approaches like, cooperative learning, roleplaying, simulation, inquiry, fieldtrip, group and independent projects. A moderate number (62 or 43%) of the teacher trainees held same views to some extent, whereas 10 (%) of them indicated no extent. Also, 70 (49%) teachers cited the challenge of lack of/inadequate teaching and learning materials to a large extent. Thirty-eight (27%) teachers held same views to a moderate extent while 35 (24%) of them indicated no extent.

Sixty-five (45%) teachers reported to a great extent that large/overcrowded classes is a likely challenge that teacher trainees could face in teaching Social Studies after training. A large number (72 or 50%) of the teachers held same views to a slight extent, and 6 (5%) of them stated not at all. A small number (13) which represents 9% of the teachers stated that other challenges such as curriculum/subject overload, and lack of pedagogical content knowledge are difficulties that teacher trainees were likely to face in the teaching of Social Studies, after training. A moderate number (61 or 43%) of them admitted this claim to a slight extent while, 69 (48%) of them mentioned no extent.

During the interview, some of the teacher trainees had these to say:

> There is lack of/inadequate teaching and learning materials. In fact, encountered same problem during teaching practice. Another problem would be large class sizes to be handle by one teacher. This could be a source of work overload and stress. Yes, my fear is that there will be inadequate teaching and learning materials to boost learning of the subject. Also, it will be difficult to get

relevant TLMs for specific topics. Again, a possible hindrance is organising educational or fieldtrips (Teacher trainee # 1).

Yes, the challenge will be on getting TLMs for some topics like migration in the Social Studies syllabus. Another problem is teaching overloaded curriculum. The Social Studies syllabus is very loaded, and teaching it put much stress on the teacher and learners. This shifts teacher's attention on teaching learners to cognitive or intellectual abilities, rather than teaching for holistic development (Teacher trainee # 2).

It will be difficult to teach social science subjects as Social Studies. This is because we were rather taught individual social science subjects by different Social Studies tutors in the college of education. So, it will be difficult to single-handedly and effectively teach these subjects using the integrated approach. More so, I am not so grounded in subjects like economics and geography (Teacher trainee # 3).

Very little attention is paid to affective learning or education in the Social Studies curriculum, and assessment in the affective domain is totally neglected by majority of Social Studies teachers. This is mainly because at the end of the course, learners will not be examined in the affective domain by teachers and the West African Examination Council (WAEC). So, it will be difficult for me to focus on teaching for attainment of affective outcomes in the syllabus (Teacher trainee # 4).

It will be a big challenge to use instructional approaches like, cooperative learning, role-play, simulation, inquiry, fieldtrip, group and independent projects. This is because the syllabus is loaded, large class sizes and there is no time as well as resources to efficiently apply these pedagogical approaches. Seriously, it will not be easy to get teaching and learning materials for certain topic (Teacher trainee # 5).

Lessons on concepts such as directions, location, etc. cannot be effective without globes and large-scale maps for students to manipulate. The Social Studies syllabus covers areas which call for many activities, but because materials are not available, very few Social Studies activities are actually done. The lack of resources will hamper the use of some techniques such as small-group activities, and some skills will not be properly taught. Students will be deprived of opportunities to manipulate due to inadequate resource materials and the difficulty of access to them when needed (Teacher trainee # 6).

This study identified the possible challenges or difficulties which teacher trainees could face in the teaching of Social Studies after training. These include conflict of teaching Social Studies as social science subjects – 51% (1st); the challenge of using instructional approaches like, cooperative learning, roleplaying, simulation, inquiry, fieldtrip, group and independent projects - 50% (2nd); lack of/inadequate teaching and learning materials - 49% (3rd), inability to effectively teach some Social Studies concepts or topics - 48% (4th), and large/overcrowded classes - 45% (5th). The interviewees expressed similar opinions.

# CHAPTER FIVE

# DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

## 5.1 Introduction

Discussions on the results of whether teacher trainees are well-prepared in Colleges of Education to teach Social Studies at the basic school level are presented under this section. Detail discussions cover the following thematic areas: socio-demographic data of the teacher trainees, teacher trainees' understanding of Social Studies, teacher trainees' perceptions of the nature and content of Social Studies, teacher trainees' perceptions of how Social Studies ought to be taught, and difficulties that teacher-trainees are likely to encounter during teaching of Social Studies.

## 5.2 Socio-demographic Data of the Teacher Trainees

This study captured the following socio-demographic attributes of the teacher trainees: gender, programme of study, level or grade, and number of times of Social Studies practicum (teaching practice) sessions. These attributes were discussed in relation to teacher trainee preparation to teach Social Studies at the basic school level. It came to light that there were more female than male teacher trainees in the sampled schools. Most of the teacher trainees studied social science and vocational/technical programmes in the sampled Colleges of Education. It emerged from the result of this study that teaching practice is a major component of teacher training curriculum which is meant for teacher preparation in the Colleges of Education in Ghana. Accordingly, most of the teacher trainees participated in three or more teaching practice sessions.

## 5.3 Teacher Trainees' Understanding of Social Studies

It emerged from the findings of this study that there is a mixed opinion on the concept of Social Studies. As many as 57% to 87% of the teacher trainees conceptualized the subject as citizenship education, as an amalgamation of Social Sciences, and as an approach or method of teaching. Others viewed it as the study of humanities and social science subjects. The interviewees held similar views. This finding agrees with the views of Ayaaba (2011) who conceptualized Social Studies as an approach of teaching, amalgamation of the Social Sciences and citizenship education. This finding is also in line with the notion of the Curriculum, Research and Development Division (CRDD, 2007) that Social Studies is the study of the problems of society; an interdisciplinary field of learning, drawing upon the concepts and means of the Social Sciences and related areas.

## 5.4 Teacher Trainees' Perceptions of the nature and content of Social Studies

The majority (90%) of the respondents opined that teaching and learning of Social Studies should be interdisciplinary, integrated, and learner-centred via such methods as cooperative learning, activity method, role play, field trips, use of instructional media or technology, and other child-centred instructional approaches. It came to light that Social Studies lessons should be based on practical learning experiences of learners as indicated by 87% of the respondents; lesson presentation should be motivating, persuasive and based on real-life situations as stated by 86% of the respondents. This result suggests that Social Studies teachers should use a repertoire of teaching or instructional techniques during lesson presentation. Effective teachers use a repertoire of teaching models and assessment strategies, depending upon their situations and the goals and objectives they wish to attain.

This finding also supports the importance of participative and active learning of citizenship education as indicated by Patrick (2002). The premise driving this argument is that an active approach to learning by students will be reflected later in an active approach to participative citizenship as admitted by Print and Smith (2000). Other studies by Svinicki and McKeachie (2011) indicated that the primary method to bring about active learning is discussion.

## 5.5 Teacher Trainees' Teaching Perceptions of how Social Studies ought to be taught

It emerged from the findings of this study that teacher trainees were prepared to use both the integrated and the subject-specific (traditional) approaches of teaching Social Studies at the basic school level. The majority (58%) of the teacher trainees affirmed that they are well-prepared and confident to apply or use the integrated approach of teaching Social Studies at the basic school level. This is because they have sufficient repertoire of strategies for teaching integrated Social Studies. Conversely, teacher preparedness and confidence to teach history was 67%, 52% for geography, 50% for government, and 14% for economics. This result suggests that teacher trainees have subject content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge of Social Studies as an integrated subject as well as Social Studies as an amalgam of social science subjects. Kraus et al. (2008) explained that preparing trainees with pedagogical content knowledge provides them with the knowledge of tasks which they are to perform, knowledge of students' prior knowledge and knowledge of instructional methods.

## 5.6 Difficulties that Teacher Trainees are likely to Encounter during Teaching of Social Studies

The findings of this study show that the possible challenges or difficulties which teacher trainees could face in the teaching of Social Studies after training were in rank order: conflict of teaching Social Studies as social science subjects – 51% (1st); the challenge of using instructional approaches like, cooperative learning, roleplaying, simulation, inquiry, fieldtrip, group and independent projects - 50% (2nd); lack of/inadequate teaching and learning materials - 49% (3rd), inability to effectively teach some Social Studies concepts or topics - 48% (4th), and large/overcrowded classes - 45% (5th). The interviewees expressed similar opinions. The finding on conflict of teaching Social Studies as social science might arise as a result of misconceptions on the subject. This result suggests that teachers' conception of a subject, curriculum or contents/topics could influence their choice of instructional approach. This means that teachers' conception of the subject Social Studies, in turn affects the way they teach and transmit knowledge to students. These observations corroborate the view of Kember and Kwan (2000) who stated that teachers' conceptions of curriculum, and the nature of the curriculum may influence approaches to teaching. Other studies by Almarza (2001), Chiodo and Byford (2004), Bekoe and Eshun (2013a), Quashigah, Eshun and Mensah (2013) put forward that the pedagogical content knowledge of Social Studies teachers do influence the way they assess their lessons. This also confirms the views of Lindblom-Ylanne et al. (2006) who explained that teachers who experience different contexts may adopt different approaches to teaching in those different contexts.

# CHAPTER SIX

# SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

## 6.1 Introduction

This study investigated whether teacher trainees are well-prepared in Colleges of Education to teach Social Studies at the basic school level. To arrive at this objective, 143 teacher trainees were randomly sampled, and 6 Social Studies tutors were purposively selected for the study. The design adopted for this study was descriptive survey design using the mixed-methods sequential explanatory approach. Basically, the main instruments used were questionnaire (Cronbach's alpha = 0.73), and semi-structured interview guide. Data collected was analyzed using frequency and percentage and these were presented in tables and figures. The interview data was analysed qualitatively through thematic and content analysis which were reported in narratives. This chapter highlights the summary of the study, conclusions and recommendations drawn from the study. Suggestions for further studies are also put forward.

## 6.2 Summary of Findings

The findings of this study were the following:

a. The first research question sought to find out views on concept of Social Studies. Over 57% of the respondents conceptualized Social Studies as citizenship education, as an amalgam of Social Sciences, and as an approach or method of

teaching. Also, others viewed it as the study of humanities and social science subjects.

b. The second research question looked at perceptions of how Social Studies should be taught in Ghanaian basic schools. The study found that Social Studies should be integrated, and taught via learner-centred methods such as cooperative learning, activity method, role play, field trips, and use of instructional media or technology.

c. The majority (87%) of the teacher trainees put forward that Social Studies lessons should be based on practical learning experiences of learners.

d. Also, 86% of the respondents stated that lesson presentation should be captivating, persuasive and based on real-life situations.

e. The respondents indicated that Social Studies teachers should use a repertoire of teaching or instructional techniques during lesson presentation.

f. The third research question sought to find out the teacher trainees preparedness and confidence to teach Social Studies in Ghanaian basic schools. The findings of this study show that the majority (58%) of the teacher trainees were prepared in the use of both the integrated and the subject-specific approaches of teaching Social Studies at the basic school level.

g. Teacher trainees had subject content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge of Social Studies as an integrated subject as well as Social Studies as an amalgam of social science subjects.

h. The teacher trainees were well-prepared and confident to apply or use the integrated approach of teaching Social Studies at the basic school level.

i. The teacher trainees had sufficient repertoire of strategies for teaching integrated Social Studies.

j. Teacher preparedness and confidence to teach topics in geography and economics was relatively low.

k. The last research question identified the likely difficulties teacher-trainees are likely to face in teaching Social Studies in Ghanaian basic schools, after training. It came to light that the likely challenges were: conflict of teaching Social Studies as social science subjects, lack of/inadequate teaching and learning materials, and large/overcrowded classes.

l. Also, there are perceived challenge of using instructional approaches such as cooperative learning, role play, simulation, inquiry, fieldtrip, group and independent projects during teaching.

## 6.3 Conclusions

Based on the evidence from the study, the following conclusions were drawn:

Generally, there are different school of thoughts on what Social Studies is and ought to be, and how it should be taught in pre-tertiary (basic and secondary) and tertiary (Colleges of Education and universities) in Ghana. This situation clearly signifies a controversy surrounding Social Studies with regard to how it is conceptualised and taught. This has implications for teacher preparedness in the institutions that train teachers for Social Studies education in Ghana. These inconsistencies create the need for additional studies, including the current research.

Even though most of the teacher trainees were well-prepared and had sufficient repertoire of strategies for teaching integrated Social Studies at the basic school level, they are likely to face a number of difficulties in teaching the subject at that level after training. For instance, it might be problematic for the teacher trainees to teach Social Studies as an integrated subject via learner-centred methods such as cooperative learning, activity method, role play, and field trips. This was evident in the responses given by the teacher trainees and Social Studies tutors.

This situation calls for a guideline for integrated Social Studies education in Ghana, and the need for alignment of Social Studies curriculum at both tertiary and pre-tertiary institutions. Alignment in this sense means that the Social Studies curriculum at universities, and Colleges of Education should be tailored to the needs of primary, junior high and senior high schools where the subject is taught as an integrated course. This implies that the Social Studies curriculum of tertiary institutions which train or prepare Social Studies educators should be meant to produce trained and qualified teachers who have subject matter knowledge in integrated pathways.

## 6.4 Recommendations

In the light of the findings and the conclusions drawn, the following recommendations are put forward:

i. Social Studies tutors and lecturers in Colleges of Education and universities that train Social Studies educators for pre-tertiary institutions should prepare trainees pedagogies that centre on integrated approach of teaching and learning.

ii. Again, they should prepare Social Studies educators in the use of learner centred interactive methods such as group work or cooperative learning, demonstration, filed trip and project methods of teaching (instruction) and learning. This would encourages active learning of the subject with application to life outside of the classroom. This could offer opportunities for students to construct and discover knowledge.

iii. Social Studies tutors and lecturers in Colleges of Education and universities should prepare teacher trainees in the use of educational technology, including computer-based programmes to teach the subject.

## 6.5 Suggestions for Further Research

The issues raised in this study have been thoroughly analysed and conclusions drawn from it suggested that the current study should be expanded to cover both public and private universities that offer Social Studies programme, and prepare or train Social Studies educators for pre-tertiary institutions in Ghana. A study to investigate the instructional efficacy of Social Studies tutors in pre-tertiary institutions is also suggested.

# REFERENCES

Aboagye, J. K. (2002). *Historical and philosophical foundations of education in Ghana.* Accra: Media Guard Ltd.

Adamson, B., Kwan, T., & Chan, K. K. (2000). *Changing the curriculum: The impact of reform on primary schooling in Hong Kong*. Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.

Adesina, A. D. O. (2010). Evaluation of the Social Studies curricular of universities and secondary schools in south-western Nigeria. Unpublished Ph.D. thesis submitted to the Department of Special Education and Curriculum Studies, Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Nigeria.

Afful Broni, A., & Ziggah, R.S. (2006). *Introduction to curriculum development in Ghana*: Accra: Yamens Press Limited.

Aggarwal, J. C. (2002). *Teaching of Social Studies: A practical approach.* New Delhi: Vikas Publishing.

Ahmad, I., & Szpara, M. Y. (2005). Education for democratic citizenship and peace: Proposal for a cosmopolitan model. *Educational Studies, 38*(1), 8-23.

Akinlaye, F. A. (2002). *Social Studies methods for teachers* (2nd ed). Agege: Pumark Educational Publishers.

Akinlaye, F. A. (2003). *Social Studies: A sociological approach*. Lagos: Ziklog Educational Publishers.

Akmal, T. T., & Ayre-Svingen, B. (2002). Integrated biographical inquiry: A student centred approach to learning. *Social Studies, 93*(6), 272-276.

Akyeampong, K. (2003). *Teacher training in Ghana - does it count? Multi-Site Teacher Education Research Project (MUSTER) Ghana study; Country Report One*. Washington D. C.: World Bank.

Almarza, D. J. (2001). Context shaping: Minority language students' perception of American history. Retrieved January 30, 2016, from http://www.Social Studies/almarza/showPdf.

Anamuah-Mensah Educational Review Committee Report (2002). *Meeting the challenges of education in the 21st century*. Accra: Adwinsa Publications (Gh) Ltd.

Ansolabehere, S., Behr, R., & Iyenger, S. (1993). *The media game: American politics in the television age*. Don Mills, Ontario: Maxwell Macmillan Canada.

Apple, M. (2002). Patriotism, pedagogy, and freedom: On the educational meaning of September 11th. *Teachers College Records, 104*(8), 1760-1772.

Armstrong, C. (2006). Global civil society and the question of global citizenship. *Voluntas, 27*(4), 349-357.

Atanda, A. I. (2010). Effects of conflicts in home, school, work place, communities, nation and among nations. Paper presented at the training workshops for JSS I-III Social Studies teachers on peace and conflict at Adepele hall, Osogbo between 10th - 13th August.

Ayaaba, D. (2008). The role of social studies education in national development. In Y. Ofosu-Kusi (2008), *Selected topics in social studies*. Accra: Salt and Light Publications.

Ayaaba, D., Odumah, L., & Ngaaso C. (2011). *Instructional guide for the basic social studies teacher*. Winneba: IEDE.

Avotri, R. S. (1993). Comparative analysis of the traditional and the integrated curricula in Ghanaian Secondary Schools. *Issues in Educational Research*, *3*(1), 47-55.

Babbie, E., & Mouton, J. (2004). *The practice of social research*. Oxford University Press.

Bandura, A. (1993). Perceived self-efficacy in cognitive development and functioning. *Educational Psychologist, 28*, 117-148.

Banks, J. A. (1985). *Teaching strategies for the social studies: Inquiry, valuing and decision-making.* New York: Longman.

Banks, J. A. (1990). *Teaching strategies for the Social Studies: Inquiry, valuing and decision-making.* New York: Longman.

Banks, J. A. (1993). Multicultural education for young children: Racial and ethnic attitudes and their modification. In D. Spodek (Ed.), *Handbook of research on the education of young children* (pp. 236-250). New York: Macmillan.

Banks, J. A. (1999). *An introduction to multicultural education.* Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Banks, J. A. (2004). Teaching for social justice, diversity, and citizenship in a global world. *The Educational Forum, 68*(4), 295-305.

Banks, J. A. (2009). *The Routledge international companion to multicultural education*. New York: Routledge.

Banks, J. A., Cookson, P., Gay, G., Hawley, W. D., Irvine, J., Nieto, S., Schofield, J. W., & Stephan, W. G. (2001). Diversity within unity: Essential principles for teaching

Barr, R. D., Barth, J. L., & Shermis, S. S. (1977). *Defining the Social Studies*. Arlington, VA: National Council for the Social Studies.

Bass, R., & Elmendorf, H. (2011). Designing for difficulty: Social pedagogies as a framework for course design. Retrieved on January 20, 2016 fromhttp://www.blogs.commons.georgetown.edu/bassr/social-pedagogies.

Bednar, A., & Levie., W. H. (1993). Attitude-change principles. In M. Fleming & W. H. Levie (Eds.), *Instructional message design: Principles from the behavioural and cognitive sciences* (pp. 283-304). Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Educational Technology Publications.

Begg, A. (2005). Why curriculum matters to me. *Curriculum Matters, 1,* 1-11.

Bekoe, S. O. (2007). Assessment of Social Studies learning outcome: An evaluation of the appropriateness and validity of the Senior Secondary School certificate examination items in Ghana. *The Social Educator, 3*(1), 119-135.

Bekoe, S. O., & Eshun, I. (2013a). Curriculum feuding and implementation challenges: The case of senior high school Social Studies in Ghana. *Journal of Education and Practice*, *4*(5), 39-45.

Bekoe, S. O., & Eshun, I. (2013b). Exploring Social Studies teachers' conceptions on nature and content of Social Studies in senior high schools in the Central Region of Ghana. *Research on Humanities and Social Sciences*, *3*(5), 85-95.

Bekoe, S. O., & Eshun, I. (2013c). Influence of the differences in Social Studies teachers' curriculum conceptions on curriculum implementation in senior high schools in Ghana: Implication for national curriculum policy. *Development Country Studies, 3*(6), 105-113.

Bekoe, S. O., Eshun, I., & Bordoh, A. (2013). Formative assessment techniques tutors use to assess teacher-trainees' learning in Social Studies in Colleges of Education in Ghana. *Research on Humanities and Social Sciences, 3*(4), 20-30.

Benett, C. I. (2003). *Comprehensive multicultural education: Theory and practice* (5th ed). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Blege, W. (2001). *Social Studies: Theory and practice*. Accra: Wallyblege Publications.

Borg, S. (1998). Teachers' pedagogical systems and grammar teaching: A qualitative study. *TESOL Quarterly, 32*(1), 9-38.

Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. *Language Teaching, 36*(2), 81-109.

Borich, G. D. (2004). *Effective teaching methods* (5th ed). Canada: Pearson Merrill Prentice Hall.

Branson, M. (2002). Patriotism and civic literacy. Paper presented at We the People State and District Coordinators Conference. Washington, DC. 19th June, 2002.

Brown, D. F. (1992). Altering curriculum through state-mandated testing: Perceptions of teachers and principals. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Research Association at San Francisco and California.

Brown, G. T. L. (2008). *Conceptions of assessment*: *Understanding what assessment means to teachers and students*. New York: Nova Science Publishers.

Burns, R. B. (2000). *Introduction to research methods.* Chicago: Longman.

Butts, R. F. (1988). The moral imperative for American schools: "…inflame the civic temper…" *American Educational Research Journal, 96*(2), 162-194.

Calderhead, J. (1996). Teachers: Beliefs and knowledge. In D. C. Berliner & R. C. Calfee (Eds.), *Handbook of educational psychology* (pp. 709-725). New York: Simon & Schuster Macmillan.

Caliskan, S. (2010). Instruction of problem-solving strategies: Effects on physics achievement and self-efficacy beliefs. *Journal of Baltic Science Education, 9*(1), 20-24.

Cardwell, M. (1999). *The dictionary of psychology*. Chicago: Fitzroy Dearborn.

Carnegie Foundation (2003). *The civic mission of schools.* New York: Author.

Chan, Z. (2012). Role-playing in the problem-based learning class. *Journal of Nurse Education in Practice, 12*(21), 21-27.

Chandler, D. (2005). Selectivity and perceptual constancy. Retrieved on January 22, 2016, from http://www.wikipedia.org/wki/perception.

Cherif, A., Verma, S., & Summervill, C. (1998). From the Los Angeles zoo to the classroom. *The American Biology Teacher, 60*(8), 613-617.

Cheung, D. (2000). Measuring teachers' meta-orientations to curriculum: Application of hierarchical confirmatory analysis. *Journal of Experimental Education, 68*(2), 149-165.

Cheung, D., & Ng, P. H. (2000). Science teachers' beliefs about curriculum design. *Research in Science Education, 30*(4), 357-375.

Cheung, D., & Wong, H. W. (2002). Measuring teacher beliefs about alternative curriculum designs. *The Curriculum Journal, 13*(2), 225-248.

Chiodo, J. J., & Byford, J. (2004). Do they really dislike Social Studies? A study of middle school and high school students. Retrieved on November 27, 2016, from http://www.Social Studies/org/abt.

Chun, M. (2010). Taking teaching to performance task: Linking pedagogical and assessment practices. *Change, 42*(2), 22-29.

Clandinin, D. J., & Connelly, F. M. (1992). Teacher as curriculum maker. In P. F. Jackson (Ed.), *Handbook of research on curriculum (*pp. 363-401). New York: Macmillan.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. (2000). *Research methods in education* (5th ed.). London: RoutledgeFalmer.

Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioural sciences* (2nd ed). New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approach* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Creswell, J. W. (2005). *Educational research: Planning, conducting and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research*. New Jersey: Pearson Education.

Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design.* Los Angeles: Sage Publications.

Creswell, J. W., Plano Clark, V. L., Gutmann, M. L. & Hanson, W. (2003). Advanced mixed methods research designs. In A. Tashakkori & C. Teddlie (Eds.), *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioural research* (pp. 209-240). London: Sage Publications.

Curriculum Research and Development Division (2007). *Social Studies teaching syllabus for Junior High Schools*. Accra: Ministry of Education.

Curriculum Research and Development Division (CRDD, 1987). *Social Studies syllabus for junior secondary schools*. Accra: Ministry of Education.

CRDD (2007). *Social Studies teaching syllabus for junior high schools*. Accra: Ministry of Education.

Cuthrell, K., & Yates, P. (2007). Making it all fit: Integration strategies for Social Studies and literacy. *The Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin*, *73*(4), 22-25.

Davis, B. (2009). *The biracial and multicultural student experience: A journey to racial literacy.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Davies, I., Evans, M., & Reid, A. (2005). Globalizing citizenship education? A critique of global education and citizenship education. *British Journal of Educational Studies, 53*(1), 66-89.

Davies, L. (2006). Global citizenship: Abstraction or framework for action? *Educational Review, 58*(1), 5-25.

Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1998). *Strategies of qualitative inquiry*. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage.

Dunn, R. E. (2002). Growing good citizens with a world-centred curriculum. *Educational Leadership, 60*(2), 10-13.

Dunn, S. G. (2005). *Philosophical foundation of education*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.

Duodu, F. W. K. (2002). *Teacher education in Ghana*. Accra: Charis Publications.

Dynneson, T. L., & Gross, R. E. (1999). *Designing effective instruction for secondary Social Studies*. Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Ebbeck, M. (2006). The challenges of global citizenship: Some issues for policy and practice in early childhood. *Childhood Education, 82*(6), 353-357.

Ediger, M. (2007). Philosophy of Social Studies education. *Journal of Instructional Psychology, 34*(1), 18-21.

Eisner, E. W., & Vallance, E. (1974). Five conceptions of curriculum: Their roots and implications for curriculum planning. In E. W. Eisner & E. Vallance (Eds.), *Conflicting conceptions of curriculum* (pp. 1-18). Berkeley, California: McCutchan Publishing Corp.

Elbaz, F. L. (1981). The teacher's practical knowledge: Report of a case study. *Curriculum Inquiry*, *11*(1), 43-71.

Elbaz, F. L. (1983). *Teacher thinking: A study of practical knowledge*. London: Croom Helm.

Engle, S. H., & Ochoa, A. S. (1988). *Education for democratic citizenship decision-making in the Social Studies.* New York: Teachers College Press.

Engler, J. M., & Hunt, Jr. J. B. (2004). Preparing our students for work and citizenship in the global age. *Phi Delta Kappan, 86*(3), 197-199.

Erickson, H. L. (2001). *Stirring the head, heart and soul: Refining curriculum and instruction* (2nd ed.) Thousand Oaks, California: Corwin.

Ernest, P. (1989). The impact of beliefs on the teaching of mathematics. In P. Ernest (Ed.), *Mathematics teaching: The state of the art* (pp. 249-253). New York: Falmer Press.

Ertmer, P. A. (2005). Teacher pedagogical beliefs: The final frontier in our quest for technology integration? *Educational Technology Research and Development, 53*(4), 25-39.

Eshun, I., & Ashun, E. A. (2013). The effect of the out-programme of the in-in-out policy of teacher education in Ghana: Implication for human resource development. *Journal of Education and Practice*, *4*(13), 99-110.

Eshun, I., Bordoh, A., Bassaw, T. K., & Mensah, M. F. (2014). Evaluation of Social Studies students' learning using formative assessment in selected Colleges of Education in Ghana. *British Journal of Education*, *2*(1), 39-48.

Eshun, I., & Mensah, M. F. (2013a). Investigation of pedagogical content knowledge of graduate Social Studies teachers in senior high schools in the Western Region of Ghana. *Journal of Education and Practice*, *4*(4), 176-184.

Eshun, I., & Mensah, M. F. (2013b). Domain of educational objectives Social Studies teachers' questions emphasise in senior high schools in Ghana. *Journal of Education and Practice*, *4*(4), 185-196.

Eyiah, J. K. (2007). Ghana@ 50: The state of education. Retrieved in January 18, 2017 from http://www.ghanaweb.com/GhanaHomePage/features/artikel.php?ID= 12010.

Evans, R. W. (2004). *The Social Studies wars: What should we teach children?* New York: Teacher College Press.

Faggella-Luby, M. N., & Deshler, D. D. (2008). Reading comprehension in adolescents with L D: What we know; what we need to learn. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice, 23*(2), 70-78.

Floden, R. E., & Meniketti, M. (2005). Research on the effects of coursework in the arts and sciences and in the foundations of education. In M. Cochran-Smith & K. M. Zeichner (Eds.), *Studying teacher education: The report of the AERA panel on research and teacher education* (pp. 261-308). Mahwah, New Jersey: LEA.

Fullan, M. (2001). *The new meaning of educational change* (3rd ed.). New York: Teachers College Press.

Garmon, M. A. (2004). Changing pre-service teachers' attitudes/beliefs about diversity. *Journal of Teacher Education*, *53*(3), 214-226.

Gatawa, B. S. M. (1990). *The politics of the school curriculum: An introduction*. Harare: Jongwe Press.

Gay, G. (1988). Designing relevant curricula for diverse learners. *Education and Urban Society, 20*, 327-340.

Ghana Education Service (1987). *The social studies syllabus for JSS*. Accra: Curriculum Research and Development Division.

Goodlad, J. I. (1979). *Curriculum inquiry: The study of curriculum practice*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Gorski, P. C. (2001). *Mission and purpose*. St. Paul, Minnesota: Ed Change Pavilion.

Government of Ghana (2002). *White Paper on the report of the Education Reform Review Committee*. Accra, Ghana: Ghana Publishing Corporation.

Greeff, M. (2002). Information collection: Interviewing. In A.S. de Vos (Ed.), *Research at grass roots* (pp. 291-320). Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Greene, J. C. (2007). *Mixing methods in social inquiry.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Guskey, T. (1986). Staff development and the process of teacher change. *Educational Researcher, 15*(5, 5-12.

Guskey, T. (2002). Professional development and teacher change. *Theory and Practice, 8*(4), 381-391.

Hahn, C. L. (2001). Democratic understanding: Cross-national perspective. *Theory into Practice, 40*(1), 14-22.

Hahn, C. L. (1996). Investigating controversial issues at election time. *Social Education, 60*(6), 48-350.

Heater, D. (1997). The reality of multiple citizenship. In I. Davies & A. Sobisch (Eds.), *Developing European citizens* (pp. 21-48). Sheffield: Hallam University Press.

Ho, A. D., & Watkins, T. (2001). The conceptual change approach to improving teaching and learning: An evaluation of a Hong Kong staff development programme. *Higher Education, 42*(2), 143-169.

Holden, C. (2000). Learning for democracy: From world studies to global citizenship. *Theory into Practice, 39*(2), 74-80.

Hunkins, F. (1980). *Curriculum development: Programme improvement.* Colombus, Ohio: Merrill.

Ibrahim, T. (2005). Global citizenship education: Mainstreaming the curriculum? *Cambridge Journal of Education, 35*(2), 177-194.

Ikuenobe, P. (2001). Questioning as an epistemic process of critical thinking. *Educational Philosophy and Theory, 33*(4), 325-341.

Jarolimek, H. (1981). Social Studies: An overview. In N. Mchlinger & O. Davis (Eds.), *The Social Studies eightieth year book of the NCSSE.* Chicago: Chicago Press.

Jaromelik, J. (1984). In search of a scope and sequence for social studies. Report of the NCSS. Taskforce on scope and sequence. *Social Studies Education, 48,* 249-262.

Jonassen, D., & Bosung, K. (2010). Arguing to learn and learning to argue: Design justification and guidelines. *Educational Technology Research and Development, 58*(4), 439-457.

Jones, A. (2004). Teaching critical thinking: An investigation of a task in introductory macroeconomics. *Higher Education Research & Development*, *23*(2), 167-181.

Joppe, M. (2000). T*he research process.* Retrieved on May 6, 2016 from http://www.htm.

Kane, R., Sandretto, S., & Heath, C. (2002). Telling half the story: A critical review of research on the teaching beliefs and practices of university academics. *Review of Educational Research, 72*(2), 177-228.

Kelly, G. J., Luke, A., & Green, J. (2008). What counts as knowledge in educational settings: Disciplinary knowledge, assessment, and curriculum. *Review of Research in Education*, *32*, *23-26.*

Kember, D., & Kwan, K. P. (2000). Lecturers' approaches to teaching and their relationship to conceptions of good teaching. *Instructional Science, 28*(5), 469-490.

Kissock, C. (1981). *Curriculum planning for Social Studies teaching*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Klu, J. (1997). Development of teacher education. *International Journal of Educational Research, 1*(2), 45-49.

Krauss, S., Brunner, M., Kunter, M., Baumert, J., Neubrand, M., Blum, W. (2008). Pedagogical content knowledge and content knowledge of secondary mathematics teachers. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *100*(3), 716-725.

Kusi, H. (2012). *Doing qualitative research: A guide for researcher*. Accra Newtown: Emmpong Press.

Kyle, W. C. (1999). Science education in developing countries: Challenging first world hegemony in a global context. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching, 36,* 255-260.

Kyriacou, C. (1995). *Effective teaching in schools* (3rd ed.). London: Stanley Thornes Publications Ltd.

Lawal, M. B. (2003). Foundations of Social Studies. A monograph.

Lawal, M. B., & Oyeleye, A. S. (2003). *Foundations and principles of Social Studies education.* Lagos: A Triads Associate.

Lawal, M. B., Obebe, B. J., James, T., & Fatimeyin, F. F. (n. d.). *Course guide for introduction to Social Studies.* Lagos: School of Education, National Open University of Nigeria.

Lawton, D., & Dufour, B. (1976). *The new Social Studies*. London: Heinemann.

Laxman, K. (2010). A conceptual framework mapping the application of information search strategies to sell and ill-structured problem-solving. *Computers & Education, 55*(2), 513-526.

Leveson, L. (2004). Encouraging better learning through better teaching: A study of approaches to teaching in accounting. *Accounting Education, 13*(4), 529-549.

Lindblom-Ylanne, S., & Trigwell, K. (2006). How approaches to teaching are affected by discipline and teaching context. *Studies in Higher Education, 31*(3), 285-298.

Makinde, M. A. (1979). Integrated Social Studies: A handbook of Social Studies for Teachers. Oxford.

Mandernach, B. J. (2006). Thinking critically about critical thinking: Integrating online tools to promote critical thinking. *Critical Thinking, 1*, 41-50.

Manzoor, I., Mukhtar, F., & Hashmi, N. R. (2012). Medical students' perspective about role-plays as a teaching strategy in community medicine. *Journal of the College of Physicians and Surgeons, Pakistan, 22*(4), 222-225.

Marcus, A. S. (2007). Representing the past and reflecting the present: Museums, memorials, and the secondary history classroom. *Social Studies, 98*(3), 105-110.

Marri, A. R. (2005). Educational technology as a tool for multicultural democratic education: The case of one US history teacher in an under resourced high school. *Contemporary Issues in Technology and Teacher Education, 4*(4), 395-409.

Martin, B. L., & Briggs, L. J. (1986). *The cognitive and affective domains: Integration for instruction and research*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Educational Technology Publications.

Martorella, P. H. (1994). *Social Studies for elementary school children.* New Jersey: Prentice Hall Inc.

Maxim, G. W. (2006). *Dynamic Social Studies for constructivist classrooms: Inspiring tomorrow's social scientists* (8th ed.). Columbus, OH: Pearson Merill Prentice Hall.

Mcintosh, P. (2005). Gender perspectives on educating for global citizenship. In N. Noddings (Ed.), *Educating citizens for global awareness* (pp. 22-39). New York: Teachers College Press.

McDaniel, K. N. (2000). Four elements of successful historical role-playing in the classroom. *History Teacher, 33*(3), 357-362.

McDonald, F., & Kielsmeier, C. (1970). *Social learning theory and the design of instructional systems in the affective domain: A resource book for media specialists*. Washington, DC: Gryphon House.

McMurray, A. J. (2007). The role of discussion and dissent in creating civic understanding. *American Secondary Education, 36*(1), 49-58.

McNeil, F. (2009).What works and what's just? *European Journal of Probation, 1*(1), 21-40.

Menezes, I. (2003). Participation experiences and civic concepts, attitudes and engagement: Implications for citizenship education projects. *European Educational Research Journal, 2*(3), 430-445.

Merry, M. (2007). Patriotism, history and the legitimate aims of American education, educational philosophy and theory. Retrieved on March 5, 2016, from http://www.blackwellsynergy.com/action/showPdf.

Merryfield, M. M., & Wilson, A. H. (2005). *Social Studies and the world: Teaching global perspectives.* San Jose, CA: Cowan Creative.

Merryfield, M. M., & Mutebi, P. M. (1991). A review of research of Social Studies education in Africa. In J. P. Shaver (Ed.), *Handbook of research in Social Studies teaching and learning: A project of the national council for the Social Studies* (pp. 621-631). New York: Macmillan publishing company.

Ming, K., & Dukes, C. (2006). Fostering cultural competence through school-based routines. *Multicultural Education*, *11*(3), 42-48.

Morris, R. V. (2003). Acting out history: Students reach across time and space. *International Journal of Social Education, 18*(1), 44-51.

Morse, J. M. (1991). Approaches to qualitative-quantitative methodological triangulation. *Nursing Research, 40,* 120–123.

Myers, J. P. (2006). Rethinking the Social Studies curriculum in the context of globalisation: Education for global citizenship in the U.S. *Theory and Research in Social Education, 34*(1), 370-394.

National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS, 1994). *Expectations of excellence: Curriculum standards for Social Studies.* Washington, DC: National Council for the Social Studies.

National Council for the Social Studies (2006). NCSS mission statement. Retrieved on January 25, 2017 from: http:// www.socialstudies.org/about/.

National Examination Council (2011). *NECO syllabus.* Minna: NECO.

Nespor, J. (1987). The role of beliefs in the practice of teaching. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, *19*(4), 317-328.

Newmann, F. M. (1989). Reflective civic participation. *Social Education, 53*(6), 357-360.

Nias, J., Southworth, G., & Campbell, P. (1992). *Whole school curriculum development in the primary school.* London: Falmer Press.

Niemi, N. S., & Niemi, R. G. (2007). Partisanship, participation, and political trust as taught (or not) in high school history and government classes. *Theory & Research in Social Education, 35*(1), 32-61.

Noddings, N. (2005). Global citizenship: Promises and problems. In N. Noddings (Ed.), *Educating citizens for global awareness* (pp. 1-21). New York: Teachers College Press.

Obebe, J. B. (1990). Development of Social Studies education in the Nigerian school curriculum. *Lagos Education Review, 6*(1), 124-134.

Oberle, A. P. (2004). Understanding public land management through role-playing. *Journal of Geography, 103*(5), 199-210.

Odejobi, C. O., & Adesina, A. D. O. (2009). Peace education and the school curriculum. Retrieved on January 27, 2017 from http://www4.nau.edu/cee/ jep/journalterms. aspx?term.

Odumah, L. (2003). *Foundations of Social Studies*. Accra: Jospong Printing Press.

Odumah, L. (2008). The relevance of controversial issues in Social Studies education. In Y. O. Kusi (Ed.), *Selected topics in Social Studies*. Accra: Salt 'n' Lake.

Ogundare, S. F. (2000). *Foundations of Social Studies: A handbook of concepts and principles of Social Studies.* Ibadan: Adesesan Graphic Press.

Olafson, L., & Schraw, G. (2006). Teachers' beliefs and practices within and across domains. *International Journal of Educational Research*, *45,* 71-84.

Ornstein, A., & Hunkins, F. (1998). *Curriculum: Foundations, principle and issues*. Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Osborne, K. (1991). *Teaching for democratic citizenship*. Toronto: Our Schools.

Oyebamiji, M. A. (2001). Peace education as a process of preparing youth for Nation building. A paper presented at the national conference organised by Social Studies Association of Nigeria (SOSAN) Western Zone at Adeyemi College of Education, Ondo, Nigeria.

Ozman, H. A., & Craver, S. M. (2008). *Philosophical foundations of education* (8th ed). Columbus, OH: Merrill.

Pajares, F. M. (1992). Teachers' beliefs and educational research: Cleaning up a messy construct. *Review of Educational Research*, *62*(3), 307–332.

Parker, W. C. (1996). *Educating the democratic mind*. Albany: State University of New York Press.

Parker, W. C. (2005).*Social Studies in elementary education* (12th ed). Columbus, Ohio: Pearson Merrill, Prentice-Hall.

Parker, W. C. (2009).*Social Studies in elementary education*. New York: Pearson.

Patrick, J. J. (1999). Education for constructive engagement of citizens in democratic civil society and government. In C. F. Bahmueller, & J. J. Patrick, (Eds.), *Principles and practices of education for democratic citizenship: International perspectives and projects*. Indiana: Educational Resources Information Centre Adjunct Clearinghouse for International Civic Education.

Patrick, J. J. (2002). Defining, delivering, and defending a common education for citizenship in a democracy. Paper presented at the "Summit on Civic Learning in Teacher Preparation", Boston, MA.

Patrick, J. J. (2003). Teaching democracy globally, internationally, and comparatively: The 21st century civic mission of schools. Retrieved on December 30, 2016, from http://www.civiced.org/papers/articles_patrick_global.pdf.

Patrick, J. J. (2006). Content and process in education for democracy. *International Journal of Social Education, 20*(2), 1-12.

Patrick, J. J., & Hoge, J. (1991).Teaching government, civics, and the law. In J. Shaver, (Ed.), *Handbook of research on Social Studies teaching and learning* (pp. 427-436). New York: Macmillan.

Pattnaik, J. (2003). Learning about the other: Building a case for intercultural understanding among minority children. *Childhood Education*, *79*(4), 204-211

Peddiwell, A. J. (1939). *The saber-tooth curriculum*. New York: McGraw Hill.

Pigozzi, M. J. (2006). A UNESCO view of global citizenship education. *Educational Review, 58*(1), 1-4.

Plutchik, R. (1980). *Emotion: A psycho-evolutionary analysis.* New York: Harper & Row.

Postareff, L. S., & Lindblom-Ylanne, R. (1997).The effect of pedagogical training on teaching in higher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 23*(5), 556-571.

PRINCOF Secretariat (2009). *Developments in basic teacher education in Ghana.* Kumasi Greenland's Concept.

Print, M., & Smith, A. (2000). Teaching civic education for a civil, democratic society in the Asian region. *Asia Pacific Education Review, 1*(1), 101-109.

Prosser, M., Martin, E., Trigwell, K., Ramsden, P., & Lueckenhausen, G. (2005). Academics' experiences of understanding of their subject matter and the relationship of this to their experiences of teaching and learning. *Instructional Science, 33,* 137-157.

Quartey, S. M. (1984). *Methods book for Social Studies* (1st ed). Lagos: Orit Egwa Ltd**.**

Quashigah, A. Y. (2001). Social studies teaching: A study of pedagogy for global perspective education. *Southern Social Studies Journal, 26*(1), 44-63.

Quashigah, A. Y., Dake, Y. G., Bekoe, S. O., Eshun, I., & Bordoh, A. (2014). Evaluation of colleges of education social studies curriculum vis-à-vis the junior high school social studies curriculum in Ghana. *European Journal of Training and Development Studies, 1*(2), 1-13.

Quashigah, A. Y., Eshun, I., & Mensah, M. F. (2013). Influences of the pedagogical content knowledge of graduate Social Studies teachers on questions they set in senior high schools in Ghana. *Research on Humanities and Social Sciences*, *3*(6), 76-86.

Ramsey, P. (1982). Multicultural education in early childhood. In J. Brown (Ed.), *Curriculum planning for young children* (pp.131-142). Washington, DC: NAEYC.

Rapoport, A. (2009). A forgotten concept: Global citizenship education and state Social Studies standards. Retrieved on September 28, 2016, from http://findarticles.com/p/articles.

Ramsey, P. (1982). Multicultural education in early childhood. In J. Brown (Ed.), *Curriculum planning for young children* (Pp.131-142). Washington, DC: NAEYC.

Reimers, F. (2006). Citizenship, identity and education: Examining the public purposes of schools in an age of globalisation. *Prospects, 36*(3), 275-294.

Richardson, J. (2005). Students' approaches to learning and teachers' approaches to teaching in higher education. *Educational Psychology, 25*(6), 673-680.

Riera, J. R., Cibanal, J. L., & Mora, M. P. (2010). Using role playing in the integration of knowledge in the teaching-learning process in nursing: Assessment of students. *Texto Contexto Enferm, Florianópolis, Out-Dez, 19*(4), 618-26.

Ringel, S. R. (2004). Designing a moot court: What to do, what not to do, and suggestions for how to do it. *Political Science and Politics*, *37*(3), 459-465.

Risinger, C. F. (1997). Citizenship education and the world-wide web. *Social Education*, *61*(4), 223-224.

Samuelowicz, K., & Bain, J. (2001). Revisiting academics' beliefs about teaching and learning. *Higher Education, 41*(3), 299-325.

Salako, E. T. (2010). Multicultural education: An alternative strategy for social transformation. *Journal of Social Studies Education in Nigeria, 1*(1), 28-41.

Savery, J. R. (2009). Problem-based approach to instruction. In C. Reigeluth, & M. Carr-Chellman (Eds.), *Instructional-design theories and models* (pp. 143-165). New York: Routledge.

Schaap, A. (2005). Learning political theory by role-playing. *Politics, 25*(1), 46-52.

Schmidt, L. (2007). *Social Studies that stick: How to bring content and concepts to life*. Portsmouth: Heinemann.

Schraw, G., & Olafson, L. (2002). Teachers' epistemological world views and educational practices: Issues in education. *Educational Psychology, 8*(2), 99-148.

Schweisfurth, M. (2006). Education for global citizenship: Teacher agency and curricular structure in Ontario schools. *Educational Review, 55*(1), 41-50.

Scott, D. (2008). *Critical essays on major curriculum theorists*. London: Routledge.

Seefeldt, C. (1997). *Social Studies for the pre-school - primary child.* Columbus, Ohio: Merrill Publishing Company.

Seiffert, M. (1986), Outsiders helping teachers. *Curriculum Perspectives, 6*(2), 37-40.

Seidu, A. (2006). *Modern approach to research in educational administration*. Amakom-Kumasi: Payless Publication.

Sekyere, E. A. (2012). *Teachers guide.* Kumasi: Afosek Educational Consultancy Centre.

Shah, C. G. (2010). Critical thinking. What it is and why it matters to emerging professionals? *Advanced Materials and Processes, 168*(5), 66-66.

Shavelson, R. J., & Stern, P. (1981). Research on teachers' pedagogical thoughts, judgments, decisions, and behaviour. *Review of Educational Research, 51,* 455-498.

Shaver, J. (1977). Comments of James P. Shaver. In R. D. Barr, J. L. Barth, & S. S. Shermis (Eds.), *Defining the Social Studies* (pp. 114-117). Arlington, VA: National Council for the Social Studies.

Sheppard, K. (2004). Global citizenship: The human face of international education. *International Education, 34*(1), 34-40.

Shiundu, J. O., & Mohammed, A. (1994). *Issues in Social Studies teacher education in Africa.* Nairobi: ASSP.

Shopkow, L., Diaz, A., Middendorf, J., & Pace, D. (2012). The history learning project "decodes" a discipline: The union of teaching and epistemology. In K. McKinney (Ed.), *Scholarship of teaching and learning in and across the disciplines.* Bloomington: Indiana University Press.

Shuck, S. (1997). Using a research simulation to challenge prospective teachers' beliefs about mathematics. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 13*(5), 529 - 539.

Shulman, L. S. (1986). Those who understand: Knowledge growth in teaching. *Educational Researcher, 15*(2), 4-14.

Simonson, M., & Maushak, N. (2001). Instructional technology and attitude change. In D. Jonassen (Ed.), *Handbook of research for educational communications and technology* (pp. 984-1016). Mahway, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Sleeter, C. E., & Grant, C. A. (1988). *Making choices for multicultural education: Five approaches to race, class, and gender.* Columbus, Ohio: Merrill Publishing Company.

Smith, S. N., & Fairman, D. (2005). The integration of conflict resolution into the high school curriculum: The example of workable peace. In N. Noddings (Ed.), *Educating citizens for global awareness (*pp. 40-56). New York: Teachers College Press.

Smith, P., & Ragan, T. J. (1999). *Instructional design*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Stake, R. E. (1967). The countenance of education evaluation. *Teachers College Record, 68*(7), 523-540.

Stake, R. E. (2004). *Standards-based and responsive evaluation*. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications.

Stanley, W. (1991). Teacher competence for Social Studies. In J. Shaver (Ed.), *Handbook of research on Social Studies teaching and learning* (pp. 249-262). New York: Macmillan.

Stenhouse, N. (1975). *An introduction to curriculum research and development.* Oxford: Heinemann Educational Publications.

Stufflebeam, D. L. (2001). Evaluation model. *New direction for evaluation, 3*(89), 7-98.

Svinicki, M. D., & McKeachie, W. (2011). *McKeachie's teaching tips: Strategies, research, and theory for college and university teachers (13th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth*.

Tamakloe, E. K. (1994). *Issues in Social Studies education*. Accra: Black Mask.

Tanner, D., & Tanner, L. (1995). *Curriculum development: Theory into practice* (3rd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Merrill.

Thompson, A. G. (1992). Teachers' beliefs and conceptions: A synthesis of the research. In D. A. Grouws (Ed.), *Handbook of research on mathematics teaching and learning* (pp. 127-146). New York: MacMillan.

Thornton, S. J. (1994). The Social Studies near century's end: Reconsidering patterns of curriculum and instruction. *Review of Research in Education, 20*, 223-254.

Tillema, H. H. (2000). Belief change towards self-directed learning in student teachers: Immersion in practice or reflection on action. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 16,* 575-591.

Todd, R. H. (2005). Social Studies wars: What should we teach the children? New York: Teachers College Press.

Torney-Purta, J., & Lopez, S. V. (2006). *Developing citizenship competencies from kindergarten through grade 12: A background paper for policymakers and educators.* Denver, CO: Education Commission of the States and National Centre for Learning and Citizenship.

Tschannen-Moran, M., & Woolfolk-Hoy. A. (2001). Teacher efficacy: Capturing an elusive construct. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 17*, 783-805.

Tutty, J. J., & Sheard, E. (2008). Teaching in the current higher education environment: perceptions of IT academics. *Computer Science Education, 18*(3), 171-185.

Udoh, N. E. (1989). SOSAN and the development of Social Studies education in Nigeria. *Nigerian Journal of Social Studies, 1*(2), 20-22.

Underleiger, C. S., & McGregor, J. (1993). Teacher education and racism awareness education: Affectiveness of role playing and antiracist teaching in reducing student prejudice. *Journal of Educational Research, 86*(4), 215-226.

University of Zimbabwe (1995). *Curriculum implementation, change and innovation*. Harare: Centre for Distance Education, University of Zimbabwe. Module EA3AD 303.

Urevbu, A. O. (1985). *Curriculum studies*. Ikeja: Longman.

Vogler, K. E., & Virtue, D. (2007). Just the facts, ma'am: Teaching Social Studies in the era of standards and high-stakes testing. *Social Studies, 98*(2), 54-58.

Westheimer, J., & Kahne, J. (2003). Teaching democracy: What schools need to do? *Phi Delta Kappan*, *85*(1), 34-66.

Westheimer, J., & Kahne, J. (2004). What kind of citizen? The politics of educating for democracy. *American Educational Research Journal, 41*(2), 237-269.

Wetzel, C. D., Radtke, P. H., & Stern, H. W. (1994). *Instructional effectiveness of video media.* Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Whitaker, P. (1993). *Managing changes in school*. Buckingham: Open University Press.

White, R. T. (1994). Commentary: Conceptual and conceptional change. *Learning and Instruction, 4*, 117-121.

White, S. C. (1982). A validation study of the Barth-Shermis Social Studies preference scale. *Theory and Research in Social Education, 10*(2), 1-20.

Whitson, J. A. (2007). Conceptions of curriculum. Retrieved on February 26, 2017, from http://curricublog.org/conceptions-of-curriculum.

Willis, P. (1977). *Learning to labour*. Farnborough: Saxon House.

Winch, C. (2006). *Education, autonomy and critical thinking.* London: Rouledge.

Yamashita, H. (2006). Global citizenship education and war: The needs of teachers and learners. *Educational Review, 58*(1), 27-39.

Young, C. J. (2011). *Conceptualisations of curriculum.* New York: Bergin.

Zimbardo, P. G., & Leippe, M. R. (1991). *The psychology of attitude change and social influence.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Zimmerman, B. J. (2000). Self-efficacy: An essential motive to learn. *Contemporary Educational Psychology 25*, 82-91.

# APPENDIX A

## SECTION C: TEACHER PREPAREDNESS IN TEACHING SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM OF PRE-TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS IN GHANA

**Instruction:** Please, provide responses to the items that follow by ticking **(√)** or writing the response that best suits your opinion. Use the Likert-scale below:

**Key: 4** = Strongly Agree; **3** = Agree; **2** = Disagree; **1**= Strongly Disagree

| **Statement** | **4** | **3** | **2** | **1** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 19. Social Studies instruction is all about the teaching of geography, history, and government topics. | | | | |
| 20. The integrated approach of teaching is the best method of teaching Social Studies to teacher educators in universities and colleges of education in Ghana. | | | | |
| 21. Social Studies should be taught in this university/college of education in the same way it is taught in pre-tertiary institutions in Ghana. | | | | |
| 22. Social Studies teachers who study the subject in this university/college of education are prepared to use interdisciplinary or integrated Social Studies approach to Social Studies education in pre-tertiary institutions. | | | | |
| 23. Social Studies teachers who study the subject in this university/college of education are prepared to use subject specific or separate subject Social Studies curriculum approach in pre-tertiary institutions. | | | | |
| 24. To bring a more purposeful understanding of a central idea or an issue in Social Studies, the teacher should draw together knowledge from civics, economics, anthropology, history, geography, etc.) | | | | |

25. Social Studies educators or graduates who have been prepared in this university/college of education have sufficient repertoire of strategies for teaching integrated Social Studies in pre-tertiary institutions in Ghana.

Strongly Agree [ ] Agree [ ] Indifferent [ ] Disagree [ ] Strongly Agree [ ]

26. Social Studies educators or graduates who have been prepared in this university/college of education have sufficient repertoire of strategies for teaching individual Social Studies subjects in pre-tertiary institutions in Ghana.

Strongly Agree [ ] Agree [ ] Indifferent [ ] Disagree [ ] Strongly Agree [ ]

**Instruction:** Rate by ticking **(√)** to indicate the efficacy in terms of pedagogical competence and mastery of Social Studies educators or graduates who are prepared in this university/college of education to teach the following Social Studies subject areas in pre-tertiary institutions in Ghana?

**Instruction**: Use the following scale to answer the questions below:

**Key: 5** = Very High; **4** = High; **3** = Moderate; **2**= Low; **1** = Very Low

| **Subject** | **Response** | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **5** | **4** | **3** | **2** | **1** |
| 27. History | | | | | |
| 28. Geography | | | | | |
| 29. Economics | | | | | |
| 30. Government | | | | | |
| 31. Social science | | | | | |
| 32. Political science | | | | | |
| 33. Social Studies as integrated subject | | | | | |
| 34. Other Social Studies subject (**please specify**): …….. | | | | | |

**SECTION C:** DIFFICULTIES IN THE TEACHING AND LEARNING OF CORE AND

For question 31 - 37, tick **(√)** to rate the extent of the difficulties or challenges facing mathematics teachers and students. Use the Likert scale as follows:

**4** = very great extent; **3**= great extent; **2** = moderate extent; **1** = low extent;

**0** = no extent or not at all

| **Difficulty/challenge/problem** | **4** | **3** | **2** | **1** | **0** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Confusion over the nature of Social Studies | | | | | |
| Conflict of teaching Social Studies as integrated/subject specific subject | | | | | |
| Inability to effectively teach some concepts or topics | | | | | |
| Challenge of using instructional approaches like cooperative learning, roleplaying, simulation, inquiry, group and independent projects due to large class sizes | | | | | |
| 31. negative belief or perception that mathematics is very difficult to study | | | | | |
| 32. abstract nature of mathematics concepts | | | | | |
| 33. difficulty of conceptual understanding of mathematics | | | | | |
| 34. difficulty of teaching, learning and understanding the language of mathematics | | | | | |
| 35. difficulty of understanding and performing mathematical Calculations | | | | | |
| 36. non-use of instructional media and technology | | | | | |
| 37. curriculum overload or overloaded syllabus | | | | | |
| 38. poor attitude of students to learn mathematics | | | | | |
| 39. poor preparation by mathematics teachers | | | | | |
| 40. staff's lack of pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) | | | | | |
| 41. overcrowded classrooms/classes | | | | | |

# APPENDIX B

## INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR TEACHER TRAINEES

1. Bio data

2. What is your understanding of Social Studies?

……

……

……

3. How should Social Studies be taught in Ghanaian basic schools?

……

……

……

4. How prepared are you to teach Social Studies in Ghanaian basic schools?

……

……

……

5. What likely difficulties could you encounter in the teaching of Social Studies in Ghanaian basic schools, after training?

……

……

……