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TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS AND UTILIZATION OF EDUCATIONAL TRIPS IN TEACHING SOCIAL STUDIES IN BIAKOYE AND KPANDO DISTRICTS IN THE VOLTA REGION

ASIAM GIDEON KORSI

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

NOVEMBER, 2016

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DECLARARION

STUDENT'S DECLARATION

I, Asiam Gideon Korsi, 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 work was supervised in accordance with the guidelines for supervision of Thesis / Dissertation / Project as laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

NAME OF SUPERVISOR: Dr. Lawrence Odumah

SIGNATURE:…….....

DATE:……..

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this piece of work to my father, wife, and son with deepest gratitude and veneration.

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ABSTRACT

This study surveyed teachers perception and utilization of educational trip in teaching Social Studies in Senior High School in Biakoye and Kpando Districts in the Volta Region of Ghana. Four research questions guided the study: 1) What is the perception of teachers regarding the concept of educational trips and experiential learning? 2) How are teachers motivated towards the use of educational trips in teaching Social Studies? 3) To what extent are the challenges confronting teachers as regards the organisation of educational trips influence the utilization of educational trips in teaching Social Studies? 4) What is the extent of teachers‟ use of educational trips in teaching and learning by Social Studies teachers in Senior High Schools in the Volta Region of Ghana? A sequential mixed method design was used for the study. The major instrument for data collection was a questionnaire. Data from this source were then triangulated with interview. Non – probability sampling method, that is, convenience and purposive sampling techniques, were used to select the sample of districts, schools and respondents for the study. In all, thirty (30) Social Studies teachers were selected from six (6) Senior High Schools in the Volta Region. It is discovered from the data that Social Studies teachers have adequate knowledge on the concept of educational trips. The research further revealed that Social Studies teachers have negative attitude towards the utilization of educational trips in teaching Social Studies. These negative attitudes of teachers towards the use of educational trips to promote effective teaching and learning were revealed by the research to relate to a number of interrelated factors which include: 1) Difficulties with transportation (including cost), 2) Time considerations (preparation, fitting into the school timetable), 3) Lack of support from school administrations for educational trips. This research discovered that most Social Studies teachers do not use educational trips in teaching Social Studies in Senior High Schools in the Volta Region of Ghana. And even the few that used it did so sparingly.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Background to the study

Education is considered globally as the bed rock of development in any human society. This is corroborated by Blege (1986) when he postulated that "everywhere there is a fanatical belief in education as the instrument of change and development". This is so because, it helps to shape or change the attitude of individuals toward the attainment of personal and national development. To substantiate this consciousness, Idowu (2001) opines that, the global consensus among scholars in this contemporary world is the ability and skills of learners to learn about issues and problems about themselves, their immediate and remote internal society and international community. Arguably, therefore, learners need a unique and peculiar type of education which will enable them to participate effectively in life. They need the education that will direct and give them a free hand and opportunity to make enquiries, investigate, discover, discuss, experiment and acquire experiences in order to make decisions on social issues and problems, and find solutions to them.

Social studies is an integrated subject that is geared towards equipping an individual with basic knowledge, skills, attitudes and values needed in guiding him/her in solving personal and societal problems (Quartey, 1984). It aims at producing a responsible citizen who is well informed, concerned, participatory, reflective, productive and willing to contribute to national development (Ayaaba and Odumah, 2007). Martorella (1985:10) shared the similar opinion when he stated that the purpose of social studies succinctly is "to develop reflective, competent and concerned citizen". As such, the main task of the Social Studies teacher is to ensure

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that students understand and make meaning out of whatever they learn in class. However, this depends on the experience, training, as well as the teacher‟s perception of what Social Studies is or ought to be. Significantly, Social Studies curriculum models have been associated with four widely used models in many countries including Ghana. This includes Citizenship Education, Reflective Inquiry, Social Science Structure of Education and Unified Integrated as identified by DuBey & Barth (1980), and Okunloye (1988). Teachers‟ perception of Social Studies model is therefore important in Social Studies instruction since the mental image of teachers becomes the frame of reference as to why, how and what Social Studies is taught in the school system.

Many teaching techniques have been adopted and utilized in teaching and learning of Social Studies since the introduction of the subject in the Ghanaian Senior High schools. Among them include role plays, fieldtrips, lectures, dramatizations, seminars, think-pair-and share, simulations, discussions, brainstorming and the like. It is becoming increasingly clear that a technique of making Social Studies teaching and learning very effective and real is through the use of student-centred techniques of teaching which includes fieldtrip or out-of-door activities (Oppong, 2007). That is teaching and learning experiences that are planned and implemented outside the classroom.

Parker (2001: 289) shared related sentiments when he opined that “it is in the local community that the teacher sows the seeds of a life-time study of human society”. By this, students gain the opportunity to observe at first-hand the various social processes that function around them. These may include problems of group living, government

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in operation, the production and distribution of goods and services and to the rich cultural heritage of the people who live in the community. It is for this reason that Aggarwal (2001:242) contended that the school community provides "concrete, seeable and tangible resources which are extremely dynamic, interesting and meaningful for teaching and learning of Social Studies". Educational trip again enable the Environmental and Social Studies class to study at first hand, many things that cannot be brought in to the classroom due to their size and convenience. Teachers and learners alike see things in their natural habitat, natural state and natural reaction or behaviour.

This probably explains why (Dewey, 1967) asserted that a gram of experience is of greater value than a kilogram of theory. However, not all fieldtrips result in these benefits, as a fieldtrip can easily turn into nothing more than a day off from school if it is not well planned. Therefore when selecting a location for fieldtrip, Environmental and Social Studies teachers should always consider the time available, the cost of transportation and the lesson objectives (Ayaaba & Odumah, 2007).

Nevertheless, the primary purpose of education is to bring about desirable change in behaviour through acquisition of skills, attitudes, competencies, critical and creative thinking. It is worth-noting that teaching is a complex and demanding task that requires highly specialized skills, knowledge and resources to impact significantly on student learning.

Undoubtedly, the essence of teaching Social Studies is to achieve attitudinal change in learners. Such a change can occur if teaching and learning is contextualized or

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connected to the environment. This however, put premium on teachers‟ perception and utilization of educational trips in teaching concepts in Social Studies education especially, in the senior high schools. This is because students‟ learning outcome is influenced mostly by appropriate utilization of educational trips. Tyler (1949; cited in Ayaaba, 2006.) supported this view when he posited that "learning takes place through the active behaviour of the students". He emphasised that it is what the learner does that he or she learns, and not what the teacher does. Mathias (1973 cited in Tamakloe, 1996.) suggested that the teaching of social studies demands the involvement of pupils in the world beyond the classroom. This thus, put important weight on the use of educational trips to enable students to relate or link concepts to real world.

According to Edwards, Murray and Nabors (2009), "educational trips, in the formative years are one of the most important things teachers can provide for their students (p.661). In fact globally, teachers have utilized field trips for centuries in order to help teach subjects like history or social studies, science, mathematics, and language arts; amongst the many other topics a teacher could choose from throughout the ages (Krepel & DuVall, 1981). Consequently, each year teachers in America are responsible for taking millions of students on what has now become a childhood rite of passage, the school field trip (American Science and Technology Centers [ASTC], 2012).

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However, scholars, (Blachowicz & Obrochta, 2005; Coughlin, 2010; Gillett, 2011; Nabors, Edwards, & Murray, 2009; Schatz, 2004; Stoddard, 2009), have indicated that for the past decade real life educational trips, as opposed to virtual field trips, are on the decline; most notably as a result of a poor economy, an increase in accountability due to standardized testing, and an increase in fuel costs, among several other issues.

An educational trip, which may also be termed as an instructional trip, school excursion, or school journey, is defined by Krepel & Duvall (1981), as a school or class trip with an educational intent, in which students interact with the setting, displays, and exhibits to gain an experiential connection to the ideas, concepts, and subject matter. Tal & Morag (2009) described field trips as student experiences outside of the classroom at interactive locations designed for educational purposes. Thus, educational trips are visits designed for educational and academic purposes to an out-of-school setting, lasting for minutes or days and occurring at professionally organized and maintained and or unmaintained portions of nature; whereby as a result, students gain first-hand knowledge and real world experiences. The utilization of educational trips provide students with first-hand experience, stimulate interest and motivation in the subject, add relevance to learning and interrelationships, strengthen observation and perception skills, and promote personal (social) development (Michie, 1998).

Field trips however, take students to locations that are unique and cannot be duplicated in the classroom. Each student observes natural settings and creates personally relevant meaning to the experience. Interactive exhibits help students play with concepts, activities often not possible in the classroom. Earlier course content

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suddenly becomes relevant as students assimilate and accommodate new understanding and cognition (Lei, 2010a). The connection between the field trip venue and the classroom links the field trip‟s experiential learning with prior experiences and learning from the classroom (Lei, 2010b). Meanwhile, despite the potential benefits educational trips tend to offer learners in social studies, it is noted that they are sparingly or not used at all by teachers in teaching Social Studies in the Volta Region. The way teachers are approaching the teaching of the subject could be described as „closed-ended and structured text book teaching‟.

However, effective methods to develop student interest include experiential activities and educational trips, which create authentic learning opportunities for students, regardless of the content area. Meanwhile, experiential activities and field trips do not simply happen, teachers need to understand that such activities require knowledge about the organization, planning, and utilization.

The views above on educational trips essentially put premium on the use of educational trip by teachers in order to assist learners to better understand concepts in Social Studies. This is because, education in this age has become widespread that it requires the utilization of educational trips, and that oral teaching alone cannot be the key to successful pedagogy.

Most teachers are not able to utilized educational trips to promote effective teaching and learning due to a number of factors. Negative attitudes of teachers towards the use of fieldtrips to promote effective teaching and learning are related to a number of interrelated factors which includes:

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1. Difficulties with transportation (including cost) (Falk & Balling, 1979; Muse, 1982; Orion, 1993; Price & Hein, 1991).
2. Teachers' skills (the disparity between theory and practice and perceived teacher inertia) (Beasley, Butler & Satterthwait, 1993; Falk & Balling, 1979; Orion, 1993; Tamir & Zoor, 1977).
3. Time considerations (preparation, fitting into the school timetable) (Beasley et al., 1993; Muse et al., 1982; Orion, 1993; Price & Hein, 1991).

However, a critical observation made by the researcher at the various Senior High Schools in the Volta Region of Ghana, revealed that teachers of Social Studies limit the teaching and learning of the subject only to the four walls of the classrooms.

It is against this background that it is momentous to survey teachers‟ perception and utilization of educational trips in some Senior High Schools in the Volta Region of Ghana.

1.1 Statement of the problem

In spite of the potential benefits educational trips tend to offer learners in Social Studies, it is perceived that they are used sparingly by teachers in teaching Social Studies. Students don‟t show interest in the subject to the extent that they dodge Social Studies tests and classes. This may be attributed to the traditional manner in which teachers approach the teaching of the subject that could be described as „closed-ended and structured text book teaching‟. Social Studies is a subject that aims at inculcating into learners knowledge, skills, desirable attitudes and values needed in solving personal as well as societal problems.

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This view is shared by Ayaaba and Odumah (2007:3) when they indicated that "Social Studies is the study aimed at inculcating desirable skills, attitudes, values and relevant knowledge among learners to enable them to participate effectively in the civic life of their communities". This can be achieved by exposing learners to a practical interaction with the environment so as to observe, process, record and construct knowledge base on their own experience.

More so, Tamakloe (2008:4) upheld this view when he opined that during fieldwork in Social Studies lessons, a learner does not only acquire cognitive and psychomotor skills but also the affective skills as well. On the account of this, there is the need on the part of Social Studies teachers to plan and use educational trips in the teaching and learning process bearing in mind the essence of continuity and sequence to foster reiteration and widening of scope as well as catering for the depth of affective elements to be acquired (Tyler (1949) cited in Tamakloe (2008:46).

Again, fieldtrips open up opportunities for students to be acquainted with real situations, problems, and potentials, and thus bring about critical thinking and inquiring minds thereby making Social Studies lessons to move from mere teacher-centered verbal instruction to student-centered activity (Yusuf, 2007).

More significantly, fieldtrips when used effectively by either experienced or less experienced Environmental and Social Studies teacher assist learners to retain, recall and apply the knowledge gain when the need arises. This view is shared by Evans, (1985) when he carried out a research on the usefulness of fieldtrips in teaching and learning and concluded that classes that used the planned fieldtrip technique learned

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more, retained more and did better on tests than did classes not participating in fieldtrips.

However, negative attitudes of teachers towards the use of fieldtrips to promote effective teaching and learning have been revealed through the observation of the researchers in the Senior High Schools of the Volta Region of Ghana. Moreover, the researcher is yet to come across studies on the survey of teachers‟ perception and utilization of educational trips in teaching Social Studies in Senior High Schools in the Volta Region of Ghana. Hence, the researcher‟s motivation to research into teachers‟ perception and utilization of Education trips in teaching social studies in the Senior High Schools in the Volta Region.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to examine teachers‟ perceptions and utilization of educational trips in teaching social studies concepts in Biakoye and Kpando Districts of the Volta Region.

1.3 The Objectives of the Study

The study was guided by the following objectives:

1. To examine the perceptions of SHS Social Studies teachers about the concept of educational trips and experiential learning.
2. To assess teachers‟ motivation towards the use of educational trips in teaching Social Studies.
3. To determine the problems that demotivate teachers about the organisation of educational trips.

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4. To examine the extent of teachers‟ use of educational trips in teaching and learning Social Studies in Senior High Schools in the Volta Region of Ghana.

1.4 Research Questions

The study sought to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the perceptions of teachers about the concept of educational trips and experiential learning?
2. What motivated teachers to use educational trips in teaching Social Studies?
3. What are the problems about the organisation of Educational trips prevent teachers from using educational trips in teaching Social Studies?
4. What is the extent of teachers‟ use of educational trips in teaching and learning Social Studies in Senior High Schools in the Volta Region of Ghana?

1.5 The Significance of the study

The result of this study provides a snap shot of the current teacher practices in regards to their perception and utilization of educational trips.

Additionally, this study stands to influence several interested parties including teachers, administrators, teacher preparation programmes and teacher educators, and Paraprofessionals involved in the field trip business. After examining the results of the study, individual teachers will be encouraged to use educational trips in teaching concepts, due to the benefits. School administrators will be in better position to tailor their services and resources to teachers as they will have a better inclination of who does and does not use field trips. Similarly, teacher preparation programmes and teacher educators will be able to tailor their services, as the information will allow

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them to adjust the depth and breadth of instruction related to the planning and implementation of field trips.

Also, paraprofessionals involved in the field trip business will benefit from this study as they will be able to identify who does and does not utilize their business. Moreover, paraprofessionals will be able to better tailor their services to teachers, while also increasing the level of advertisement and services to those teachers who are not utilizing field trips. Paraprofessionals are therefore professionals that train other professionals

Better still, the study will help the curriculum Research and Development Division (CRDD) of Ghana Education Service (GES), to ensure that educational trip is incorporated into the Senior High School Social studies syllabus, as this will make teaching and learning of the subject more challenging, effective and interesting to both teachers and students.

It is possible that, the study will add to the limited, especially on teachers‟ perception and utilization of educational trips in the field of Social Studies in Ghana.

1.6 Delimitation of the study

The research took place in the Volta Region at six (6) Senior High Schools, out of about seventy three (73) Senior High Schools in the Volta Region of Ghana. Although, the study area comprises a wide expanse of Volta Region, the researcher had to work within only a limited area for the sake of proximity and the limited period available for the study. Hence, Biakoye and Kpando District in the Volta Region of

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Ghana was focused to survey teachers‟ perception and utilization of Educational trips in teaching social Studies. Again, only graduate teachers teaching Social Studies at the S.H.S level were covered.

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CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.0 Overview

This chapter draws attention to relevant works conducted around similar subject matter. Hence in order to understand the relevancy of educational trips, the literature was reviewed under the following major themes**:**

- The historical overview of how and why field trips were first used by teachers.
- The historical evolution of Social Studies in the Junior and Senior High Schools in Ghana
- The concept of educational trips
- Experiential learning
- Efficacy of educational trips
- Teachers‟ attitude and motivation towards educational trips
- Challenges that prevent teachers from organizing educational trip

2.1 Theoretical Framework

This study is anchored on Vygotsky‟s sociocultural theory of human learning. Vygotsky‟s sociocultural theory of human learning describes learning as a social process and the origination of human intelligence in society or culture. The major theme of Vygotsky‟s theoretical framework is that social interaction plays a fundamental role in the development of cognition. Vygotsky (1978) believed everything is learned on two levels. First, through interaction with others, and then integrated into the individual‟s mental structure. Vygotsky (1978:57) posits that,

> *Every function in the child's cultural development appears twice: first, on the social*

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> *level, and later, on the individual level; first, between people (interpsychological) and then inside the child (intrapsychological). This applies equally to voluntary attention, to logical memory, and to the formation of concepts. All the higher functions originate as actual relationships between individuals.*

Vygotsky‟s dialectical constructivism theory specifically denotes the importance of children interacting with experienced members and objects of their community. According to Vygotsky (1978), as learners interact with sociocultural environment, which include experienced members and sceneries, they are in better position to learn at first-hand and this broadens their minds as they are exposed to real concepts. In this way, learners construct knowledge or grasp information themselves and this makes whatever they learn permanent and better. This form of learning is in contrast to a transmission type of learning, where the learner is to be filled with information much like a jar is filled with water.

The Senior High School Social Studies syllabus is a replete of abstract concepts such as democracy and nation building, socialization, leadership and followership (Ayaaba, 2007). It is suggested in the syllabus that opportunities are created by teachers for students to relate these abstract concepts to tangible or real life situations in order for the students to learn or have first-hand information of such concepts and equally live by such tenants as future leaders (CRDD 2010). This, no doubt, per the objectives of Social Studies as spelt out in the Senior High School Social Studies syllabus can be associated with the socio-cultural view of learning elaborated by Vygotsky (1978).

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Vygotsky‟s socio-cultural theory is applicable to this study in the sense that in educational trip activities, students are taken to socio-cultural environment which provide them with the platform to learn and interact with the social environment, their mates and the teacher as well. Hence, the perceptions of teachers regarding educational trips will inform their utilization of educational trips as part of their teaching strategy in order to broaden the minds of learners and to enable them learn better. It is therefore imperative to look into the perceptions of teachers regarding educational trip activities which is logically hooked on Vygotsky‟s socio-cultural theory of human learning. Also, this constructivist view of learning is an appropriate learning theory applicable to educational trips because, student learning occurs as they actively construct their own understandings based on their surroundings.

In sum, it is clear that, the socio-cultural theory of learning views social interactions, which take place in a culturally and physically defined context, as learning events. This is because the questions of interest focus on teachers‟ perceptions and, more specifically, teachers‟ interactions during educational trip activities. Therefore, a sociocultural approach is useful to uncovering insights about teachers‟ perception and utilization of educational trip in teaching Social Studies.

2.2 Historical Overview of how and why field trips were first used by teachers

The use of field trips as an educational tool has its roots in the middle ages; although, the earliest references of field trips being used by teachers dates back to ancient Rome and Greece (Atyeo, 1939; Krepel & DuVall, 1981). Even Aristotle and Socrates advocated for the use of field trips as an educational tool (Krepel & DuVall, 1981). However field trips began to be utilized less frequently after *"...the multiplication of*

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books which followed the invention of printing, and the gradual establishment of universal education, educational emphasis was transferred to the printed page, and the word „education" tended more and more to become synonymous with „book-learning" (Atyeo, 1939:2). It would be many years later, with the teaching of natural sciences such as geography, physics, and botany; where schools wished to establish some form of laboratories so that students might actually "handle for themselves the objects of which they studied, and prove for themselves some of the truths that could be merely stated in the textbook" (Atyeo, 1939, p. 3). Some subjects required the gathering of specimens and thus trips to fields, or field trips were organized and in some cases students were able to participate. Thus, field trips as we might recognize them today were born as an offshoot to the laboratory method of instruction.

One of the earliest records of a school excursion dates back to the late eighteenth century where a German schoolmaster periodically took his students on learning treks in order that they might "love nature, observe keenly and travel extensively" (Atyeo, 1939:14). Students made detailed preparations for each excursion, studying the provisions that were needed, memorizing the boundaries and customs of the people who lived there, and learning about the industries and products that the people relied upon. Students were also given responsibilities as some were tasked as guides and others as watchmen. Learning treks occurred regardless of the conditions of the weather; in fact, dredging through these hardships were considered assets as they "strengthened [students"] moral fiber" (Atyeo, 1939:15).

Additionally, the itineraries were rather extensive and exhaustive. The following is an example of one school excursion that the German schoolmaster conducted:

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The day began with early mass in a Catholic church, after which a tour was made of a cathedral under the direction of a priest. A Benedictine and Carthusian Monastery were visited in order that a comparison might be made. After a trip to a nunnery, the group visited a school of art and listened to an explanation of the paintings. In the course of the day the Imperial Library, a fortress, an arsenal, an orphanage, and museum were included in the itinerary. To conclude their program, the group visited a cell once occupied by [Martin] Luther (Atyeo, 1939:15).

According to Atyeo (1939), the German school excursions continued throughout the 1800s and up to the 1930s. Throughout that time period work was done to try to improve the excursion technique making them less exacting of mental and physical fatigue, while at the same time increasing productivity. One way of achieving this goal came through the provision of youth hostels. In 1911 there were 17 youth hostels but by 1933 they increased to some 2,000 and provided approximately five million nights worth of lodging for teachers and students (Ayteo, 1939).

Teachers also began to use school excursions as a means to increase students‟ knowledge about Germany‟s countryside rather than purely the development of their character. The frequency and durations of excursions would vary depending upon teachers and local regulations. Some teachers would take a week‟s long trip while others used multiple day trips a year. It was common that teachers would require students to take extensive notes during their excursions to later utilize when they returned to the school classroom as the center piece for months‟ worth of discussions and written reports (Ayteo, 1939).

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Additionally, one of the most significant and unexpected outcomes of the excursion, as a learning method, was the development of local museums. In fact, school groups could be found examining local church records in order to discover interesting events in their town‟s history. These local museums would later serve as further justification for school excursions.

Indeed, field trips as one might recognize them today originated in Germany with the development of school excursions at the University of Jena under Stoy, the director of the Pedagogical Seminary; and later modified and enlarged by Rein (Ayeto, 1939; Krepel & DuVall, 1981). From these early beginnings, field trips became associated with the teaching of content knowledge and skills. Additionally, there are accounts of international students who attended the University of Jena; one American man and an English woman who would later return to their native countries as strong advocates of the school excursion movement (Atyeo, 1939).

England also developed a system of field trips known as school journeys, which referred to trips taken abroad. *"One of the first known English school journeys occurred in the summer of 1877 when J. H. Cowham, a geology teacher, took 60 students to visit the Swiss Alps in order to study "live" glaciers (Atyeo, 1939:27). Over the coming decades, school journeys became so popular in England that in 1911 George Gregory Lewis, a London headmaster, led the way in creating a non-profit organization called the School Journey Association"* (Atyeo, 1939).

One of the association‟s main aims was to eliminate prejudice, as its motto, "Travel is the slayer of prejudice," conveyed (Barone, 2008:38). In order to promote the use of

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school journeys and achieve the goal of slaying prejudice the School Journey Association provided financial assistance, insurance, negotiated railway fares, and acquired inexpensive lodgings for school groups. One of the most popular field trips utilized by teachers was the "homeland journey", as it was dubbed. The homeland journey included a tour of England in order to study not only the common subjects of geography and history but also the social life of its people. The social aspect of the school journey was something not typically found in the German excursions. (Atyeo, 1939).

As one might expect field trips were not limited to teachers in Germany and England. In fact, teachers from Japan as well as several other European nations including Austria, France, Italy, Poland, and the Soviet Union (Russia) to name a few all utilized school excursions; although, less extensively throughout the early years of the twentieth century (Atyeo, 1939).

Additionally, in most countries field trips were used to promote their government"s national educational pattern. For example, in the early years of the Soviet Union, the Young Communist Party led trips to factories and large cooperative farms in order to acquaint students with its industrial and agricultural programs (Atyeo, 1939), while in Japan field trips were used as a means to promote interest in the literature and religion of "Old Japan" so that students might appreciate and love their country (Atyeo, 1939).

Field trips have long been used also in America, even during the colonial times Field trips were utilized by teachers as they took students outside to explore nature and learn first-hand from the resources around them (Barone, 2008; Dewey & Boydston,

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1980). Benjamin Franklin even advocated for field trips to neighboring plantations in order to observe and reason upon the farming methods used (Atyeo, 1939). Just prior to the turn of the twentieth century, literature began advocating for the inclusion of school excursions in America; in fact, Charles McMurry was one of the first American proponents of field trips when in 1895 he described a three part procedure for conducting field trips, which is still advocated for today by field trip scholars, in his book Special Method in Geography, (Krepel & DuVall, 1981). Of course, due to geographical and cultural differences, between America and Europe, field trips were often organized and conducted differently.

However, with the technological advances of transportation field trips in America were offered a new beginning. By the early twentieth century field trips in America began to stretch farther away from local industrial areas, farms, and landscapes; so far in fact, that field trips were deemed vital for the less affluent students as it would provide them with life experiences that they could not afford otherwise (Atyeo, 1939). Field trips grew in popularity as is evident by the actions taken by the city of Philadelphia school board, when in 1921, they created guidelines for how to successfully conduct field trips:

1. That excursions be carefully planned and closely connected with regular class work.
2. That teachers stimulate and supervise the activity of the pupils in working out the excursion but not rob them of educational opportunities by doing the work for them.
3. That teachers check-up the results of excursions carefully but at the same time not destroy the spontaneous fun that is so real a part of the excursion.

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4. That an approved excursion which for good reasons cannot be scheduled for after-school hours be carried out on school time, when the school program permits (Atyeo, 1939:46).

Eventually, by the 1920s educational researchers began to examine school excursions as a unique teaching technique (Barone, 2008). Henry Atyeo‟s (1939) book, The Excursion as a Teaching Technique, documented the burgeoning use of field trips throughout America and established the value that teachers placed on them. In 1980 Jack Mason created an annotated bibliography that included Atyeo‟s book as well as 42 other works that were published between 23 1921 and 1977. Based on his review of the research literature, Mason (1980) encouraged the use of field trips due to the favorable findings on how field trips facilitated the acquisition of certain cognitive and affective learning outcomes.

Beginning in the 1980s and continuing into the 1990s, the Association of Science and Technology Centers (ASTC) experienced a dramatic increase in the construction of science centers and museums (ASTC, 2012). Coincidently, research on field trips also began to increase during this time period. Yet, studies began to emerge that contradicted earlier research (Muse, Chiarelott, & Davidman, 1982) and the analysis indicated that “field trip[s] alone may not be as educationally productive as once believed” (Muse et al., 1982:123). However, the majority of the research in the 1980s still found field trips as an effective educational tool for certain cognitive, affective, and social learning outcomes (DeWitt & Storksdieck, 2008). Yet, scholars began to call for future research to go beyond the simple question of whether or not students learn as a result of field trips (Bitgood, 1989).

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Furthermore, much of the research on field trips has focused on and is intended for either those who teach at the elementary level or those who teach in science related disciplines such as biology, geology, physics, etc… (Barone, 2008). Conversely, those who teach in social studies, language arts, or mathematics related disciplines, especially at the middle or secondary level, have had fewer research studies on field trips available to them. Although, much of the research on field trips, particularly studies related to student learning, student motivations, and teacher motivations and attitudes are applicable to all teachers regardless of the discipline or grade level they teach.

2.3 The Historical Development of Social Studies in Ghanaian Senior High School Curriculum

According to Ananga and Ayaaba (2004), efforts to introduce Social Studies in Ghanaian schools begun in the 1940s when Teacher Training Colleges such as Wesley College in Kumasi and Presbyterian Training College in Akropong Akwapim started some programmes in Social Studies. The idea, however, collapsed in the mid-1950s owing to lack of coordination of the efforts of the pioneers. They outlined three major factors that impeded the growth and development of the programme.

One of the factors was lack of competent teachers to handle the subject effectively. Secondly, the idea of subject integration did not find favour in the sight of traditional subject practitioners who feared that their traditional subjects such as history, geography, economics, and government, among others would lose their distinct identity if each was made to become part of the integrated Social Studies programme.

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Finally, the lack of textbooks on the integrated Social Studies contributed to the failure of the programme. Whereas the first and the third factors were very essential for the demise of the programme, the second factor was based on misconceptions and inadequate understanding of what integrated Social Studies meant either by the traditional practitioners or pioneering educators of the programme in Ghana. If both perceived integration as an amalgamation of the social sciences, then the outcome obviously was what has been stipulated above. It is, therefore, important to note that if the subject was perceived as stated above, it was a wrong notion since integrated Social Studies is the integration of distillate knowledge from any field of learning that is germane to solving the problems of human survival which seems to be the heartbeat of the subject.

In 1967, an international conference of African educators, the Education Development Centre and the Curriculum Renewal and Educational Development Overseas was held at the Queen,,s College, Oxford in UK and the idea of Social Studies as a formal school subject was proposed (Ananga & Ayaaba, 2004). In view of this, it was recommended at the conference that a Social Studies conference be held in Mombassa, Kenya in 1968.

The origin of the discipline in Ghana can therefore be traced to the Mombassa conference of 1968 where a group of newly independent African states met under the chairmanship of Dowuona Hamomond, Ghana,,s Minister of education at that time (Ayaaba in Ofosu - Kusi, 2008). Subsequently after the Mombassa conference, there was an educational conference in Winneba, Ghana in 1969 where Social Studies was adopted (Ananga & Ayaaba, 2004).

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Ananga and Ayaaba maintain that the subject was then introduced into the Ghanaian schools in 1972 but also failed due to the same reasons that led to the collapse of the earlier attempts. The subject was abandoned until the educational reforms of 1987 where it was reintroduced.

In order to overcome the impediments to earlier attempts, the University of Cape Coast mounted a Bachelor of Education degree programme in Social Studies in 1988 and in the same year, the Advance Teacher Training College in Winneba started a diploma course in Social Studies (Ananga & Ayaaba, 2004). These aided in the production of competent teachers for the teacher training colleges who also trained student teachers for the Primary and Junior Secondary Schools.

As of now, Social Studies is a core subject in all Junior and Senior High Schools besides all teacher Training Colleges in Ghana. Currently, the University of Education, Winneba has mounted Master of Education (M. Ed), Master of Philosophy (M. Phil), Doctor of Philosophy (Ph. D) and Doctor of Education (Ed. D) programmes in Social Studies (Ayaaba, 2011).

2.4 The Concept of Educational Trips

A review of the professional literature revealed that the terminologies describing educational trips have changed over the years and now included several terms such as: „school or educational excursions", „school or educational journeys", „study or educational tours", „field trips", and „learning treks" (Ayaaba 2006:35). Given the

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variations in terminology throughout the professional literature it is necessary then to also provide various definitions of „educational trip" by scholars.

Baja (1983:62; cited in Odumah and Ayaaba, 2007) defined fieldtrip as "first hand experiences which arise from direct learning situations." According to Hug and Wilson (1965:1) Out-of-door activities is the term used to describe the effective use of the natural environment both to teach those parts of the curriculum that can be taught outdoors and to visualize other parts through first-hand experience."

Educational trips according to Atyeo, (1939), include any visit to an out-of-school setting. He then categorized educational trips in one of three ways: (a) academic, (b) non-academic, and (c) extra-curricular.

Academic field trips are designed to provide students with real world experiences so that they might gain knowledge of a particular set of content or skills, while non-academic field trips are designed to promote socialization among the students and are used as a reward (e.g. academic lunches, senior lunches, senior class trips, etc…). Extra-curricular field trips occur as a result of interscholastic competitions often attributed with athletics and performing art programs (e.g. band and choral competitions). Of course, students have the potential to experience educational goals with all three types of educational trips and students will socialize during academic field trips as well. However, the focus and purpose of the various types of field trips is what separate them from one another and it is achieved outside the normal classroom settings.

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The Encyclopedia of Education (1977:37) defined out-of-door activities as "a series of educational experiences designed to help the student to identify and solve real-life problems, to acquire skills and appreciation with which to enjoy a life time of creative living and to attain an understanding of human and natural resources". This definition proposes that out-of-door activities facilitate the understanding of human as well as natural resources.

Krepel and DuVall (1981:7), shared similar view as they looked at field trip as "a trip arranged by the school and undertaken for educational purposes, in which the students go to places where the materials of instruction may be observed and studied directly in their functional setting: for example, a trip to a factory, a city waterworks, a library, a museum etc".

Additionally, according to Krepel and DuVall , a field trip can last for mere minutes or several days and can occur at professionally organized and maintained museums and unmaintained portions of nature (e.g. beaches, forests, rivers, mountains etc…).

Nacino-Brown, Oke and Brown (1985:41) explained that "out-of-door activities involve planned organized visits to points of interest outside the classroom, such as factories, universities, agricultural projects, museums, lakes or mountains." Balogun, et al, (1984 cited in Ayaaba and Odumah 2007:76) asserted that "out-of-door activities involve a teacher taking pupils out of the classroom to the scene where what he wants pupils to learn about can be observed closely." This suggests that during field trips, learners" attention should be focused on what they are expected to learn.

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Tal and Morag (2009) described field trips as student experiences outside of the classroom at interactive locations designed for educational purposes. Thus, educational trips are visits designed for educational and academic purposes to an out-of-school setting, lasting for minutes or days and occurring at professionally organized and maintained and or unmaintained portions of nature whereby as a result, students gain first-hand knowledge and real world experiences.

Again, Blege (1986) describe educational trip as leaving the four walls of the classroom to the environment of study. Looking at educational trip this way suggests that the trip can take place within the confine of the school environment apart from the traditional classroom. Hence a walk away from the classroom for the purposes of learning and exposure to reality constitute educational trip.

From the above discourse, it can be concluded that anytime a reference is made to educational trip, then and there one is referring to any organised educational oriented travel, outside the normal classroom situation, taken by both students and a teacher or teachers concern which is geared towards making certain concepts clearer and, or to make students gain first hand experiences. It exposes students to reality of life and hence enables them make confident deductions from the real world. In other words, they are planned visits to sites beyond the classroom for the purpose of explaining economic, geographical, cultural, historical or educational concepts and principles. Social studies teachers can, for instance, take learners to places such as the following:

- Economic interest: Examples consist of places like offices of the main government revenue collecting agencies, and market (GRA and CEPS) among others.

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- Geographical interest: Examples includes, Gambaga scarp, Mountain Afadza, Boti falls, Wli falls, Keta lagoon, Tumu hills, Kintampo falls, Lake Bosumtwi, Abofour forest reserve among others.
- Cultural importance: Examples are the ancient mosque at Laribanga, Ga Mantse palace, Gambaga Witches camp, Tongo Shrine, Akonnedi Shrine and so on.
- Historical importance: Examples includes Cape Coast castle, Osu castle, Elimina castle, Bono-Manso, Assin Manso, Salaga Slave market and so on.

According to Kern and Carpenter (1984) the cognitive and affective benefits of fieldtrips, including increased motivation for learning, a more positive attitude toward science and environmental concepts (Bitgood, 1989), and the acquisition of knowledge and skills (Mackenzie and White, 1981).

As stated above, educational trips is put into three kinds by Rennie (2007) namely, Formal, informal and non-formal. According to Rennie, formal field trips consist of planned, well-orchestrated experiences where students follow a documented format. Government agencies, museums, and businesses offer excellent formal experiential learning activities and programs, which are usually run by the venue‟s staff. With this kind of educational trip, an individual student‟s experience is basically similar to any other student‟s experience. Also, teachers find such programs comfortable because the students are bound to a planned agenda. However, there are minimal opportunities for students to personally interact and connect to the experience (Rennie, 2007).

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Informal field trips are less structured and offer students some control and choice concerning their activities or environment. When observing students interacting in an informal education setting such as field station, teachers are often amazed by how much students know and which students possess the most knowledge (Rennie, 2007).

To Hofstein & Rosenfeld, (1996), informal education is a legitimate cognitive learning model. They insisted that "Informal science experiences – in school-based field trips, student projects, community based science youth programs, casual visits to informal learning settings, and press and electronic media can be effectively used to advance science learning" (pg.106). This could not be associated to science learning alone but applicable to an important subject like Social studies.

Additionally, Rennie, (2007) posited that students feel at ease in an informal learning environment. The focus may be individualized, activities are not competitive or assessed, interaction is voluntary and unforced, and social interaction is encouraged. Together, these qualities create an intrinsically motivated student that encourages students to examine their connection to the local and national communities, as well as their connection to the local and global ecosystems (Krepel & Durral, 1981).

Non-school related informal field trips such as family activities, also contribute significantly to children‟s science knowledge (Rennie & McClafferty, 1995), although science knowledge and interest acquired at home may be compromised if the majority of experience occurs through the media such as television and the Internet, in which the children may have difficulty determining reality from entertainment. Therefore, fieldtrip can be categorized in terms of location, duration and phenomenon. It can take

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place within the school, in the community in which the school is located and it can also be outside the local community (distant places).

Tamakloe et al., (2005) also identified two main types of fieldtrip as "the structured and the unstructured". By implication, the structured fieldtrip is where a teacher together with the learners plan where, how, why, and when to visit a particular site for learning purposes. Oppong (2007:181) shared the similar opinion and identified the unstructured and the structured fieldtrips.

In reference to unstructured field trips, the teacher prompts the students to indicate any phenomenon which is of interest to them, and they would like to study. By consensus, the students end up choosing one phenomenon which the fieldtrip will be based on. In the other type of fieldtrip which is structured, the students are aware of what definite task they have to perform in the field. They thus go out to observe and look for pre-planned issues or problems. Seefeldt (2001 cited in Ayaaba, 2007:36-38), also identified five types of fieldtrips which can be embarked upon by Social Studies teachers and their students, be it structured or unstructured. The five types of field trips according to Seefeldt cited in Ayaaba are:

1. Walking trips: These are trips planned by teachers and their learners to places of interest within the school compound or the neighbourhood.
2. Spilt-group trips: These are trips organized by groups to specific places where they can observe and satisfy their learning potentials. In other words, such trips involve only a small group of the class.
3. Repeated trips: These are repeated visits to places of interest for new learning. They are very suitable for younger children.

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4. Specific purpose trips: These kinds of trips are often organized to achieve specific purpose(s). For instance, a visit to parliament to observe parliamentary proceedings.
5. Woo trips: These are end of year picnics or visits to zoos that involves the parents of the learners. These trips are relatively unimportant for children"s learning. However, their value lies in involving parents and in providing the excitement of doing something new and different within the school.

Oppong (2007:181) additionally opined that "fieldtrip can also be classified in terms of location (local or distant), duration (half an hour to weeks) and phenomenon (economic, geographic, cultural, historic and so on).

The Northwest Catholic District School Board (2011) classified fieldtrip according to the following bench marks. Namely; fieldtrips that are organized:

1. within the boundaries of the school's attendance area.
2. beyond the boundaries of the school's attendance area but within the boundaries of the District School Board.
3. beyond the boundaries of the District School Board.
4. Involving overnight accommodation.

According to Hairston (2012), two types of field trips exist, thus, those for educational purposes and those just for fun. Examples of educational trips include museums, exhibits and plays still fun, but with the purpose to educate students. Examples of fieldtrips that really have nothing to do with education, but make nice breaks from the everyday routine, include skating, swimming and play day at the park. Educational

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fieldtrips should inspire excitement, but typically expound upon some topic or lesson objective.

Organising Educational Trips

Scholars have documented the cognitive and affective benefits of field trips, including increased motivation for learning (Kern and Carpenter, 1984), a more positive attitude toward science and environmental concepts (Bitgood, 1989), and the acquisition of knowledge and skills (Mackenzie and White, 1981). However, not all field trips result in these benefits. A fieldtrip can easily turn into nothing than waste of instructional time if not planned well. Hence, it is very imperative to discuss how educational trip is organised.

Too often, field trips are usually isolated from the rest of the school curriculum. Research, however, has shown that there is less transfer of learning and less meaning when the fieldtrip is not related to classroom teaching (Ferry, 1995). The fieldtrip should be integrated into the broader instructional program and be used only when it is the most effective and efficient procedure for fulfilling the learning objectives. When working within the formal education setting, make sure fieldtrips are relevant to the school's curriculum and that they support state education standards and current reform efforts.

Orion (1993) offers a three-part model that can be used to integrate fieldtrips into the curriculum. Each part is a structured, independent learning unit, yet each links naturally to the next part of the model.

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The first part, according to Orion, is the preparatory unit that prepares students for the fieldtrip with targeted learning activities-usually incorporating some "hands-on" tasks. To Orion, learners might work with materials and equipment that will be used in the field and gain the basic concepts and skills necessary for the completion of field activities.

The fieldtrip is the second and central part of the model. It serves as a concrete bridge toward more abstract learning levels. Making the fieldtrip the central part of the instructional program, rather than using it as a summary or enrichment activity, provides the concretization learners need to move on to higher levels of cognitive learning when they return from the field.

The third part of Orion's model, the summary unit, includes more complex and abstract concepts, aiming toward helping learners to use their fieldtrip learning and to transfer it to new situations. This component is usually conducted in the classroom. While it may appear simple and intuitive at first glance, in fact this model advocates a significant departure from the typical stand-alone fieldtrip. By including pre- and post-trip elements, the teacher becomes involved in the instruction of the fieldtrip concepts, and students are more likely to make connections to other topics in the curriculum.

The relative novelty or familiarity of the fieldtrip setting affects learning. Falk & Balling (1980) shared the view that settings that are too novel cause fear and nervousness; settings that are too familiar cause boredom, fatigue, and diversionary activities. Students learn best in a moderately novel fieldtrip setting. It's best to

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familiarize them first by showing slides or a video of the fieldtrip site and locating the fieldtrip area and route on a map. Educators can also provide students with an itinerary of activities and details regarding the type of work they will be expected to do at each learning station, possible weather conditions, safety hazards and precautions, location of restrooms, and lunch or snacks.

The main instructional strategy of the fieldtrip should be hands-on experience, focusing on activities that cannot be conducted in the classroom or laboratory (Orion, 1993). Rather than passively absorbing information through guided tours or participating in simulations, students should be actively constructing knowledge through their interactions with the environment. This strategy relies on a process-oriented rather than a content-oriented approach, incorporating activities such as observing, identifying, measuring, and comparing.

Orion further explained that, Environmental and Social Studies teachers should build in opportunities for structured exploration, such as scavenger hunts or sensory awareness activities.

Further, the actual site of the fieldtrip should be conducive to learning. Terrain that is too difficult, learning stations that are separated by great distances, extreme weather conditions, and constant pestering by mosquitoes make learning difficult. Some students, especially those from urban backgrounds, may arrive at the park or natural area with negative preconceptions and fears that interfere with the effectiveness of the fieldtrip program (Bixler et al, 1994). These students need repeated positive exposures to natural settings to lower the novelty of these settings and help them unlearn misconceptions. Direct experiences can be planned to counter perceived threats, such

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as encountering dirt and germs, getting lost, and being attacked by venomous snakes or ravenous wolves (Bixler et al, 1994). When possible, fieldtrips should be provided to young children as young as preschool and kindergarten to prevent them from developing these fears in the first place. With enough exposure and support, these students may be able to introduce their families to positive encounters with nature.

However, with the rising cost of bus transportation for fieldtrips, it can be difficult for teachers to make multiple trips to natural settings. It may be wise to help teachers develop natural areas on their school sites. Also called "outdoor classrooms" and "land labs," these nearby locations can give teachers a place to conduct a variety of environmental activities.

Fieldtrip utilization process from the researcher‟s opinion refers to the appropriate way or ways of using fieldtrips to bring about effective teaching and learning. DuBey and Barth (1980) shared similar opinions when they opined that fieldtrips are quite popular with teachers, but they are frequently badly conducted. They need good planning if they are to fit into your lessons and if the pupils are to gain something worthwhile from them. They continued that in planning an educational visit you might ask yourself these questions (checklist):

1. Will this fieldtrip be consistent with the objectives of the unit or the lesson?
2. Do you have permission from the principal and the parents of the children?
3. Have you checked with the authorities at the place you intend to visit?
4. Have you arranged for transport, if necessary?
5. Have you arranged a time that is convenient for every one?

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6. Have you personally made the trip and visited the place yourself so that you know what to anticipate? Will there be someone to conduct the tour and answer questions?
7. Have you prepare the students through prior research, reading and discussion?
8. Have the students prepared questions to ask? Have they been told what to observe?
1. Have they prepared an interview or questionnaire if necessary?
9. Have the students been given a specific assignment so that they know what they must learn from the visit?
10. Have you plan follow-up activities? Will the children be able to use the information gained from the visit?

Hence, if the answers to the above questions are positive, then the teacher is in a better position to utilize the fieldtrip to bring about effective teaching and learning. But if the answers to the questions are negative, then the teacher will be in a better position to realize that fieldtrips usage under such circumstances would not bring about the effective teaching and learning.

According to Tal and Steiner (2010), teachers tend to fall into one of three patterns while on a field trip:

1) Teachers are involved and participate in all the preparation and field trip activities;
2) If the field trip is one that has occurred regularly over the years, school tradition may dictate that teachers follow an established routine, which may or may not be participatory;

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3) Passive teachers do not participate with the students during the experience. For example, a teacher may rely completely on the school administration to set up a field trip, the teacher may not personally communicate with or visit the venue, or during the field trip, the teacher disassociates from the field trip activities.

Just as professional development is necessary to train teachers how to present a new curriculum, professional development focusing upon field trips would help teachers understand the necessity of preplanning, participation, and student reflection (Dori & Herscovitz, 2005). Experience in planning and attending field trips is important for both teachers and students. The teachers need understand how to prepare and teach the students to learn out of the classroom, because the novelty of informal learning is a distraction to students who are unaccustomed to attending field trips or non-classroom settings.

Before the field trip: The teacher should visit the venue prior to the field trip, to learn the layout of the venue and determine whether the venue is suitable for all the students. Religious beliefs, for example, may require a realignment of the activities or development of a differentiated plan for the concerned students. During the student orientation prior to the field trip, the teacher should prepare students by describing the venue and its layout. The students should understand the focus or purpose of the experience, through a lesson designed to prepare a conceptual foundation on which the students may connect their experiences (Pace, 2004; Rennie, 2007).

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Orion and Hofstein (1994) cited three variables that prepare students for field trips: understanding the venue layout, the focus of the activities, and being prepared to be in an open, informal venue, what the authors call "novelty space." Reduction of the novelty space would enhance learning during the field trip. Prepared students know behaviour expectations, increase interaction with the exhibits and look for the connections between the exhibits and classroom concepts. The school‟s science curriculum should connect to the venue and its focus. There is little question that a field trip is a valuable experience for the students, but it is important that the teacher connect the students‟ experiences on the trip with concepts and lessons taught in the classroom. The field trip should not be a stand-alone experience (Kisiel, 2006a).

It is imperative that the teacher prepares the students for the field trip in order to maintain a level of control that will allow for learning to occur when the class arrives at the venue (Ewert, 2009). Kalvaitis (2007) suggested that often, a teacher‟s biggest fear is losing control of the students once at the field trip location. Upon arrival at a field trip venue, students are often disoriented resulting in excited, explorative, and unrestrained behavior (Falk et al., 1978). The teacher should be prepared to focus the students‟ mental and physical energy towards participation at the venue (Lei, 2010).

When students go on a field trip, they are not only exposed to new information, but they are also placed in a different environment in which to learn the new information. A field trip venue that is unfamiliar to students can lead to what is termed the "novelty effect". Falk (1983) explained this effect as students‟ natural tendency to explore a new, unfamiliar environment before concentrating on educational concepts being taught. Falk also noted that, of many variables affecting field trips, novelty of the

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setting proved to be one of the most interesting and consistently important variables. Children who are unfamiliar with a place may lack pre-existing knowledge upon which they can base and contextualize new learning.

As a result, these unfamiliar learners may first need to explore and situate themselves in the environment before they can construct new meanings (Falk, Martin, & Balling, 1978). Numerous studies attest to the fact that preparation of students for field trips is positive (Cox-Peterson & Pfaffinger, 1998; de White and Jacobson, 1994; Falk, Martin, & Balling, 1978; Flexer & Borun, 1984; Gennaro, 1981; Kubota & Olstad, 1991).

Preparation can include pre-field trip activities that introduce field trip concepts and vocabulary in the classroom. Preparation can also include sharing logistical information with students such as their schedules, a map of the site, what they should bring, and what they can expect the day of the field trip. Both forms of preparation can reduce the novelty of the new environment in which the field trip takes place (Orion & Hofstein, 1994).

By orienting students prior to their field trip, learning associated with the field trip is positively affected. When students are more familiar with an environment, it results in increased on-task behavior (Kubota & Olstad, 1991) and in increased student learning as measured by pre- and post-tests (Falk, Martin, & Balling, 1978; Flexer & Borun, 1984; Gennaro, 1981). As one researcher argued, pre-visit activities ensure the field trip is worth the money paid for the experience, “Since the pre-visit experiences may

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represent little cost to a school district, the value of going on such a field trip can more easily be made if students are prepared beforehand," (Gennaro, 1981:278).

In addition to reducing the novelty effect, teachers can use their pre-visit activities to clarify what students will be expected to do as follow-up (Athman and Monroe 2008; EETAP, 1998; Rennie & McClafferty, 1996). By providing the expectation for further classroom learning related to the field trip in advance, students are aware of their responsibilities and how the trip connects to what they will be discussing in school.

During the field trip: As the field trip begins, the teacher may need to help some students become comfortable in the new environment. As activities begin, the teacher should be prepared to interpret the venue‟s program leader‟s commentary to any unfocused or confused students (Rennie& McClafferty, 1995). During the field trip, students experience learning in an authentic, informal, natural setting. Each student‟s prior knowledge gained both from the classroom and from their personal out-of-school experiences, is used to make connections to the field trip experience (Pasquier & Narguizian, 2006). The teacher should keep the students engaged. The venue‟s staff should work in concert with the teacher to help students make connections between the experience and the concepts involved. Generally it is the venue‟s staff‟s duty to keep the activities interesting.

Teachers often utilize worksheets to help students focus on exploring and learning the targeted concepts. Worksheets are quite effective when one worksheet is given to a small group, in which the students are better observers, interact more frequently, discuss the concepts, and ultimately develop more connections between the concepts

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and the experience (Kisiel, 2003; Rennie, 2007). Simple fill-in-the-blank task completion worksheets are not effective, when every student is responsible for his or her own data, where the focus is solely to fill in the data and not to explore or participate in activities (Kisiel, 2003).

Students respond to a field trip in a variety of ways. Average students may suddenly reveal a never seen before level of excitement, focus, and inquiry (Hefferan, Heywood, & Ritte,2002). Conversely, some students known for strong classroom performances might be less proficient in the field and may or may not enjoy the challenge to succeed in the new, informal environment. Each student is unique and each field experience is unique, so that every field experience will result in many different academic, cognitive, and social gains (Rennie, 2007). Student prior knowledge and experience define the cognitive foundation onto which new connections can be made (NRC, 2009). If done properly, students will build long term memories of the field trip experiences, especially among high school and college students (Wilson, 2011).

After the field trip: The teacher‟s actions after the field trip are very important. The students‟ experiences need to be reinforced through discussion, activities, reading, a television show or movie (Falk & Dierking, 2000; Kisiel, 2006a; Orion & Hofstein, 1994; Pace & Tesi, 2004; Tal & Steiner, 2006). Students need to solidify their new ideas and observations which have not yet made connections. Reflection will help build those connections, as well as reinforce the successful connections already made on the trip. Students generate greater understanding as teachers develop potential connections through reflection (Kisiel, 2006a). Students should discuss their

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observations and experiences, and in the case of elementary grades, create presentations to share with their classmates. During the remainder of the school year, the teacher should connect new classroom concepts to the students‟ field trip experiences (Rennie & McClafferty, 1995).

In Tal and Steiner‟s (2006) examination of teacher‟s roles during field trips to museums, neither elementary nor secondary grade level teachers carried out quality post-visit activities. Teachers must recognize the importance of post field trip reflection and debriefing to maximize student interest and learning.

According to Marcy (1940:204-205), “Field trips have developed extensively in recent years to take advantage of students‟ phenomenal memory for fact and things seen and heard in strange surroundings and under unusual conditions. This quote indicates the time period as a mark of the beginning of the development of the educational field trip. In his article, “How to Conduct a field trip”, Marcy laid a plan of action for a successful trip based on his five years‟ experience at Columbia as follows: contact the intended location, find out if they have what you want for your students, pay a visit, plan a date, and communicate number and age of students. Perhaps the most important task, to confirm and reconfirm, was highlighted by the quote, “It is highly embarrassing for the teacher to arrive with eager group of students and find no one expect them”. Once plans have been made, he cited the importance of preparing the students with background information and behavioural expectations.

Orion and Holfstein (1994) similarly conveyed that a students‟ familiarity with the location before the attendance was corollary with the amount of learning that took

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place. Orion & Holfstein also added that the field trip must have concrete connection to the classroom curriculum to be successful. During the trip a teacher must be prepared to deal with the desperate levels of interest amongst the students. However, integrating social component to the field trip could alleviate this issue while leading to an improved experience from the students‟ perspective (Meredith, Fortner & Mullins, 1997). Finally, sites and assignments must be selected based on group size and relevance.

Marcy (1940:206) conveyed two common mistakes often made by teachers conducting field trips. The first was giving the students so much work to do during the trip that they miss out on the experience. The second was overestimating the number of students who will show up for a non-compulsory field trip. To avoid the situation where too few students show up and you "bemoan your efforts and the students‟ lack of interest", teachers should develop a system that underestimates attendees since "it is hard to blame the students for choosing a game of ball or a motion picture rather than several hours of trudging…much as we would like to think the educational opportunity should prevail.

Whereas pre-field trip activities are generally recommended to help reduce the novelty effect, post-field trip activities also play an important role in student learning related to field trips. Researchers argue that post-visit activities provide crucial opportunities for students to reflect on what they learned (Anderson, Lucas, Ginns & Dierking, 2000; Assraf & Orion, 2009; Athman & Monroe, 2008; deWhite & Jacobson, 1994; Farmer & Wott, 1995; Rennie & McCafferty, 1996).

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Though many researchers argue for the importance of post-visit activities, the literature specifically studying effects of post-visit activities is much more limited than that examining effects related to pre-visit activities. Those studies that have been published support the idea that post-field trip activities positively affect student learning. For example, in a study of how eleven and twelve year olds construct knowledge in the context of a field trip, researchers found that students who were able to reflect on their learning exhibited complex learning related to their trip. This result was interpreted by comparing concept maps drawn by students before their trip and after post-trip activities. Students that participated in post-trip activities in their classroom were able to draw many connections between components on concept maps describing the ideas of electricity and magnetism studied during their trip to a science center, whereas they had not been able to draw these associations before the trip (Anderson, Lucas, Ginns & Dierking, 2000).

In addition to encouraging complex learning, post-field trip activities might also contribute to increased retention of field trip learning. In a study conducted by Farmer and Wott (1995), the researchers found a statistically significant increase in post-test scores of 4th graders that participated in relevant post-field trip activities as compared to 4th graders that participated in non-relevant post-field trip activities.

Though more research should be conducted to look at effects of post-visit activities on field trip learning, the studies mentioned above agree with learning theories of brain-based education. The field of brain-based education advocates for the necessity of giving students time to reflect on their learning in order to improve retention of what was learned. According to Sousa (2006:87), retention is the process whereby long-

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term memory preserves learning in such a way that it can locate, identify and retrieve it accurately in the future. Sousa argues that retention relies on rehearsal (the repetition and processing of information). He states, "If the learner cannot attach sense or meaning [to what was learned], and if there is no time for further processing, then the new information is likely to be lost. Providing sufficient time to go beyond the initial processing to secondary rehearsal allows the learner to review the information, to make sense of it, to elaborate on the details, and to assign values and relevance, thus increasing significantly the chance of long-term storage,". According to this view, field trips that are followed by post-field trip activities may be more successful than field trips with no follow-up in encouraging long-term student learning related to the trip.

Disconnect between Field Trip and Classroom Learning

When studying the connection between field trip and classroom learning, Griffin (1994) conducted interviews with 114 teachers and students from 13 different schools visiting two different science museums. She found that the vast majority of teachers did not provide the type of preparation or follow-up that would allow students to link learning on the field trip to learning in the classroom. In terms of pre-field trip activities, both teachers and students acknowledged that little to no preparation had occurred before the trip. According to Griffin, "Very few students could see the purpose of their visit other than a day out, or at best „to learn things", but with no clear idea of what these „things" were," (Griffin, 1994:123). Prior to their field trips, most teachers acknowledged that they had little plans to follow up on field trip learning. At the same time, students acknowledged that they had little expectations for follow-up to be conducted. After conducting their field trips, more than 75% of teachers

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admitted that little or no actual follow up occurred; and 90% of the students stated that little or no follow-up actually occurred.

Similarly, Storsdieck (2001) found little preparation and follow-up related to school field trips to a planetarium. In terms of preparation, only 14 of 35 teachers (40%) remembered covering relevant topics related to the field trip prior to their visit to a planetarium. In terms of follow-up, only 85 of 246 students (35%) remembered any follow-up to their planetarium visit occurring in their classroom. Although 76% of teachers said they conducted follow-up to the field trip, when asked to describe what the follow-up consisted of, answers from teacher to teacher varied greatly. Only 30% of teachers actually discussed content learned on the field trip while 23% of teachers just asked students for their impressions. The other 46% of teachers considered their follow up to the field trip as making reference to the field trip at some point later in the curriculum. From these responses, Storsdieck concluded that the attitude of teachers, in general, was to focus on organizing the trip rather than providing curricular links.

In contrast to Griffin‟s findings and Storsdieck‟s findings, Rebar (2009) found that most visiting teachers to an aquarium did follow up their field trip experiences. What‟s more, Rebar found that teachers followed-up on the trip with activities (such as student research projects or writing assignments) that would encourage students to reflect on field trip learning and make connections to their classroom learning. Rebar noted that follow-up activities may occur much later in the year as teachers refer back to the trip each time a unit arises in which trip experiences become relevant. However, he interpreted evidence from observations of teachers at the aquarium to show that

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connections drawn during the trip by teachers were opportunistic and not planned. His evidence also supported that fact that teachers viewed the field trip as a way to provide background information to relevant units rather than integrating field-trip learning strategically with classroom learning.

Field trips and student learning

There are various learning outcomes that have been found to be associated with field trips including those belonging to the cognitive, affective, and social learning domains (Anderson & Lucas, 1997; Bamberger & Tal, 2008b; DeWitt & Storksdieck, 2008; Orion & Salmi, 2003).

Kisiel, (2006b), corroborate this statement when he postulated that students have expressed short term and long term cognitive and non-cognitive learning gains as a result of attending field trips. For instance, Strum & Borgner (2010) compared the learning and motivational outcomes of sixth grade students (N = 190) who experienced the same educational activity but in two different learning settings, one in a field trip location and the other in a normal classroom. By means of a pre-, post- and retention-test, Strum & Borgner (2010) sought to ascertain if there were any variances on students‟ remembrance of certain facts and concepts based on the environment. They concluded that both the field trip-group and the classroom-group experienced cognitive gains from the pre-test to the post-test; however, "…the Field trip-group outperformed the classroom group in the post-test and in the retention-test", consequently providing teachers with proper justification for utilizing field trips.

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Nevertheless, Cox-Petersen, Marsh, Kisiel, and Melber (2003) discovered, after observing 30 visiting school groups at a natural history museum and interviewing a select number of students (N = 85), that students learned only low levels of science as a result of their field trip. Yet, DeWitt & Storksdieck (2008:182) state: Documented learning gains [on field trips] are often relatively small, but small effects are not surprising given the one–off nature of most school trips. Indeed, it could be argued that any gains at all are noteworthy, given the brevity of the experiences and the variety of factors that can affect the extent to which learning occurs. This can however be associated to any subject of study not only science as it may appears.

Moreover, DeWitt and Storksdieck‟s (2008) statement is significant because most field trip sites are developed and constructed for a public audience. Yet, teachers intend for their students to acquire a small fraction of what the sites have to offer; although, the students often still get a full tour. The many exhibits and hands-on activities possibly cloud students‟ mind thus limiting their short term cognitive gains; yet, an obvious question arises, what about students‟ long term learning?

Unfortunately, there are few studies that exist about the long term cognitive effects of field trips due to logistical challenges in collecting data; yet, one study in Italy found, using a pre- and post-questionnaire, that primary and secondary students who visited a marine biology museum, were able to retain the information they had learned for up to three months after the visit (Miglietta, Belmonte, & Boero, 2008).

Moreover, much of the literature related to field trip learning shows that learning on a field trip can indeed, produce different results than learning in a classroom. Koran,

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Koran & Ellis (1989) examined field trip literature and found positive outcomes, both cognitive and/or affective, on students in 20 of the 27 studies reviewed. Below are some of the positive effects of field trips that have been noted:

Positive effects on student cognition – Children that go on field trips as part of their educational experience show statistically significant learning about the field trip subject (Lisowski & Disinger, 1991). What‟s more, based on pre- and post-test measures, children exhibit more knowledge about a subject if they learn about the subject on a field trip instead of learning about the subject in a classroom (Flexer & Borun, 1984; MacKenzie & White, 1982; Wendling & Wuensch, 1985). Not only do students seem to learn more during field trips, but they expect to learn more during field trips. According to pre-field trip surveys, Wendling & Wuensch, (1985) established that learners could learn more about ecology through a field trip than by classroom study alone.

Positive effects on student attitudes towards learning – Serveral studies suggest that students enjoy learning on field trips (Hannon & Randolph, 1999; Michie, 1998; Price & Hein, 1991; Wendling & Wuensch, 1985). In Wendling & Wuensch‟s study (1985), students even enjoyed learning on their field trip more than socializing. When asked to pick their favourite parts of a field trip taken to a park, the students identified educational activities such as “casting animal tracks” and “studying the food web of the pond”, more often than they identified social aspects likes “getting to play a game” or “getting to know their classmates better”. Still other studies suggest that students not only find learning fun on their field trips, but they enjoy field trip lessons

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more than they enjoy lessons taught on the same subject in a classroom (Braund & Reiss, 2006; Falk, 1983; Flexer & Borun, 1984).

Following from these conclusions, it is not surprising that researchers have also found field trips improve student attitudes towards subjects they are learning (Michie, 1998; Storsdieck, 2001). This is consistent with findings in the field of "brain-based" education. Brain-based education examines physiological properties of the brain and how they affect human learning. When students feel positively about their learning environment, endorphins (a hormone associated with increased energy) are released in the brain. When students feel negatively about their learning environment, cortisol (a hormone associated with stress) is released in the brain. Whereas endorphins produce a feeling of euphoria and stimulate the frontal lobes of the brain responsible for learning, cortisol reduces frontal lobe activity to focus on the cause of stress and how to deal with it (Sousa, 2006).

Long-term positive effects on learning – Though few studies have examined the long-term effects of field trips on learning, researchers have found some positive results. In a study of 3rd and 5th graders, both age levels were able to retain significant amounts of content as long as one month after their field trip (Falk & Balling, 1982 as cited in Falk, 1983). In a study of 8th and 9th graders, MacKenzie and White (1982) established that those students participating in geography field trip retained information better twelve weeks after the trip than those that did not participate in the trip. Finally, in a phenomenological analysis of 4th graders a year after their field trip to Great Smoky Mountains National Park, in-depth interviews revealed positive long-term retention of information taught on the field trip and a

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perceived increase in pro-environmental attitudes by the students (Farmer, Knapp & Benton, 2007).

Furthermore, Bamberger and Tal, (2008a) establish that middle school students were able to remember several facts and details from a field trip they had taken 16 months earlier to a science museum. Similarly, Farmer, Knapp, & Benton (2007) were able to verify that field trips have both long term cognitive and non-cognitive effects on students. In fact, a year after a group of middle school students had experienced a field trip to the Great Smoky Mountains they expressed a new perceived pro-environmental attitude plus were able to recall many plants species they had seen (Farmer et al., 2007).

Furthermore, adults between the ages of 25 and 31 were able to recall several positive aspects from field trips they had taken while in school; most notably they expressed the positive influence of socializing as well as the impact that field trips had on exposing them to new careers and cultures (Pace & Tesi, 2004). In fact, Salmi (2003) conducted a survey of university students in regards to why they had chosen a science major and some indicated that positive experience they recalled during field trips to science centers played a part in their decision.

However, despite the potential for immediate cognitive and non-cognitive gains in students, teachers cannot expect those gains without first utilizing effective teaching practices and since field trips are often informal learning environments teachers are faced with unique challenges (Bitgood, 1989; Griffin & Symington, 1997).

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In spite of the low levels of immediate cognitive and affective growth it can be seen that the general consensus is that field trips provide a large potential for long term cognitive and affective gains in students. In fact, the long term cognitive and non-cognitive effects are often attributed to the unique and socialized nature in which the learning experience takes place. And this mostly could be achieved through effective and regular use of educational trips.

Principles for carrying out a successful educational trip

Understanding that teachers have many other pedagogical responsibilities, it is logical that field trip venues should make every effort to assist teachers by providing them with activities they can use in their classrooms to connect school and field trip learning. These materials should respond to both students‟ educational needs and teacher‟s practical needs. Though the field of environmental education has looked at best practices for field trips, the literature lacks a formal framework that field trip venue staff can use to design materials with both the needs of teachers and students in mind.

However, though environmental education venues have no formal frameworks to this end, the museum world does. In 2007, two researchers created the Framework for Museum practice or “FMP” to help museum educators design field trips materials from the teacher‟s perspective that creates optimal learning conditions for students (DeWitt & Osborne, 2007).

The FMP was derived from perspectives of Cultural Historical Activity Theory, theories of intrinsic motivation, and research into conceptual learning. Cultural

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Historical Activity Theory recognizes that teachers and museum educators teach in different contexts and that any material designed by museum educators should address the context and needs of the teacher if it is to be utile to teachers (DeWitt & Osborne, 2007).

The FMP is based on four principles: 1) Adopting the perspective of the teacher, 2) Providing structure, 3) Encouraging joint productive activity, and 4) Supporting dialogue, literacy and/or research skills. And according to DeWitt & Osborne"s research, if these principles are addressed during the creation of field trip materials, teachers will find the materials useful and the materials will help maximize the impacts of the field trip on student learning.

Principle 1: Adopting the perspective of the teacher

In the view of DeWitt & Osborne (2007), "…the teacher"s perceived needs for resources, his or her agenda or goals for the school trip, and the context in which he or she operates should be a primary consideration in the development of resources for school trips."(pg. 689). DeWitt and Osborne further stressed that museum educators should take into account the needs of teachers when designing field trip support materials. As noted earlier, two of those major needs are minimizing amount of time teachers need to spend on field trip preparation and maximizing the links between field trip learning and the classroom curriculum.

Principle 2: Providing structure – In Principle 2 of the FMP, DeWitt and Osborne advocate that designers of field trip materials provide pre-visit activities to help reduce the "novelty effect" of the field trip. They also encourage designers to provide post-visit activities that build upon content encountered during the field trip. By

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providing a unit-like structure to the field trip, the trip has a focus and teachers may be more likely to treat pre- and post-visit activities as part of the whole unit rather than separate activities that require additional time.

Principle 3: Encouraging joint productive activity – In Principle 3 of the FMP, DeWitt & Osborne argued for the need of students to understand a clear purpose for the field trip and for them to work together with each other and the teacher towards some end product. They term this principle, "encouraging joint productive activity." More specifically, DeWitt and Osborne provide the following sub-guidelines for encouraging joint productive activity. Materials should:

- Encourage discussion between students, their peers, and their teacher to build knowledge related to the field trip
- Allow students to pursue their own interests and curiosity to the extent possible
- Provide students with choices and control over their participation in activities
- Challenge students to extend their thinking beyond rote activities
- Draw students in by making experiences personally relevant and meaningful

Other field trip studies in contexts outside of museums support these techniques for engaging students. For example, Griffin (1994) supports the need to let students ask questions about that which they are curious for learning at informal science centers, while Assraf & Orion (2009) and Storsdieck (2006) argue that environmental lessons occurring on field trips and outings need to pertain to something familiar in students‟ lives.

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Research has found increases in critical thinking skills, positive attitudes towards learning (Ernst & Monroe, 2004) as well as increased retention of learning (Mackenzie & White, 1982) for students whose field trips allowed them to have control and be challenged.

In addition to the research that supports DeWitt & Osborne are the sub-principles for optimizing student learning on field trips, these sub-principles seem to be supported by students themselves. In a study by Spector & Gibson (1991), students were asked how they felt they learned best. Several themes emerged from student answers including: doing hands-on activities; being active learners; using inductive reasoning to generate new knowledge; interacting with peers and adults; creating networks; and experiencing a sense of self-reliance. These themes seem to support the desire of students for "joint productive activity" as defined by DeWitt & Osborne.

Principle 4: Supporting dialogue, literacy and/or research skills – The final principle of the FMP asks that designers of field trip materials consider skills beyond those directly related to field trip content. Transferable skills such as oral and written literacy, public speaking, and methods of inquiry are just as valuable for students. The new national Common Core Standards – adopted by 42 states in the U.S. at the time of this writing – include standards related to each of these skills (CCSSI, 2010). By including these skills, field trip learning has an even better chance of relating back to what is going on in the classroom.

2.5 Experiential Learning

It is important to understand experiential learning when discussing field trips. Experiential learning is authentic, first-hand, sensory-based learning. Experiential

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activities explore, touch, listen to, watch, move things, dissemble and reassemble. In the words of Kolb (1983), learning consists of grasping an experience and then transforming it into an application or result. The Association for Experiential Education defined experiential learning as a methodology in which educators direct students to a specific experience, and then guide the students through reflection to "increase knowledge, develop skills, clarify values, and develop people's capacity to contribute to their communities (2012)"

It is imperative to admit that experiential learning is not restricted to a certain age levels. Infants, toddlers, and growing children develop all their skills and knowledge through experience. Kolb (1983) described experiential learning using a spiralling four step cycle: A student has an experience, reflection occurs as the student talks about the experience, and abstraction occurs as the student thinks about the experience. The student plans a new experience to test the new ideas, and the new experience takes place, and the cycle continues. Each time a cycle is completed, some learning has taken place. Although experiential learning appears to be simple, there are caveats to be considered. The learning process is not instant. Time is required to analyze and then synthesize a concept that accommodates into an already established knowledge pool. Experiential learning is not one dimensional. A learned concept will integrate with all previous knowledge. A student with many connections concerning a subject will accommodate new knowledge faster and with greater clarity (Kisiel, 2006).

When learning is discussed, it is most often assumed to occur in the formal classroom setting. Learning is contextualized, affected by motivation, expectation, prior

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knowledge, experience, prior interests, beliefs, control, and choice (NRC, 2009). Learning requires time to construct meaningful understanding (Kolb, 1983). According to Kolb‟s learning cycle, learning experientially requires the learner to have an experience and then reflect, analyse, and test the idea to develop knowledge and to create another experience. Teachers often use this learning format in the formal classroom through labs and projects.

Informal experiential learning can be an equally powerful learning tool with unique virtues. Attendance and involvement are voluntary or free choice, the curriculum is varied, the learning opportunities are neither competitive nor evaluative, all ages may participate at any given time, and the effort is learner motivated (NRC, 2009; Rennie, 2007). Formal educators might consider increasing student interaction by adding informal learning opportunities to reinforce classroom knowledge and allow students to assimilate and accommodate experiences to their classroom knowledge. An informal education venue can be a valuable resource that reinforces classroom pedagogy (Nabors, Edwards, & Murray, 2009).

A field trip with a single focus will provide a potential impact to students‟ cognitive skills, knowledge, interests, and future career (Hutson, Cooper, & Talbert, 2011). This may be particularly true for students who are academically challenged or described as „„at risk‟‟ due to low performance on high-stakes tests or performance in the classroom. Field trips offer a unique opportunity for students to create connections, which will help them gain understanding and develop an enjoyment of learning.

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Nabors et al., (2009), postulate that students on field trips sharpen their skills of observation and perception by utilizing all their senses. Falk, Martin, & Balling, 1978; Hudak, (2003), are also of the belief that students develop a positive attitude for learning, motivating them to develop connections between the theoretical concepts in the classroom and what has been experienced. Outdoor field trips provide an opportunity for students to develop increased perception, a greater vocabulary, and an increased interest in the outdoors (Hoisington, Savleski, & DeCosta, 2010). Developed interest stimulates curiosity, empowering students to ask questions, discuss observations, consider past experiences, or simply ponder the topic (Farmer, Knapp, & Benton, 2007). When on a field trip, the venue is not the only location that affects students, but then they also gain knowledge and understanding about their neighbourhoods and communities as they travel from the school to the field trip venue (Nabors et al., 2009).

Personal connections are important in environmental curricula, not only because students gain understanding through the connections, but also by developing emotional connections to the subject matter. Increasing awareness and care lead to increasing passion for the subject matter, no matter whether it concerns the environment, animals, or a social situation (Tal & Morag, 2009; Variano & Taylor, 2006). Falk & Dierking, (2000), held the same view when they stated that with increased interest or passion, learning is promoted as students conduct deeper observations, give in to curiosity and conduct simple investigations, discuss the subject matter with peers and teachers, and construct more abstract connections.

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The majority of field trips according to Pace and Tesi, (2004), occur during the school day, nonetheless, extended field trips provide another option. They insisted that, overnight field trips promote social growth for participating students by encouraging positive interactions among the students, teachers, and chaperones. Students experience independence away from home and the classroom. Some students will develop with the freedom, but others may possibly need emotional support and well defined limits. Field trips, especially overnight experiences likewise, benefit teachers. Dillon et al. (2005) shared similar opinion when they reiterate that teacher and student relationships develop or improve, and teachers may gain new perspectives and ideas of how to teach the subject matter in a more experiential manner.

Dierking & Falk, (1997) opine that benefits from field trips are not guaranteed. They are of the view that, Field trips are not meant to be short term teaching instruments. However, students may acquire short term learning, but without reinforcement from reflection or debriefing, the learning or interest development may only be temporary. Again they insisted that short term memory does not constitute learning. In contrast, Farmer, Knapp, and Benton (2007) suggested that one year after a well-orchestrated field trip experience, many students remembered what they had seen and heard, and displayed a newly developed pro-science attitude. Consequently, fieldtrip has the ability to bring about learning whether in the short term or long term if well organised.

Whilst not all outdoor pedagogies will be similar, researchers have identified some key characteristics of outdoor experiential learning. Mannion et al.'s (2006) qualitative study found that young people valued outdoor experience (in natural

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settings) because it was seen as fun, free, real and contingent. Waite (2007) found a similar list of values derived from practitioners‟ memories of childhood outdoors: freedom, fun, authenticity, autonomy and physicality. These kinds of values infuse the outdoor activities of children and the pedagogies of adults.

Yet, we are aware researchers can benefit from not conflating all outdoor experiences into one homogeneous entity. As with indoor learning, different kinds of place and practice will lead to different pedagogies and diverse impacts and effects. Higgins (2009) argues, for example, that experiential approaches could make a unique contribution to global sustainability. A student-led, inquiry-based approach will also encourage interdisciplinary approaches to learning (Beames and Ross, 2010).

When visits to nature reserves were the focus, Mannion et al. (2013) found that a place-responsive pedagogy was possible when teachers explicitly taught “by-means-of-an-environment with the aim of understanding and improving human-environment relations”. The contributions of Beames & Ross (2010), Harrison (2010), Mannion & Adey (2011), Ross & Mannion (2012), Mannion & Gilbert (2014) all pointed to the emergence of an awareness of the role of local places and intergenerational practices in outdoor pedagogies

Teacher and Student Engagement during Experiential Learning - In the submission of Tal and Morag, (2009), once teachers are empowered and learn how to develop and orchestrate a successful field trip, they will be more inclined to schedule field trips. Ferry (1993) noted that pre-service teachers, become reluctant at first, gained an increased desire to participate with informal, experiential lessons after receiving instruction about field trip pedagogy. As a result, teachers and community

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experts should meet and develop a working relationship that would enable teachers to consider local field trips as viable options for curriculum variation.

Ellenbogen, Luke, and Dierking (2004) provided five suggestions to empower teachers to forge stronger links between formal science education and informal, free-choice learning:

1. Opportunities to learn from local and media resources should be investigated and considered.
2. Effective field trips should be an integral part of every science program.
3. Teachers should investigate local resources, such as museums.
4. Teachers should help local resources understand and interface the curriculum and standards with the resource programming.
5. The local resources need to communicate important issues with the teachers.

According to a zoo staff member, a school field trip was most effective when it was led by a teacher who was trained at a zoo sponsored teacher workshop. The trained teachers understood the necessity for preplanning and preparing the students about concepts that would be explored (Rennie & McClafferty, 1995). Conversely, in spite of research and literature suggesting otherwise, most teachers assigned tasks or worksheets and made little effort to connect the exhibit‟s theme to what was being studied in the classroom (Griffin & Symington, 1997).

Shireen and Czerniak, (2003), suggested that teachers have to believe that the field trip is an important aspect of the students‟ experience if the trip is to be a success. Hence, teachers should plan and manage the field trip so that once the students are

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oriented and on task, they have the freedom to explore their own interests. This is because an inquiry based strategy allows students to connect classroom concepts to field trip experiences. Consequently, students learn to explore for answers to their questions, rather than rely on the teacher or venue‟s staff member. Students should learn to develop questions to stimulate personal curiosity and interest while on the field trip.

The teacher should participate where appropriate, to model how the students and chaperones are expected to behave and be engage in the activities (Snyder, 1994). Too often, the teacher hands the class over to the venue leader, and then stands back to talk or relax. The teacher should model the behaviour that is expected from the students. The teacher should remain connected with the well-prepared students, but allow them to experience the activities, being available to answer questions and offer direction when needed. If the chaperones are to participate or lead an activity, they require training before the field trip. The teacher needs to orient all the chaperones, describing the venue, the expectations of the students, and the expectations of the chaperones. Once at the venue, even though the majority of the activities are the responsibility of the venue‟s exhibits or staff members, the teacher is ultimately responsible for all that happens, so the teacher needs to maintain control of the students and chaperones (Kisiel, 2006).

According to (Hudak (2003), students find outdoor learning activities to be realistic, interesting and interactive, although it is not surprising that students who prefer to be indoors often prefer to avoid the outdoor climatic conditions. But to maximize connections with past knowledge and classroom concepts, students still need

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somebody to discuss those connections. A method to connect concepts to experiences is through the immediate social network. Students may peer teach, explain what to look for or how to complete a task, read placards and signs to each other, and discuss their personal understanding of what they are experiencing. Rennie (2007) observed that quite often the students who stepped out as peer instructors have been students who performed poorly in class.

2.6 Efficacy of Educational Trips

There are several factors that alter, enhance, or affect the level of learning that students experience while attending a field trip site such as (a) the role of the teacher, (b) pre-, during-, and post-trip activities, and (c) students‟ prior knowledge and site orientation (Bitgood; 1989; DeWitt & Storksdieck, 2008; Marcus, Levine, & Grenier, 2012; Orion & Hofstein,1994).

One of the more crucial factors is the role of the teacher including, among other tasks, choosing a proper field trip site and handling all the necessary logistical issues (e.g. cost, liability paperwork, transportation, meals, chaperones, etc…) (Kisiel, 2006a; Marcus et al., 2012). Of course, teachers‟ selection of field trip sites are often limited based on their geography; yet, teachers have acknowledged that they often are unfamiliar with what their local museums have to offer, especially in regards to how it can help them teach their content (Marcus et al.).

Additionally, Kisiel (2006a) provides teachers with the following advice "…begin by limiting the scope of the experience; attempting to see the entire site in two hours guarantees only a glossing over with little chance for students to make sense of what

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they see" (p. 48). Yet, it seems with the time constraints that teachers are faced with, they do "gloss over" the site. This glossing over regulates the site to a similar status as that of a textbook, where students are expected to read the information from plaques and fill in a worksheet (Griffin, 1994).

In Addition, teachers have expressed that logistical issues particularly the cost of the trip and school/district support play a significant role in their decision to go on a field trip or not (Marcus et al., 2012). Overall, it seems many teachers are unprepared to effectively organize and coordinate field trips (Griffin & Symington, 1997; Marcus et al., 2012). In fact, Griffin and Symington (1997) coordinated a naturalistic study that focused on the practices being used by the teachers during their visits to museums and found, through observation as well as pre- and post-trip interviews, that teachers were ineffective in planning field trips.

Furthermore, Griffin and Symington (1997:773) stated that the "teachers appeared to abandon what might generally be considered basic good class management practice. In particular, there was little variation in teaching or learning strategies and little attention was paid to the physical comfort of the students".

Moreover, during the interviews Griffin and Symington (1997) felt that teachers could not indicate the learning outcomes associated with their own field trips. Thus, students were unaware of the expected learning outcomes and were often found focusing on irrelevant exhibits.

In fact, Kubota and Olstad (1991) found that students who participated in a pre-trip slide show, with the intent to reduce the novelty of the field trip site and establish the

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roles of students, had higher on-task exploratory learning and greater cognitive gains than the control group. However, Marcus et al. (2012) revealed that history teachers focused primarily on etiquette rather than content when administering their pre-trip discussions; plus, teachers acknowledged that they rarely used post-trip activities outside of a simple class discussion.

The importance of pre-trip activities does more than reduce the novelty of a field trip site (Anderson & Lucas, 1997) it also serves to enhance students‟ prior knowledge, another important factor that effects learning while on a field trip (Anderson, Lucas, & Ginns, 2003; Falk & Storksdieck, 2005). In fact, Falk and Storksdieck (2005) found that visitors‟ prior knowledge was the most significant variable in determining the cognitive learning associated with life science museums.

In other words, Falk and Storksdieck (2005) found that those with the lowest level of prior knowledge came away with the largest learning gains. Conversely, those with the highest amount of prior knowledge had the smallest learning gains; although, the post-test revealed that the group who came in with the larger knowledge base still came away with the larger knowledge base.

Additionally, Anderson and Lucas examined how a student‟s orientation to a field trip site might influence their learning. Anderson and Lucas (1997) discovered, through observations and a pre- and post-test, that a student‟s orientation to a field trip site was a critical factor in determining the effectiveness of the learning experience. Indeed, students found the newness of a site an exciting experience and sought to explore it further; however, the exploration impeded the acquisition of the necessary

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factual and conceptual knowledge set forth by the teachers. Thus, teachers again are warned of another element that they must address when utilizing field trips.

The issue of field trip efficacy is predominantly found in science and museum education journals (Barone, 2008; Marcus et al., 2012). Therefore, despite the relevant research on how to effectively utilize field trips, it is presumed that many social studies, mathematics, and language arts teachers are unaware of all of the issues addressed prior. In fact, given the increased accountability that teachers and schools are currently faced with, one might infer then that teachers would utilize field trips less than in previous years, especially given any ignorance on the matter. What‟s more, teachers who are aware of the efficacy issues still might not utilize field trips as much given the large amount of time and energy they know must be invested. However, rather than continuing to speculate on the issue it is important to understand what motivates teachers to use or not use field trips.

2.7 Teachers' motivation towards educational trips

When examining teachers‟ motivations it seems there are multiple reasons why a teacher might use a field trip and they are dependent on a number of variables such as the subject taught. In fact, Sorrentino and Bell (1970) analysed texts and research articles by science educators and discovered their five primary motivations for using field trips: (a) providing first-hand experience to students, (b) stimulating interest and motivation, (c) giving meaning to learning and interrelationships, (d) teaching observation and perception skills, and (e) personal and social development of students.

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Additionally, Fido and Gayford (1982) found out that, regardless of subject and grade level taught, that teachers‟ positive attitudes towards field trips include: (a) hands-on, real world experiences, (b) quality of education, (c) positive attitudes to the subject, (d) motivation towards the subject, (e) improvement of the socialization between students, (f) the development of rapport between teachers and students, and (g) enabling teachers to utilize teaching strategies such as cooperative learning.

More recently, Kisiel (2005) investigated elementary teachers‟ motivations in using field trips to teach and found eight motivations, using an open-ended response survey. In effect, elementary teachers want to use field trips to (a) connect with curriculum, (b) provide learning experiences, (c) promote lifelong learning, (d) foster interest and motivation, (e) expose students to new experiences, (f) provide a change of setting, (g) provide enjoyment or reward, and (h) satisfy school expectations. The results, though, are not mutually exclusive as teachers expressed any number of motivations but not necessarily all eight motivations. In another study Marcus et al. (2012:78) found that history teachers “value museums as means of promoting aspects of historical thinking even more highly than as a means of teaching specific content”. In addition, the history teachers felt that field trips should be a part of the secondary curriculum.

Of course, understanding teachers‟ attitudes and motivations towards field trips is important as it may correlate directly to teachers‟ utilization of field trips. Therefore, despite the fact that “many teachers may not be aware of their role in the experience and subsequently may not be taking full advantage of [the field trip] resource” (Kisiel, 2005). These studies show that teachers still believe field trips are valuable for students. In fact, Kisiel (2005) found that 90% of the teachers who participated in his

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study still recognized the field trip as being a highly valuable educational experience for students; however, how does teachers" action match up with their words?

According to Kisiel (2005), teachers recognize various motivations for taking their students on field trips. These motivations can broadly be categorized as cognitive, affective, and social. Teachers who view the field trip as a learning opportunity express cognitive motivations. Teachers who view the field trip as a way to excite their students about learning express affective motivations. Finally, teachers that view the field trip as an enjoyable outing or a way to increase personal connections between students express social motivations.

There is also a very small percentage of teachers who feel obligated to take field trips by their schools rather than having any motivation to do so themselves. Usually, teachers express more than one motivation for taking their field trip. And, usually, their motivations fall under more than just one category (Anderson & Zhang, 2003; Cox-Peterson & Pfaffinger, 1998; Kisiel, 2005; Michie, 1998; Rebar, 2009; Storsdieck, 2006). Table 2.7.1 summarizes findings from these studies.

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Table 2.7.1: Teachers' motivations for taking field trips

Researcher(s) and year	Cognitive Motivation	Affective Motivations	Social Motivations
Anderson & Zhang (2003)	- Curriculum fit		- Amount of enjoyment
Cox-Peterson &Pfaffinger (1998)	- Provide hands-on experiences for students		- Allow students to enjoy the experience
Gregg (1993)	- Classroom correlation - hands-on experience	- unique setting can "turn students around"	
Kisiel (2005)	- Connect with the classroom curriculum - Provide a general learning experience - Encourage lifelong learning	- Enhance interest and motivation - Provide exposure to new experiences	- Provide a change in setting and routine - For enjoyment
Michie (1998)	- Hands-on experiences to augment classroom learning	- Improve students" attitudes toward subject matter	
Rebar (2009)	- Provide a memorable learning experience - Promote lifelong learning - Go to a place where the subject(s) relate to the curriculum	- Expose students to new experiences - Foster student interest and motivation for the subject	
Storsdieck (2006)	- Increase teaching effectiveness - Relate to classroom curriculum - Provide better visualization of concepts	- Unusual perspective/new experience for students - Motivate students for the topic	-For entertainment only -For "edutainment" (entertainment with an educational component)

Each of the studies in Table 2.1 found at least a portion of teachers within the sample population that expressed cognitive motivations. These studies suggest that many teachers think of field trips as learning opportunities and most teachers agree upon the importance of connecting field trip learning to the curriculum. Despite these educational motivations, a review of the literature shows that teachers often do not

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have a plan for how to connect field trip learning to classroom learning, or are unable to carry out connecting activities due to various barriers (Anderson & Zhang, 2003; Cox-Peterson & Pfaffinger, 1998; Griffin, 1994; Hannon & Randolph, 1999; Kisiel, 2005; Michie, 1998; Orion, 1993; Storsdieck, 2006; Roberston, 2006; Xanthoudaki, 1998).

2.8 Challenges that prohibit teachers from organizing educational trips

Fido and Gayford (1982) revealed the following challenges as reasons for teachers‟ negative attitudes towards field trips, which include (a) difficulties with transportation and cost, (b) disparity of teachers‟ skills, (c) time constraints with school schedules, (d) lack of support from school administration, (e) curriculum inflexibility, (f) poor student behavior, and (g) an inadequacy of resources or venues.

The most common challenge for using pre- and post-field trip activities that has been noted in the literature is lack of time (Cox- Peterson & Pfaffinger, 1998; Hannon & Randolph, 1999; Kisiel, 2005; Michie, 1998; Roberston, 2006; Storsdieck, 2001; Xanthoudaki, 1998). This is not surprising, considering that lack of time is also a challenge for teachers carrying out field trips in general (Michie, 1998; Meichtry & Harrell, 2002; Orion, 1993) and a barrier for carrying out any form of environmental education (Assaraf & Orion, 2009; Ernst, 2007; cited in Ham, Rellergert-Taylor, & Krumpe, 1988).

Field trips entail an enormous amount of logistical planning on the part of the teacher and require that students leave the school setting (requiring additional time for travel to and from the field trip venue). Time must be devoted to logistical aspects of the

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field trip, as it must also be devoted to planning activities that link classroom and field trip learning.

Many teachers simply do not have enough time to concentrate on both. Furthermore, because of the pressures placed on teachers to cover materials that will be appear on standardized tests environmental education becomes a peripheral consideration in many classrooms, and planning field trips around environmental education becomes something that most teachers cannot devote their attention to without feeling they are abandoning areas in their curriculum that students will be tested on (Kisiel, 2005; Robertson, 2006). There are other several common reasons or challenges shared by Ramey-Gasser and Sarkar and Frazier for which teachers do not use educational trips in teaching.

Ramsey-Gassert (1997 found that common reasons from the teacher‟s perspective included either because they are unaware how to integrate fieldwork into their curriculum or are unfamiliar with local resources. Sarkar and Frazier (2008) found a longer list of reasons from a broader perspective: not enough time, inability to manage diverse group outside of the classroom, school does not allow field trips, scheduling difficulties, and a renewed test focus because of No Child Left Behind. Another common reason why field trip do not occur more often is because of financial cost of the trip (Ramsey-Gassert, 1997). However Sarkar and Frazier (2008) gave a list of strategies for overcoming the aforementioned challenges of engaging students in fieldwork. Those approaches included narrowing the scope of the field work by participating in locally based projects or those of shorter length, establishing fieldwork guidelines, soliciting help from parents as chaperones, starting with a field

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trip on your school campus, dividing long project into manageable daily chunks, and having students make concept maps to connect their field and classroom learning.

Another frequently-cited challenge for outdoor learning provision is fear and concern about young people"s health and safety. One source of such fear according to Thomas (1999:131), has been „a number of well-publicised accidents involving school children", which have served to overshadow „the educational benefits of the off-site and outdoor classroom". In her discussion of the impact of the Lyme Bay tragedy in which four teenagers died on a sea kayaking trip in 1993, for example, Jacobs (1996:296) reports that:

Some Head teachers stopped sending their pupils on activity holidays because their confidence in activity centres had been undermined. Many centres reported that there had been a fall in business by up to one-third in the 15 months following the incident.

Concern has also arisen according to Richardson (2000:62) in relation to farm visits following a civil court case concerning a child contracting an E. Coli infection during an organised school visit to an „Open" farm in 1997. This is reported to have led to heightened anxiety amongst „parents, teachers, educational employers [as well as] many farmers and organisations involved in farm visit schemes". This point is well illustrated by one of the largest teaching unions (NASUWT) advising „members against taking school trips because society no longer appears to accept the concept of a genuine accident" (Clare, 2004).

Studies that have investigated school teachers" thinking about teaching beyond the classroom suggest that a health and safety issue represents one of a number of difficulties facing school staff. This was the case, for example, for 65

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physical/outdoor education teachers in southern England (Harris, 1999), 59 elementary school teachers in and around Chicago (Simmons, 1998), and 28 secondary school science teachers in Darwin, northern Australia (Michie, 1998). It also featured as one of several barriers and challenges reported by teachers and outdoor educators involved in the current Growing Schools Initiative in England (Scott et al., 2003).

It is important to recognise that concerns about children‟s well-being and safety are part of what Thomas calls „a prevailing social trend, not only towards making things safer, but also towards seeking compensation for acts or omissions that result in personal injury‟ (p. 131). In other words, the growth of a litigation culture is another dimension of educators‟ and schools/centres‟ concerns about outdoor learning.

Another major challenge is teachers‟ confidence and expertise in teaching and learning outdoors. Clay (1999) suggested that teachers‟ experience is a key factor affecting the quality of Outdoor and Adventurous Activities (OAA) in different schools. In his survey of Outdoor and Adventurous Activities (OAA) in 33 English schools noted „teachers‟ experience‟ as a key factor affecting the quality of OAA in different schools. This was particularly evident in the differences between primary school and secondary school provision. According to Rickinson et al., (2003), teachers with more experience of working in the outdoors made greater demands on pupils … Enthusiastic but less experienced teachers – usually in primary schools – tended to opt for lower levels of challenge well within the capacity of the pupils. This is echoed by Beedie (1998:19) who argues that the delivery of OAA by schools is constrained by „limited perspectives from PE staff‟, possibly as a result of „lack of training‟.

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Groundwork (2002b) also supported Beedie when he posited that, in a UK project called „Farmlink", which aimed to facilitate long-term relationships between schools and local farms through educational visits, one of the problems encountered was teachers" lack of knowledge about farming.

The same point shared above, according to Titman, seems to be true for teaching and learning in school grounds. A qualitative study of 32 secondary schools in England found that one of the barriers to working in the grounds cited by teachers was „personal and professional limitations [such as] lack of training [and] fear of lack of control" (Titman, 1999:10). This is echoed by school grounds research in England and Australia (Skamp and Bergman, 2001; Malone and Tranter, 2003a and Rickinson et al., 2003a), as well as studies into teachers" ability to provide opportunities for active citizenship within and beyond the school (Kerr and Cleaver, 2004,).

Meanwhile, the prospects for addressing the needs of teachers in this area, however, are not encouraging. In the UK, Barker et al. (2002:7) point out that the decline in fieldwork is also evident in initial teacher training […and…] in-service experience is becoming less likely.

Similar issues are raised by Simmons (1998:31) in her research on Chicago teachers" willingness to use outdoor natural settings (rivers, ponds and marshes; deep woods; country parks; and urban nature) for Environmental Education (EE). Based on interviews with 59 elementary school teachers „with widely differing experiences in providing EE in natural settings", the study found that:

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the teachers did not believe that they were particularly well trained to teach in natural areas … they seemed to believe that their classes were too large to manage and that they lacked the necessary background to teach in [such places].

The requirements of school and university curricula and timetables are another reported constraint on outdoor learning according to Titman 1999, Humberstone, 1993; Beedie, 1998; Clay, 1999). This can manifest itself in various ways:

- Secondary School teachers in England citing that „the main reason for not using the [school] grounds was the belief that the National Curriculum neither prescribes nor provides sufficient flexibility to permit the use of school grounds for teaching" (Titman, 1999:10). This mean that teachers have insufficient time to undertake work in the school grounds during a single lesson period (Titman, 1999), or are unwilling to extend field trips beyond a double lesson for fear of „incurring the wrath of their peers for taking students out of their classes and/or generating relief lessons" (Michie, 1998:47)
- The English National Curriculum"s focus on „Outdoor and Adventurous Activities" within the remit of Physical Education resulting in an overemphasis on the physical (as opposed to the personal/social, and environmental) aspects of outdoor education (Humberstone, 1993; Beedie, 1998; Clay, 1999).
- Changes in secondary school science syllabus requirements meaning that „coursework and individual investigations now take precedence over developing a sense of place" (Barker et al., 2002:7).
- The growth of institution-wide timetabling arrangements and modular courses in UK universities meaning that „opportunities for field excursions in the local area" are more limited (Clark, 1997:390).

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Harris (1999:8) postulates that alongside curriculum constraints, are difficulties due to shortages of time, resources and support for outdoor learning. Harris surveyed 65 secondary school/teachers in the south of England and noted „a lack of time and a lack of money" as the top two obstacles to outdoor education. In Australia, Michie (1998:48) reports that „time and effort on the part of the teacher were often seen as negative factors" associated with organising and undertaking fieldwork. Tasks such as visiting venues, contacting resource people, preparing resource materials, organising relief lessons, collecting students" money and using one"s out-of- school time were all noted as difficulties.

Another issue raised by the secondary school science teachers in Michie"s (1998:47) study was transportation. Class sizes in junior secondary were generally greater than the size of the group that could be transported with a small bus … Bigger buses are not only more expensive to buy and maintain, but also they require different licensing arrangements. The same issue is reported as a difficulty for undertaking farm visits (Groundwork, 2002b). Scott et al (2003) also highlighted a number of barriers relating to fund raising, transportation, and costs to parents.

2.9 Gaps in the literature

Given that there is a large abundance of professional literature pertaining to educational trips it is surprising to find few empirical studies that examine the number of teachers who use educational trips or the number of educational trips that are used by those teachers. Also, there is enough literature on the concept of educational trips and efficacy of educational trips in Ghana and internationally. However, much research has not been done on teachers" attitude and motivation towards educational

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trips in Ghana. Nonetheless, it seems there is no literature on teachers‟ utilization of educational trips in the Volta Region of Ghana. This research seeks to find out and add to the literature, the perception and utilization of educational trips as an instructional resource in teaching concepts in social studies in Senior High Schools in the Volta Region of Ghana.

2.10 Summary

The intention of this literature review was to bring forth pertinent research and literature on the fundamental areas needed to build a foundation for this study. Some of these areas included concept of field trips, providing a historical overview of how teachers have used field trips, examining student learning as a result of field trips, probing the efficacy of field trips, acknowledging teachers‟ attitudes and motivations for field trips, experiential learning, organising educational trips and challenges in organising educational trip. As a result of the literature review field trips are defined as any visit to an out-of-school setting designed for educational and academic purposes whereby as a result students gain first-hand knowledge and experiences**.** Field trips have also proven to have great potential for student cognitive and non-cognitive learning.

Consequently, teachers feel that field trips are beneficial to students and are often motivated to use them for the potential they have for student learning; despite the fact that teachers often do not use field trip to their full potential.

However, there is reasonable suspicion among scholars that teachers are utilizing field trips less since the start of the new millennia; the common reasons being cited among others include a slumping economy, an increase in accountability, and fuel costs

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(Blachowicz & Obrochta, 2005; Coughlin, 2010; Gillett, 2011; Nabors, Edwards, & Murray, 2009; Schatz, 2004; Stoddard, 2009). Again, this chapter highlighted the wide range of factors that can influence the provision of outdoor education by schools, teachers and others. Research makes it clear that there are a number of important challenges that can impede or prevent schools, teachers and others from using outdoor settings for educational activities. Notable barriers include fear and concern about health and safety, teachers‟ lack of confidence in teaching outdoors, school and university curriculum requirements, shortages of time, resources and support, wider changes within and beyond the education sector among others.

Therefore, this study sought to survey teachers‟ perception and utilization of educational trips in Senior High Schools in Biakoye and Buem District in the Volta region of Ghana. Additionally, this study sought to identify frequency in which field trips are used by teachers, their motivation and demotivation or the challenges that demotivate them.

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CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Research Design

The researcher adopted descriptive survey research design. This design according to Alhassan (2006), describes and interprets what exists in its present form or condition; practice and process; trends and effect and attitude or belief. It therefore deals with the normal or typical condition of a phenomenon under examination. Hence, descriptive survey was used in an attempt to describe some aspects of a population or an existing phenomenon by selecting unbiased sample of individuals to complete questionnaire and take part in interview. According to Boyle (2004) "surveys are good for asking people about their perceptions, opinions and ideas though they are less reliable for finding out how people actually behave". A descriptive survey also offers a researcher accurate description of teachers perception, about fieldtrips and also describes their utilization in teaching Social Studies.

The researcher also used concurrent mixed method or combined paradigm. Mixed methods research according to Creswell, (2006) is a research design with theoretical assumptions as well as techniques of inquiry. Additionally, it involves philosophical assumptions that guide the direction of the collection and analysis of data and the mixture of quantitative and qualitative approaches in many phases in the research process (Creswell, 2006). Again, as a methodology, it stresses on collecting, analysing, and mixing both qualitative and quantitative data in a single study or series of studies. Patton (1990) indicated that when examining human behaviour and attitudes, it is fruitful to use a variety of data collection methods. To substantiate the circumstance for the use of the mixed method, Nau (1995) posited that using different

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sources and methods in the research process, aids to build on the strengths of each type of the data collection and minimize the weakness of any single approach and therefore maximize the strength of the qualitative and quantitative method use together. This is not to propose that a mixed methodology was the only suitable approach for this topic, rather it is considered to be desirable approach because it is the most suitable approach that can be used to achieve the objectives of this research. Irrespective of the name, in concurrent mixed method, qualitative and quantitative data are collected at the same time using interview and questionnaire and consequently analysed.

Mixed methods research provides strengths that offset the weaknesses of both quantitative and qualitative research (Creswell, 2006). Creswell (2006) contended that quantitative research is weak in understanding the context or setting in which people talk, as the voices of participants are not directly heard in quantitative research. Again, quantitative researchers are in the background, and their own personal biases and interpretations are rarely discussed, hence, qualitative research makes up for these weaknesses. Conversely, qualitative research is seen as deficient because of the personal interpretations made by the researcher, the ensuing bias created, and the difficulty in generalizing findings to a large group because of the limited number of participants studied. Quantitative research, it is maintained, does not have these weaknesses. Undoubtedly, the combination of both approaches can offset the weaknesses of either approach used alone.

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It is against this background that the researcher adopted the mixed methods for the study, for the reason that it allowed for the usage of interview and questionnaire schedule for the study to seek information from teachers within the field of Social Studies in six (6) Senior High Schools in the Volta Region of Ghana.

3.1 Population

The targeted population for this study consisted of all SHS Social Studies teachers in the Volta Region of Ghana. Meanwhile, the accessible population comprised all Social Studies teachers in the six selected schools in the region.

3.2 Sample and Sampling Technique

The sample size for the study was thirty (30) Social Studies teachers teaching the subject. Convenient sampling technique was used to select six (6) Senior High Schools in the Volta Region of Ghana. The reason for using this sampling technique is for manageability and the limited time available. Creswell (2005; cited in Kusi 2012) argues that selecting a large number of interviewees for a qualitative research, in particular, will result in superficial perspectives…the overall ability of a researcher to provide an in-depth picture diminishes with the addition of each new individual or site. Additionally, collecting qualitative data and analysing it takes considerable time, and the addition of each individual only lengthens that time.

On sampling and sample size, purposive sampling procedure was employed to select the number of Senior High School Social Studies teachers involved in the study, based on convenience and to reduce cost. The Senior High School in the Volta region are seventy-three (73) in number and conducting this research in all of them would have caused a drain on the finances of the researcher.

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Purposive sampling technique was used to choose six (6) trained graduate Social studies teachers out of the thirty (30) teachers for the one – on – one face to face interview. Hence, the remaining twenty four (24) Social Studies teachers irrespective of whether they graduated as Social Studies teachers or not answered the questionnaire.

3.3 Setting

The study took place in six (6) Senior High Schools in the Volta region. The schools consist of Nkonya Senior High, Tapaman Senior High, Worawora Senior High, Kpando senior High, Kpando Senior Technical and Bishop Senior High Schools. Nkonya Senior High, Tapaman Senior High and Worawora Senior High Schools are located in the Biakoye district while Kpando senior High, Kpando Senior Technical school and Bishop senior High Schools.

3.4 Instruments

Semi – structured interview and structured questionnaire instruments were employed to collect primary data for the study. A semi – structured interview is a qualitative method of inquiry that combines a pre – determined set of open questions (questions that prompt discussion) with the opportunity for the interviewer to explore particular themes or responses further. The semi – structured interview does not limit respondents to a set of pre – determined answers (unlike a structured questionnaire). According to Kusi (2012), semi – structured interview are flexible to a greater extent, offer interviewees the opportunity to express their views, feelings and experiences freely, and the interviewers the freedom to divert from the items/questions in the

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schedule to seek clarifications (using probes) during the interview process. O'Leary (2005), cited in Kusi (2012) argues that:

> *Semi – structured interviews are neither fully fixed nor fully free and are perhaps best seen as flexible. Interviews generally start with some defined questioning plan, but pursue a more conversational style of interview that may see questions answered in an order natural to the flow of the conversation. They may also start with a few defined questions but be ready to pursue any interesting tangents that may develop. (Kusi, 2005:46)*

A structured questionnaire according to Kusi (2012) is a data collection instrument that contains predetermined standardised questions or items meant to collect numerical data that can be subjected to statistical analysis. Kusi further established the fact that the questions in the schedule are closed – ended and answers outlined, giving respondents the opportunity to respond to simple dichotomous questions (questions that require „yes" or „no" responses), Likert scale items (those that require responses such as „strongly agree", „agree", „disagree" or „strongly disagree"), or rank some pre – determined responses, concepts, terms or phrases in an orderly fashion.

3.5 Data Collection Procedure

Interview

Interview guide comprising of semi – structured items were administered to six (6) trained Social studies teachers, one (1) from each school selected. The researcher interviewed the respondents on their perception and utilization of educational trips. The interview guide was semi-structured as shown in Appendix A(128-130). The semi-structured interview guide was employed in order to use additional questions for

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further elaboration when something relevant happened during the interview. A tape recorder and a field note book were used to record proceedings during the interview. The interview guide also served as a good way of probing perceptions, beliefs, definitions and meaning constructed by an individual. The researcher changed information such as names, and of the teachers to ensure the informants‟ anonymity. The researcher further selected the elements which were considered the most suitable to enlighten the research questions.

Questionnaire Administration

A questionnaire consisting of closed ended structured items was administered to twenty-four (24) Social Studies teachers in the three SHS. This instrument was used to gather data on respondents‟ perception and utilization of educational trips.

Specifically, the researcher administered twenty-four (24) fixed response questions to 24 Social Studies teachers teaching the subject at the six (6) Senior High Schools selected for the study in the Kpando and Biakoye Districts in the Volta Region. Items made on the questionnaire consisted of two sections. The first section with three (3) items asked the respondents to make available their background information. This included their highest educational qualifications, and Gender. The second section which comprised of twenty-one (20) Likert Scale items and one open ended item, dwelt on teachers‟ perception and utilization of educational trips. The Likert scale of five - point with numerical rating, which is “strongly disagree (1)”, “disagree (2)”, “ambivalent (3)”, “agree (4)” and strongly agree (5) were used for the questionnaire.

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3.6 Data Presentation and Analysis

The data collected through the questionnaire were inputted into SPSS to generate mean, frequencies, and percentages which were descriptively analysed. This quantitative data were transformed into graphs so that the information could be understood at a glance. The qualitative data collected through the interview were thematically examined concurrently with the quantitative data and in line with the research questions. Also, the data were analysed in four stages: data coding, identification of themes of the data encoded, regulation of the codes and themes, and the identification and interpretation of the findings.

Accordingly, the data were arranged and encoded, creation of the themes from the encoded was done and in that direction the repetition frequency of the findings were identified and interpreted by expressing via frequencies and percentages. Analysed forms were given sequence numbers and shown in parentheses at the end of the direct quotations, and care has been taken to conceal the names of participants who are considered to give personal information. The data compatible with the conceptual framework were described as findings. The common concepts and themes achieved were presented as research findings at the end of the analysis conducted independently by the researcher.

3.7 Validation

Regardless of how careful you might have been choosing an appropriate research design and statistical procedure for analysing the data, if the instrument itself is in doubt, the result would be useless. Validation according to Alhassan (2007), is the

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attempt to ensure that the research instruments one uses are not questionable and disputable. Therefore validation is to ensure reliability and validity.

Validity

In order to ensure validity of the data, the questionnaire and interview guide items were given to five MPhil Social Studies students of university of education, Winneba and subsequently to the supervisor of this thesis for proof reading for corrections in order to ensure content validity. Bollen (1989:185) defined content validity as a qualitative type of validity where the domain of the concept is made clear and the analyst judges whether the measures fully represent the domain. To Bollen, there are basically two ways of assessing content validity: (1) ask a number of questions about the instrument or test; and/or (2) ask the opinion of expert judges in the field. Hence, confidently the data gathered via the tools are valid since they measured what they are intended to measure as specified in the research objectives and questions.

Reliability

In order to check the reliability of the data collected, or whether the test items in the questionnaire were reliable, a Cronbach's alpha was run on a sample size of 20 respondents who took part in the pre-test of the instrument, on SPSS. The alpha coefficient for twelve items produced 0.876 as in the table below. This suggests that the items have relatively high internal consistency. This is because according to George and Malley (2003), Cronbach‟s alpha reliability coefficient ranges between 0 and 1. The closer the coefficient to 1 the higher the internal reliability. Therefore looking at the coefficient of 0.876, it is obvious that the internal reliability is relatively high and indicates that the instrument to gather the data for the research is reliable.

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Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.876	12

Internal consistency concerns the reliability of the test components. Internal consistency measures consistency within the instrument and questions how well a set of items measures a particular behaviour or characteristic within the test. For a test to be internally consistent, estimates of reliability are based on the average intercorrelations among all the single items within a test (Ellen A. 2010:111).

3.8 Summary

This chapter has outlined the practical steps that were taken to implement this study. It has described the design of the study, schools as well as participants were selected, and the instruments that were used to collect data, how data were collected, processed and analysed.

The processes that have been discussed demonstrate that the research was conducted in a considered and ethical manner to ensure that the integrity of the data and participants were maintained. The next chapter presents the results that emerged from this research process and the discussion of findings derived from the data collected.

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CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Overview

This study was designed to answer several questions regarding the perception and utilisation of educational trips by Senior High School Social Studies teachers in the Biakoye and Kpando districts in the Volta Region of Ghana; specifically in the field of Social Studies. Following the procedures outlined in chapter three, the quantitative data from the questionnaire were used to describe the perception of SHS Social Studies teachers regarding the concept of educational trips and experiential learning. Through further examination of the data this study was intended to assess teachers‟ motivation towards the use of educational trips in teaching Social Studies. And also to determine the challenges that confront teachers regarding the organisation of educational trips.

Information from the interview was discussed contemporaneously with the information from the questionnaire. The information from both the questionnaire and interview showed the extent of teachers‟ use of educational trips in teaching Social Studies in Senior High Schools in the Volta Region of Ghana.

The collected data from the questionnaire were converted into tables. Frequencies and simple percentages were used to analyse the data. The data from the interview were also transcribed and analysed thematically alongside the data from the questionnaire. Findings and conclusions were drawn in the light of these tables and thematic transcription from the interview by the researcher.

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4.1 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents.

Table 4.1 to 4.3 show respondents‟ (Social Studies teachers) demographic characteristics.

This section presents the respondents‟ academic qualification, gender and years of teaching experience in Social Studies.

4.2 Educational qualification

Table 4.1: Specifies the distribution of respondents by highest educational qualification.

Table 4.1 Highest degree obtained

Item	frequency	percentages
First degree	22	92.0
Second degree	2	8.0
Total	24	100.0

From Table 4.1, it can be seen that out of 24 respondents, twenty-two respondents representing 92% were having first degree in social studies and two respondents representing 8% were having second degree. This showed that all respondents who took part in the questionnaire were qualified to teach social studies at the secondary level of the educational system in Ghana. It was also revealed in the interview that five interviewees were having first degree and one was having second degree. Therefore, it is evident that all respondents are academically qualified to teach Social Studies at the secondary level of the educational system in Ghana.

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4.3 Gender of respondents

Table 4. 2: Gender

Item	Frequency	Percentage
Male	21	88.0
Female	3	12.0
Total	24	100.0

From Table 4.2, it can be observed that out of 24 respondents, 21(88%) were males and 3(12%) were females. More so, six (6) teachers who took part in the interview were all males. This means that, most teachers teaching Social Studies in Senior High Schools in the Biakoye and Kpando districts of the Volta Region were males.

4.4 Respondents' Years of Teaching Experience in Social Studies

The researcher was also interested to know the number of years the respondents have been teaching Social Studies. This is presented in table 3 below:

Table 4.3: Number of years of teaching Social Studies

Item	Frequency	Percentage
0-2 Years	4	17.0
3-5 Years	6	25.0
6-10 Years	14	58.0
Total	24	100.0

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From Table 4.3, out of 24 respondents, 4(17%) have been teaching the subject between zero to two years, six participants representing 25% have been teaching the subject between three to five years and fourteen participants representing 58% have been teaching the subject between six to ten years. This variable is important because the number of years a person has been teaching may determine his or her experience level and can be in a better position to determine what to do to organise a successful educational trips in the environment he or she finds him or herself.

With the interview, the information gathered showed that interviewee one had 5 years, interviewee two, 4 years interviewee three 14 years, interviewee four 6 years, interviewee five 5 years and interviewee six 6 years teaching experience. Therefore looking at the data above, it can be observed that majority of the participants were teaching the subject at least three years and this is enough to organise educational trips. Moreover, other studies of the effects of teacher experience on student learning have found a relationship between teachers‟ effectiveness and their years of experience (Murnane & Phillips, 1981; Klitgaard & Hall, 1974), but not always a significant one or an entirely linear one. While many studies have established that inexperienced teachers (those with less than three years of experience) are typically less effective than more senior teachers, the benefits of experience appear to level off after about five years, especially in non- collegial work settings (Rosenholtz, 1986).

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4.5 Teachers perception about the concept of Educational trips and Experiential Learning

Table 4.4 answered the research question "What is the perception of teachers regarding the concept of educational trips and experiential learning? The main focus of this section is to examine the perceptions of SHS Social Studies teachers regarding the concept of educational trips and experiential learning.

Table 4.4: The perception of social studies teachers regarding educational trips and experiential learning

s/n	Statement	SD (%)	D (%)	AM (%)	A (%)	SA (%)	Total (%)
1	Educational trips provide first-hand information about concepts to students				11(46)	13(54)	24(100)
2	Educational trips take place outside the classroom				17(71)	7(29)	24(100)
3	Educational trip enables students to understand topics more easily			1(4%)	15(63)	8(33)	24(100)
4	Teaching and learning become real by using educational trips				13(54)	11(45)	24(100)
5	Teaching and learning becomes easier when educational trip is used				15(62)	9(38)	24(100)
6	Concepts are easily retained better when educational trip is used				16(67)	8(33)	24(100)
7	No educational sites exist for teaching Social Studies		2(8)		12(50)	10(42)	24(100)
8	Educational trip broadens the mind of learners and exposed them to real concepts	10(42)	10(42)	2(8)	1(4)	1(4)	24(100)

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9	There are procedures involved in organising educational trips	2(8)	15(63)	7(29)	24(100)
10	Educational trip is an experiential learning activity	1(4)	22(92)	1(4)	24(100)
11	Authentic experiential learning activity develops the desire to learn more	1(4)	16(67)	7(29)	24(100)

***SD** – Strongly Disagree, **D** – Disagree, **AM**–Ambivalent, **A** – Agree, **SA** – Strongly Agree*

In statement 1 of Table 4.4, out of 24 respondents, 11(46%) agreed to the notion that educational trips provide first-hand information to learners and 13(54%) also strongly agreed to the fact the educational trips provide first-hand information to learners. In summary, all respondents who answered the questionnaire were of the view that educational trips provide first-hand information to learners.

The interview conducted for six respondents revealed the following perception two of the interviewees have about educational trips:

Interviewee one said, educational trip is taking students outside the classroom to learn concepts at first - hand at educational sites.

Interviewee two also believed that educational trip is a travel to educational sites to have first-hand experience during the trip.

The views of the respondents were in conformity with Baja (1983) cited in Odumah and Ayaaba (2007) that educational trips serve as first hand experiences which arise from direct learning situation. Again, according to Hug and Wilson (1965:1) Out-of-door activities is the term used to describe the effective use of the natural environment

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to teach those parts of the curriculum that can be taught outdoors and to visualize other parts through first-hand experience.

Hence, it can be concluded that teachers have the perception that educational trips enable learners to have first- hand knowledge about topics, retain what is learned better and stimulate the interest to learn more since they learn in a practical manner.

In statement 2 of Table 4.4, seventeen respondents representing 71% agreed that educational trips take place outside the classroom and seven respondents representing 29% also strongly agreed that educational trips take place outside the classroom. This signified that all respondents who answered the questionnaire are of the view that educational trips take place outside the classroom.

From the interview conducted, all the six respondents stated that educational trips take place outside the classroom. The views are stated below:

Interviewee one: educational trip is taking students outside the classroom to learn concepts at first - hand at educational sites.

Interviewee two also believed that educational is a travel to educational sites to have first-hand experience during the trip.

`Interviewee three: educational trips is taking students outside the classroom educational sites to learn related concepts

Interviewee four: an excursion organised outside the classroom to have fair knowledge on what they are taught in the classroom.

Interviewee five: taking students out to look at educational sites where they can learn concepts practically.

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Interviewee six: taking students on a journey to learn in their immediate environment.

These views are supported by the submission of Atyeo, (1939), that educational trip include any visit to an out-of-school setting. Also, Krepel and DuVall (1981), shared similar view as they looked at field trip as "a trip arranged by the school and undertaken for educational purposes, in which the students go to places where the materials of instruction may be observed and studied directly in their functional setting: for example, a trip to a factory, a city waterworks, a library, a museum etc".

Nacino-Brown, Oke and Brown (1985:41) explained that "out-of-door activities involve planned organized visits to points of interest outside the classroom, such as factories, universities, agricultural projects, museums, lakes or mountains." Balogun, et al, (1984) cited by Ayaaba and Odumah (2007:76) asserted that "out-of-door activities involve a teacher taking pupils out of the classroom to the scene where what he wants pupils to learn about can be observed closely."

Conclusively, the researcher found out that educational trips occur beyond the four corners or walls of a typical learning environment where learners are supposed to take a walk to places of educational importance. Therefore it can be a step outside the typical learning environment or classroom.

In statement 3 of Table 4.4, one respondent representing 4% is undecided as to whether educational trip enables students to understand topics more easily or not, fifteen respondents representing 63% agreed that educational trip enables students to understand topics more easily and eight respondents representing 33% also strongly agreed that educational trip enables students to understand topics more easily. This

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means that the majority of the respondents representing 96% are of the view that educational trip enables students to understand topics more easily.

Additionally, when the interviewees were asked the benefit that could be derived from educational trips, four of them had the following to say;

Interviewee six: it stimulates interest in students and makes them to understand topics better.

Interviewee five: it makes students to understand concepts in a practical way and hence understand the concept better.

Interviewee two also said students understand and retain better.

Interviewee one also confirmed educational trips enable students to understand topics easier.

From all that the respondents have said indicated that educational trips have the capacity of making students to understand what they are taught and help them to have better retention.

In statement 4 of Table 4.4, thirteen respondents representing 54% agreed that teaching and learning become real by using Educational trip and eleven respondents representing 46% strongly agreed that teaching and learning become real by using Educational trip. This shows that all respondents representing 100% have the perception that teaching and learning become real by using Educational trip.

Interviewee six also stated during the interview that educational trips have the ability of making teaching and learning real. Therefore most of the respondents were of the perception that educational trips make teaching and learning real.

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In statement 5 of Table 4.4, fifteen respondents representing 62 % agreed that teaching and learning becomes easier when educational trip is used in teaching Social Studies and nine respondents representing 38% strongly disagreed that teaching and learning becomes easier when educational trip is used to teach Social Studies. This shows that all respondents have the perception that teaching and learning becomes easier when educational trip is used in teaching Social Studies. This view has also been confirmed by Interviewee six, Interviewee three and interviewee one that educational trip makes teaching and learning easier.

In statement 6 of Table 4.4, sixteen respondent representing 67% agreed to the fact that concepts are easily retained well when educational trip is used and eight respondent representing 33% strongly agreed that concepts are easily retained better when educational trip is used. This showed that all respondents who answered the questionnaire were of the view that concepts in Social Studies are easily retained better when educational trip is utilized. This view had been established by Interviewee one and Interviewee two that educational trips enable students to understand topics and retain better. This however, confirms the fact that all respondents have the perception that educational trip makes students have better retention.

As concerning the availability of educational site to teach Social Studies, in statement 7 of Table 4.4, ten respondents representing 42% strongly disagreed and, ten respondents representing 42% also disagreed that no educational sites exist for teaching Social Studies. However, two respondents representing 8% were uncertain as to whether no educational sites exist for teaching Social Studies or there are sites for teaching the subject. Moreover, one person representing 4% agreed and also one

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person representing 4% strongly agreed that there are no educational sites exist for teaching Social Studies. Hence it showed that the majority respondents who took part in answering the questionnaire representing 84% are aware that educational sites exist for teaching Social Studies, 8% of the total respondents were unsure of the existence of educational sites and also two respondents representing 8% perceived that no sites exist for teaching Social Studies. Also, all the interviewees confirmed the fact that educational sites exist and can be used to teach Social Studies.

Regarding the fact that educational trip broadens the mind of learners and exposes them to real concepts, statement 8 of Table 4.4 revealed that two respondents representing 8% disagreed, twelve respondents representing 50% agreed and ten respondents strongly agreed. It is therefore important to note that twenty-two respondents representing 92% all perceived that educational trip broadens the mind of learners and expose them to real concepts and only two respondents representing 8% disagreed. To this view, Interviewee three confirmed that educational trips broaden the mind of learners. Hence it is revealed that the majority of the respondents have the perception that educational trips broaden the mind of learners.

In statement 9 of Table 4.4, two respondents representing 8% strongly disagreed that there are procedures involved in organising Educational trips, fifteen respondents representing 63% agreed and seven respondents representing 29% strongly agreed that there are procedures involved in organising Educational trips. In all twenty-two respondents, out of twenty-four respondents, representing 92% perceived that there are procedures involved in organising Educational trips. However, two respondents do not perceived that there are procedures involved in organising Educational trips.

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The information gathered from all interviewees also establishes the fact that there are procedures or activities involved in organising educational trips. From the interview, the researcher gathered that the procedures are in three categories namely; activities before the trip (pre-educational trip), activities during the trip (the actual trip) and activities after the trip (post-educational trip).

Regarding the fact that educational trip is an experiential learning activity, statement 10 of Table 4.4 revealed that one respondent representing 4% strongly disagreed that educational trip is an experiential learning, twenty-two respondents representing 92% agreed and one respondent representing 4% strongly agreed that educational trip is an experiential learning. All but one respondent have the perception that educational trip is an experiential learning.

In statement 11 of table 4.4, one respondent representing 4% strongly disagreed that authentic experiential learning activity develops the desire to learn more, sixteen respondents representing 67% agreed that authentic experiential learning activity develops the desire to learn more and seven respondent representing 29% also strongly agreed that authentic experiential learning activity develops the desire to learn more. In all twenty-three representing 96% out of the total of twenty-four respondents who took part in answering the questionnaire have the perception that authentic experiential learning activity develops the desire to learn more.

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4.6 Utilization of Educational Trips in Teaching Social Studies

Table 4.5 shows the utilization of educational trips by teachers in teaching Social Studies in SHS in the Biakoye and Kpando districts of the Volta Region. This answered the research question "What is the extent (if any) of teachers" use (if any) of educational trips in teaching Social Studies in Senior High Schools in the Volta region of Ghana?

Table 4.5 Utilization of educational trip in teaching Social Studies

s/n	Statement	SD (%)	D (%)	AM (%)	A (%)	SA (%)	Total (%)
1	I use educational trips in teaching Social Studies topics very often	4(17)	12(50)	2(8)	5(21)	1(4)	24(100)
2	I use educational trips once a year	5(21)	9(37)	5(21)	5(21)		24(100)
3	I use educational trips once a month	4(17)	14(59)	3(12)	3(12)		24(100)
4	I never used educational trip in teaching Social Studies	4(17)	6(25)		3(12)	11(46)	24(100)

SD – *Strongly Disagree,* ***D*** *– Disagree,* ***AM****–Ambivalent,* ***A –*** *Agree,* ***SA*** *– Strongly Agree*

In statement 1 of Table 4.5, four respondents representing 17% strongly disagreed and twelve respondents representing 50% disagreed to the fact that they use educational trips in teaching Social Studies topics very often. Now two respondents representing

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8% are uncertain as to whether to agree or disagree to the fact they use educational trips in teaching Social Studies very often. However, five respondents representing 21% agreed, and one respondent representing 4% strongly agreed that they use educational trips in teaching Social Studies very often. This shows the majority of the respondents representing 67% do not use educational trips in teaching Social Studies very often in teaching Social Studies.

In statement 2 of Table 4.5, five respondents representing 21% strongly disagreed to the fact that they use educational trips once a year, nine respondent representing 37% disagreed to the fact that they use educational trips once a year, five respondents representing 21% are uncertain to the fact they use educational trips once a year, and five respondents representing 21% agreed to the fact they use educational trips once a year. This means that the majority of the respondents (14 respondents representing 58%) do not use educational trips once a year.

In statement 3 of Table 4.5, four respondents representing 17% strongly disagreed that they use Educational trips once a month, fourteen respondents representing 59% disagreed they use Educational trips once a month, three respondents representing 12% are undecided as to whether they use Educational trips once a month or not, and three respondents representing 12% agreed that they educational trips once a month. This shows clearly that the majority of the respondents (18 respondents representing 59%) do not use educational trips once a month.

In statement 4 of table 4.5, four respondents representing 17% strongly disagreed that they never used Educational trip in teaching Social Studies, six respondents

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representing 25% disagreed that they never used Educational trip in teaching Social Studies, three respondents representing 12% agreed that they never used Educational trip in teaching Social Studies and eleven respondents representing 46% strongly agree that they never used Educational trip in teaching Social Studies. This shows that fourteen respondents (majority) representing 58% do not use educational trips in teaching Social Studies. And ten respondents (minority) representing 52% ever used educational trips in teaching Social Studies.

Also, responses from the interviewees also revealed that most teachers do not use educational trips to teach Social Studies this is because Interviewee one, Interviewee three and Interviewee five all disclosed that they never used educational trip since they started teaching meanwhile, they have been teaching the subject for the past four years on the average. Interviewee one for instance has been teaching Social Studies for the past fourteen (14) years. Interviewee two also admitted that he used educational trip only once in the four years he has been teaching Social Studies and Interviewee six confessed that he used educational trip once in the six years he has been teaching social studies. However, Interviewee four acknowledged that he usually use educational trip once every term.

The responses given by all the respondents were in line with the problem the researcher stated under the statement of the problem that "In spite of the potential benefits educational trips tend to offer learners in Social Studies it is perceived that they are sparingly or not used at all by teachers in teaching social studies.

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4.7 Teachers' motivation and demotivation towards the use of educational trip

Table 4.6 and 4.7 point out what make teachers to use educational trips or not. Table 4.6 therefore, answered the research question "How are teachers motivated towards the use of educational trips in teaching Social Studies?

Table 4.6: Teachers' motivation and demotivation towards the use of educational trip

s/n	Statement	AM (%)	A (%)	SA (%)	Total (%)
1	Educational trips provide first-hand information about concepts to students	2(8)	16(67)	6(25)	24(100)
2	Educational trip enables students to understand topics more easily	2(8)	17(71)	5(21)	24(100)
3	Teaching and learning become real by using educational trips		17(71)	7(29)	24(100)
4	Teaching and learning becomes easier when educational trip is used.	1(4)	17(71)	6(25)	24(100)
5	Concepts are retained easily and better when educational trip is used.	2(8)	15(63)	7(29)	24(100)
6	educational trip broadens the mind of learners and exposed them to real concepts		19(79)	5(21)	24(100)
7	I get demotivated in using educational trips in teaching Social Studies		17(71)	7(29)	24(100)

In statement 1 of Table 4.6, two respondents representing 8% are uncertain as to whether Educational trips which provide first-hand information about concepts to students motivate teachers to use educational trips to teach Social Studies or not, sixteen respondents representing 67% agreed that educational trips which provide first-hand information about concepts to students, motivate teachers to use

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educational trips to teach Social Studies and six respondents representing 25% strongly agreed that item educational trips that provide first-hand information about concepts to students, motivate teachers to use educational trips to teach Social Studies. This shows that the majority who took part in answering the questionnaire (twenty-to representing 92%) are motivated to use educational trips to teach Social Studies since, educational trips to provide first-hand information about concepts to students.

In statement 2 of Table 4.6 two respondents representing 8% are uncertain as to whether Educational trip which enables students to understand topics more easily motivate teachers to use educational trips to teach Social Studies or not, seventeen respondents representing 71% agreed that educational trip which enables students to understand topics more easily, motivate teachers to use educational trips to teach Social Studies and five respondents representing 21% strongly agreed that educational trip which enables students to understand topics more easily, motivate teachers to use educational trips to teach Social Studies. It is therefore clear that the majority of respondents (twenty-two representing 92%) are motivated to use educational trips to teach Social Studies since, enables students to understand topics more easily.

In statement 3 of Table 4.6, seventeen respondents representing 71% agreed that educational trip which makes teaching and learning to become real motivate teachers to use it to teach Social Studies and seven respondents representing 29% strongly agreed that educational trip which makes teaching and learning to become real motivate teachers to use it to teach Social Studies. This shows that the majority of

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respondents who took part in answering the questionnaire (twenty-to representing 92%) are motivated to use because it makes teaching and learning become real.

In statement 4 of Table 4.6 one respondent representing 8% was not sure as to whether educational trips which make teaching and learning becomes easier motivate teachers to use educational trips to teach Social Studies or not, seventeen respondents representing 7% agreed that educational trips which make teaching and learning becomes easier, motivate teachers to use educational trips to teach Social Studies and six respondents representing 25% strongly agreed that educational trips that make teaching and learning becomes easier, motivate teachers to use educational trips to teach Social Studies. This shows that the majority respondents who took part in answering the questionnaire (twenty-to representing 92%) are motivated to use educational trips to teach Social Studies since, educational trips make teaching and learning becomes easier.

In statement 5 of Table 4.6 two respondents representing 8% are uncertain as to whether educational trips which enables concepts to be retained easily and better motivate teachers to use educational trips to teach Social Studies or not, fifteen respondents representing 63% agreed that educational trips which enables concepts to be retained easily and better motivate teachers to use educational trips to teach Social Studies and seven respondents representing 29% strongly agreed that educational trips which enables concepts to be retained easily and better, motivate teachers to use educational trips to teach Social Studies. This is an indications that the majority of respondents who took part in answering the questionnaire (twenty-to representing 92%) are motivated to use educational trips to teach Social Studies since, educational trips enables concepts to be retained easily and better.

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In statement 6 of Table 4.6, nineteen respondents representing 79% agreed that educational trips which broadens the mind of learners and exposed them to real concepts motivate teachers to use educational trips to teach Social Studies and five respondents representing 21% strongly agreed that educational trips which broadens the mind of learners and exposed them to real concepts, motivate teachers to use educational trips to teach Social Studies. This shows that the majority who took part in answering the questionnaire (twenty-four representing 100%) are motivated to use educational trips to teach Social Studies since, it broadens the mind of learners and exposed them to real concepts

In statement 7 of Table 4.6, seventeen respondents representing 71% agreed that they get demotivated in using educational trips in teaching Social Studies and seven respondents representing 29% strongly agreed that they get demotivated in using educational trips in teaching Social Studies. All respondents who took part in the questionnaire attest to the fact that they are demotivated to use educational trips. Also, the information gathered from the interviewees were not different from what was gathered from the questionnaire.

The opinions of the respondents were in conformity with Sorrentino and Bell (1970) that there are five primary motivations for using field trips: (a) providing first-hand experience to students, (b) stimulating interest and motivation, (c) giving meaning to learning and interrelationships, (d) teaching observation and perception skills, and (e) personal and social development of students.

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4.8 Challenges / barriers for organising educational trips

Table 4.7 shows factors that demotivate teachers from using educational trips to teach Social Studies. This answered the research question "To what extent are the challenges confronting teachers as regards the organisation of educational trips influence the utilization of educational trips in teaching Social Studies"

Table 4.7: Reasons that demotivate teachers from using educational trips

s/n	Statement	Frequency	Percentage
1	Procedures involved in organising the trips are stressful	7	30.0
2	Seeking permission from all stakeholders and administration is difficult	2	8.0
3	The negative attitude from parents	1	4.0
4	Difficult to get financial support due the cost involved	5	21.0
5	Time factor	2	8.0
6	Road accident	2	8.0
7	difficulty in getting the School bus	1	4.0
8	Teachers' attitude towards the trip	3	13.0
9	Sub-total	23	96.0
10	No respond	1	4.0
	Total	**24**	**100.0**

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Regarding the reasons that demotivate teachers from utilizing educational trips in teaching Social Studies, statement 1 of Table 4.7, shows that seven respondents representing 30% were of the view that the procedures involved in organising educational trips are stressful.

In statement 2 of Table 4.7, two respondents representing 8% were of the view that seeking permission from all stakeholders and administration is difficult. Also, in statement 3 of table 7, one respondent representing 4% is of the opinion that the negative attitude from parents demotivates him. More so, in statement 4 of table 7 indicated that five respondents representing 21% stressed on the difficulty getting financial support due the cost involved. Two respondents representing 8% also stressed on time factor in statement 5 of table 4.7. In statement 6 of table 4.7, two respondents representing 8% gave frequent road accident as a reason that demotivates. Only one respondent representing 4% is demotivated by the difficulty in getting the School bus in statement 7 of Table 4.7. And three respondents representing 13% are demotivated by teachers‟ attitude towards the trip in statement 8 of table 4.7. From Table 4.7, it is evident that most teachers do not utilize educational trips in teaching Social studies due to the reasons given in table 4.7.

The information gathered during the interview was not different from what was gathered from the questionnaire. “Interviewee one however added that the number of times he has to appeal to the headmaster or ask students to contribute money towards the trip is a great demotivating factor that makes him and the department not to use educational trip in teaching Social Studies”.

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The assertions above were in line with Fido and Gayford (1982) and Muse et al., (1982), when they revealed teachers‟ negative attitudes towards educational trips to include; (a) difficulties with transportation and cost, (b) disparity of teachers‟ skills, (c) time constraints with school schedules, (d) lack of support from school administration, (e) curriculum inflexibility, (f) poor student behaviour, and (g) an inadequacy of resources or venues. These directly confirmed the information gathered from the respondents.

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CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Overview

This study examined teachers‟ perceptions and utilization of educational trips in teaching social studies in Senior High Schools in Biakoye and Kpando Districts in the Volta Region of Ghana. Specifically, the research investigated the extent of use of fieldtrips in teaching and learning Social Studies by teachers in Senior High Schools in Biakoye and Kpando Districts in the Volta Region of Ghana, to assess teachers motivation towards the use educational trips in teaching Social Studies, to determine the challenges that demotivate teachers as regarding the organisation of educational trips.

The outcome of an experience depends on a person‟s interests, motivation, life circumstances at that time, needs, and prior experiences and knowledge (Rennie, 2007). Field trips offer an opportunity to motivate and connect students to appreciate and understand classroom concepts, which increase a student‟s knowledge foundation, promoting further learning and higher level thinking strategies. With understanding comes confidence and intrinsic motivation.

Field trips have become less common due to limited funding and limited available time due to each school systems‟ focus on standardized testing. Non-traditional field trips are still quite possible. Campus field trips provide a cost-free alternative, while retaining the benefits of traditional field trips. Outside, students might explore around the school grounds, focused on a specific topic or concept.

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No matter whether the school is urban, suburban, or rural, ecology is everywhere (Lei, 2010). There is much to be learned from a vacant lot, the edge of a parking lot, a puddle, or a bush. Field trips can stimulate new learning, increased attitude towards science, trigger interest development, and provide many rewards to both the teacher and the students (Scarce, 1997).

5.1 SUMMARY

This study surveyed teachers perception and utilization of educational trip in teaching Social Studies in Senior High School in Biakoye and Kpando Districts in the Volta Region of Ghana. Four research questions guided the study: What is the perception of teachers regarding the concept of educational trips and experiential learning? How are teachers motivated towards the use of educational trips in teaching Social Studies? To what extent are the challenges confronting teachers as regards the organisation of educational trips influence the utilization of educational trips in teaching Social Studies? What is the extent of teachers‟ use of educational trips in teaching and learning Social Studies in Senior High Schools in the Volta Region of Ghana? A sequential mixed method design was used for the study. The major instrument for data collection was a questionnaire. Data from this source were then triangulated with interview. Non – probability sampling method, that is, convenience and purposive sampling techniques, were used to select the sample of districts, schools and respondents for the study. In all, thirty (30) Social Studies teachers were selected from six (6) Senior High Schools in the Volta Region.

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5.2 Research findings/Conclusion

1. This research revealed that most Social Studies teachers do not use educational trips in teaching Social Studies in Senior High Schools in the Volta Region of Ghana. And even the few that used it did so sparingly.
2. The research further revealed that teachers have negative attitude towards the utilization of educational trips in teaching Social Studies. These negative attitudes of teachers towards the use of fieldtrips were related to the following number of factors:
    - Difficulties with transportation (including cost).
    - Time considerations (preparation, fitting into the school timetable).
    - Lack of support from school administrations for educational trips.
3. It is discovered from the research that Social Studies teachers have adequate knowledge on the concept of educational trips, since they agreed and stated the following;
    - Educational trips provide first-hand information to students
    - Educational trips takes place outside the classroom
    - Educational trips enable students to understand topics more easily
    - Teaching and learning becomes real when educational trip is used
    - Teaching and learning becomes easier when educational trip is used
    - It broadens the mind of learners and exposes them to real concepts
    - Concepts are better retained educational trip is utilised
    - There are procedures involved in organising educational trip
    - Educational trip is an experiential learning activity
    - Authentic experiential learning activity may develop curiosity and interest, leading to a desire to learn more

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It is also discovered that teachers are motivated due to the views expressed above, to use educational trips in teaching Social Studies.

5.3 Recommendations

Based upon the discoveries of the study, the following recommendations are made:

1. Teachers in the Senior High Schools should be encouraged to use educational trip as instructional resource to enhance the teaching and learning Social Studies. Teaching time tables should be planned by the School authorities such that they make room for the organization of educational trips. This would promote effective teaching and learning.
2. Ghana Education Service (GES) must ensure that the policy formulated on the utilization of educational trips in the teaching of Social Studies in the Senior High Schools, specified in the 2010 Senior High School Syllabus, is implemented in order to enhance effective teaching and learning of Social Studies.
3. Teachers should plan educational trips to fit into their lessons for the students to benefit fully from such trips. To achieve this, Headmasters of Senior High Schools should plan their time tables such that there is enough time for the organization of educational trips to enhance effective utilization of educational trips in teaching and learning Social Studies. And this would help to increase the proportion of teachers using educational trips as well as the frequency with which teachers use educational trips.
4. The government should provide sufficient funds and resources to the Senior High Schools to hold educational trips accordingly.

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5.4 Suggestion for further Research

The researcher suggests that future researchers on a similar issue should broaden the scope of the study to cover more Senior High Schools in the Volta Region of Ghana so that the findings from such a study could be generalized.

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APPENDIX A

University of education, Winneba
Department of social studies education
(Mphil Social Studies)

Questionnaire For Shs Social Studies Teachers In The Volta Region

Dear Colleague,
I am an MPHIL student of Social studies department of the University of Education, Winneba. Currently, am working on my master"s degree thesis on the topic: ***A survey of teachers' perception and utilization of educational trips in teaching social studies in Senior High Schools in the Volta region of Ghana***.

I would greatly appreciate your input in completing this survey. Complete confidentiality will be provided in the sense that high ethical standard will be maintained to ensure that no harm is caused to any respondent. I will ensure that any information provided is kept confidential by using it only for the purpose of this research.

Also, the anonymity of the participants would be protected by ensuring that the semi-structured questionnaire schedule and the research findings do not contain the names of the participant.

Thanks for your cooperation.

Asiam Gideon Korsi
(The researcher)

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Section A: **Educational Information**

Circle the appropriate response.

1. What is your highest degree?

A. First degree B. Second degree

2. How many years have you been teaching social studies?

A. 0-2yrs B 3-5yrs C. 6-10yrs D. 16-20yrs

3. Gender: A. Male B. Female

Section B: **Perception and Utilization of Educational Trips**

Tick (√) the appropriate response in the spaces provided below.

S/N	Items	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Ambivalent	Agree	Strongly agree
		1	2	3	4	5
1	Educational trips provides first-hand information about concepts					
2	There are many educational sites available for teaching topics in social studies					
3	Educational trip takes place outside the classroom					
4	Educational trips involve travelling to other places other than the school					
5	Educational trip enables students to understand topics more easily					
6	Teaching and learning become real by using educational trip					
7	Teaching and learning becomes more easier when educational trip is used					
8	Concepts are easily retained better when educational trip is used					
9	It broaden the mind of learners and exposed them to real concepts					
10	No educational sites exist for teaching social studies topics					
11	There are procedure involve in organising educational trips					
12	I use educational trips in					

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	teaching social studies topics very often					
13	I use educational trips once a year					
14	I use educational trips once a month					
15	Items 1, 5,6,7,8 and 9 motivate teachers to use educational trips in teaching social studies concepts.					
16	I never utilised educational trips in teaching topics in social studies					
17	I have adequate knowledge about educational trips					
18	Educational trip is an experiential learning activity.					
19	Authentic experiential activities may develop curiosity and interest, leading to a desire to learn more.					
20a	I get demotivated in using educational trips to teach Social Studies					

20. Kindly give a reason that demotivates you to utilise educational trips to teach social studies

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APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR SHS SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS IN THE BIAKOYE DISTRICT AND KPANDO MUNICIPAL OF THE VOLTA REGION OF GHANA

Dear Colleague,
I am an MPHIL student of Social studies department of the University of Education, Winneba. Currently, am working on my master"s degree thesis on the topic: ***A survey of teachers' perception and utilization of educational trips in teaching social studies in Senior High Schools in the Volta region of Ghana***.

I would greatly appreciate your input in completing this survey. Complete confidentiality will be provided in the sense that high ethical standard will be maintained to ensure that no harm is caused to any respondent. I will ensure that any information provided is kept confidential by using it only for the purpose of this research.

Also, the anonymity of the participants would be protected by ensuring that the semi-structured questionnaire schedule and the research findings do not contain the names of the participant.

Thanks for your cooperation.

Asiam Gideon Korsi
(The researcher)

1. What is the highest degree you hold?

2. What were the courses you offered during your first and/or second degree(s)?

3. In what subjects are you certified or have an endorsement to teach?

4. How many years have you been teaching Social studies curriculum at any grade level

5. What class level(s) are you teaching Social Studies currently?

6. Do you have any idea about educational trips? If yes, in your opinion, what do you understand to be educational trips? And if no, please kindly state your reasons.

7. Is there any benefit a teacher and/or a student could derive from educational trips and what could be the benefits?

8. Do we have any educational sites available for teaching Social Studies in your District, Region or Country? Kindly name a few.

9. Do you usually use educational trips in teaching concepts in Social Studies? If yes, how often do you use educational trips to teach Social Studies? If no, state your reasons.

10. There are steps or procedures involved in organising successful educational trips. If you agree, what then are these steps or procedures?

11. In organising educational trips, are there any possible challenges to be encountered in the process?

12. In using educational trip to teach Social Studies what has been your motivation and/or demotivation?