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ABSTRACT

This document is the third of four prepared for Phase 1 of the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) Civics Education Study. The more than 20 countries that participated were asked to gather data to answer four Core International Framing Questions (CIFQs). Volume 2 explains the process from which the CIFQs emerge. All participating countries were asked to gather data on what students ages 14-15 are expected and/or likely to learn about: (1) democracy, political institutions, and rights and responsibilities of citizens; (2) national identity; and (3) social cohesion and diversity. For the fourth question, countries were to select either media, local participation, or the connection between the political and economic system. A National Expert Panel decided that for the fourth question data would be collected on what students are expected or likely to learn about the connection between the economic and political systems. The panel identified textbooks, state social studies coordinators, teachers, students, or organizations as the most appropriate data sources for obtaining information on each of the 11 points (textbooks, courses, instructional activities, assessment, extracurricular activities, activities outside the class, teacher training, media, influence of political parties, obstacles, and changes over the last 10 years) raised by the international planning committee. Further, panelists drafted initial interview protocols for student and teacher focus groups, questionnaires for organizational and state surveys, and a rubric for a content analysis of textbooks. (Contains 12 tables, 10 references, and appendixes with survey instruments and interview protocols, summary of state survey, and a list of textbooks evaluated.) (BT)

SO 031 165

**IEA CIVIC EDUCATION STUDY
PHASE I: THE UNITED STATES**

Volume III

**RESPONSES TO THE FOUR
CORE INTERNATIONAL FRAMING QUESTIONS**

g - q

**Carole L. Hahn
Paulette Patterson Dilworth
Michael Hughes
Trisha Sen**

September 1998

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Preface

This document is the third of four prepared for Phase I of the Civics Education Study, under the auspices of the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA). The more than 20 countries that participated in Phase I of the IEA Civic Education Study were asked to gather data that would answer four Core International Framing Questions (CIFQs). The CIFQs emerged from a process by which countries earlier prioritized 18 sets of framing questions posed by an international planning committee (see Volume II), chaired by Dr. Judith Torney-Purta at the University of Maryland. The international planning committee combined several initial framing questions and dropped others in light of country input.

All countries participating in Phase I were asked to gather data on: what students ages 14-15 are expected and/or likely to learn about (1) democracy, political institutions, and rights and responsibilities of citizens, (2) national identity, and (3) social cohesion and diversity. For the fourth question, countries were to select either media, local participation, or the connection between the political and economic system. The National Expert Panel for the United States portion of the study met in February, 1996, in Atlanta. The purpose of the meeting was to outline appropriate sources and methods of data collection and to select the fourth CIFQ for the United States. After much discussion, the Panel decided that for the fourth question we would collect data on what students are expected or likely to learn about the connection between the economic and political systems. The panel identified textbooks, state social studies coordinators, teachers, students, or organizations as the most appropriate data source for obtaining information on each of the 11 points (textbooks, courses, instructional activities, assessment, extracurricular activities, activities outside the class, teacher training, media, influence of political parties, obstacles, and changes over the last ten years) raised by the international planning committee. Further, panelists drafted initial interview protocols for student and teacher focus groups,

questionnaires for organizational and state surveys, and a rubric for a content analysis of textbooks. Later, the staff of the project further revised the instruments and sent them to panelists to review. The methods section that follows describes the procedures of data collection.

We wish to thank members of the National Expert Panel, and in particular Gloria Contreras and Walter Parker who conducted focus groups in Texas and Washington, and other panel members who assisted with instrument development. Thanks to Pat Avery and Annette Miller at the University of Minnesota, for doing the content analysis of textbooks, and to Theresa Johnson who conducted a focus group there. We are especially grateful to the teachers and students who participated in the focus groups in Georgia, Minnesota, Texas, and Washington and to those individuals with expertise in particular domains who shared their viewpoints in interviews with us. We are also indebted to the state social studies coordinators and staff of organizations who took the time and care to respond to our surveys and to answer questions in telephone interviews. Finally, we wish to thank the National Center for Educational Statistics of the United States Office of Education for funding the project.

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September, 1998

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Responses to the Four Core International Framing Questions

g-q

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Appendix A: Instruments

State Survey

Organizations Survey

Student Focus Group-Interview Protocol

Teacher Focus Group-Interview Protocol

Appendix B: Summary of State Survey

Appendix C: Textbook Analysis

IEA CIVIC EDUCATION PROJECT: PHASE I IN THE UNITED STATES.

FINDINGS

In order to answer the questions posed by the international planning committee, we collected data from five sources. The sources were: (a) a survey of the 50 state social studies coordinators; (b) a survey of representatives of organizations involved in civic education; (c) a content analysis of textbooks; (d) focus group interviews of students ages 14 to 15; (e) focus group interviews of 8th- and 9th-grade social studies teachers; and (f) interviews with experts in the particular domains being investigated. We also drew on the insights of the members of our National Expert Panel.

Method

State Survey

Because the states and local districts are responsible for schools in the United States, there is much variety in curricular policy among the 50 states and over 15,000 school districts. We sent surveys to the 50 state social studies coordinators or their equivalents asking about statewide policies, such as requirements for particular courses for high school graduation, textbook adoption, and testing, which might impact civic education. We also asked the coordinators to estimate whether a majority of school districts in their state taught particular courses and, if so, at what grades from 6 to 12. Additionally, we asked state coordinators to tell us about: organizations in their state that had been active in providing materials for, or influencing policy in, social studies; perceived obstacles to effective social studies; and anticipated changes in social studies. We assumed that state level personnel are more knowledgeable about influences on social studies in general than the specifics of implementation. For that reason, we did not ask domain specific

questions in the state survey.

We sent the questionnaires to members of the Council of State Social Studies Specialists better known as CS4 of the National Council for the Social Studies. In the past, most states had social studies specialists or coordinators, but from our follow up phone calls we learned that in some states, there is no longer a social studies coordinator, only curriculum generalists. In these states the individual who was the social studies specialist formerly and/or the person who was recognized as having the most knowledge in that area completed the questionnaire or answered our questions over the telephone. We obtained survey responses from individuals in 48 states who were knowledgeable about social studies in their state.¹ Appendix A contains a copy of the questionnaire and Appendix B reports summary data from the state survey.

Interest Groups and other Organizations

We designed a second survey to be sent to approximately 50 organizations that were, we believed, interested in the area of civic education. We asked the recipients to tell us if their organization provided materials, in-service training for teachers, student material, or other services to support civic education. Further, we asked if their organization had a perspective on the teaching of the four domains that were the focus of our study. These domains were: (a) democracy, political institutions, and citizenship; (b) national identity; (c) diversity and cohesion; and (d) the connection between the economic and political systems. Unfortunately, we had a low return rate on our survey despite follow-up letters and phone calls. Some people explained that their organization did not take positions and/or no one individual could speak for the organization. In other cases, the organization was a professional organization that dealt with broader issues and did not concern itself with the specifics at the level we were asking. Because we felt that a case

¹ In one state without a state level person responsible for social studies, a high school department head, widely recognized as one of the most knowledgeable individuals about social studies in his state, responded. In another state, the social studies coordinator did not return our calls, but a social studies supervisor in the largest city agreed to complete the survey for us. Two other state coordinators told us they would complete the questionnaire but it was never received.

study of civic education in the United States would not be complete without descriptions of the many organizations that are involved in the field, we developed an annotated bibliography of organizations using information from the Encyclopedia of Associations 95 (Schwartz & Turner, 1994), Internet Web sites maintained by some of these organizations, and brochures obtained at conventions of the National Council for the Social Studies and one of its state affiliates, as well as the information obtained from the survey and telephone interviews with representatives of the organizations. Finally, our survey of the states yielded some information about organizations that were seen by state level personnel as being particularly active in their state. Appendix A contains a copy of the questionnaire, and the Annotated Bibliography of Organizations is part of the document Responses to 18 Framing Questions.

Textbook Analysis

In the United States it is not easy to identify the most widely used textbooks. There are no official textbooks, and there is no agency that keeps a record of numbers of textbooks sold by commercial publishers. About half the states have textbook adoption policies. Notably, all of the southern states have such policies, according to the respondents to the state survey. Even in states with an adoption policy, once a state committee has adopted several possible textbooks for purchase with state funds, it is left to each school district, and sometimes each school, to decide which book they will purchase for their students. In light of the complex situation, we used information from several sources to identify appropriate books for analysis. We asked state social studies coordinators in states with a textbook adoption policy to provide a list of the approved social studies textbooks. We identified the texts for 7th- through 9th-grade civics and United States history courses that appeared on the most lists, and we identified the books for those subjects and grade levels that were used in the states with the largest populations (California, Texas). We also asked three experts in the teaching of civics and United States history to name the books that they thought were most widely used across the country. In addition, a staff member of the American Textbook Council, who could not give us specific figures, did provide what he

believed to be a "short list" of widely used books. Finally, by triangulating information from these varied sources, we selected the three books for United States history and the three books for civics/government for grades 7 through 9 that were nominated most frequently. In the case of one tie, the text with the more recent publication date was chosen. The textbooks selected for analysis are listed in Appendix C.

In order to conduct the content analysis of the books thus identified, two specialists in social studies at the University of Minnesota developed a rubric that focused on the four domains of this study.² The two individuals each analyzed the same book to obtain an index of inter rater reliability that was sufficient to proceed (.85-.95). One individual completed the content analysis of the six books. The complete analysis will be reported in her masters thesis. Summary data from the textbook analysis are reported in Appendix C.

Student and Teacher Focus Groups

We conducted four focus groups with 8th- and 9th-grade students (that is, students approximately 14-years old). Students in two of the groups attended four schools in the metropolitan Atlanta area, and those in the other two groups were located in two different parts of Texas. We held five focus groups with middle and high school teachers. One group contained

² Initial categories for analysis were derived from the IEA framing questions. For example, two categories--"rights" and "responsibilities"--were selected as terms that might shed light on the way in which democracy is conceptualized in textbooks (IEA Question #1). Three experts in social studies education reviewed the initial categories, and offered suggestions for revisions. Initial categories were then "tested" for clarity with one or two chapters from the textbooks. Both researchers coded the "practice" chapters; categories were then refined, deleted or added. This recursive process of applying the coding scheme to selected chapters, and subsequently revising the categories occurred three times before we felt the categories were clear and meaningful. A list and description of the categories is presented in Table 1 (Appendix C); intercoder agreement, based on an analysis of three chapters, ranged from .85 to .95. Differences were usually attributed to oversight. Each text (with the exception of tables of contents, appendices, and indexes) was analyzed in its entirety. Examples of categories were highlighted in the texts (e.g., Bill of Rights for the category 'documents'), and then entered into a computer database for sorting and frequency counts.

Quantitative content analysis is a valuable method for examining textbooks in a systematic fashion. It is unlikely, however, to capture nuances such as a textbook's organizational framework. In reporting the data we thus weave together the results of the quantitative content analysis with a narrative of our general observations.

teachers from the Seattle area, one from the Minneapolis area, and three groups from the metropolitan Atlanta area. We deliberately included in our focus groups students and teachers from urban and suburban schools and from schools with differing racial and ethnic compositions. It should be emphasized that the purpose of these focus groups was not to provide representative samples from which generalizations would be made to a wider population. Rather, we were trying to identify a range of meanings, experiences, and perceptions that may exist related to civic education. It was our goal to use insights from focus groups to identify plausible hypotheses that could be tested with representative samples of students, schools, and teachers in Phase II of the IEA Civic Education Study.

Focus groups contained from five to eight individuals. Discussions took from one and a half to two hours and followed a semi structured format. The interview protocols appear in Appendix A. Long quotations used in this report from student and teacher interviews are identified by the use of an S or T in parenthesis following the quote.

Expert Interviews

We further supplemented our data collection by interviewing three individuals who are well known in the United States for their research and programs related to citizenship, economic, and history education. Additionally, in one state we interviewed the state social studies specialist and directors of state level organizations that specialize in programs for teachers and students related to particular domains. An E following a quotation refers to the transcript of an expert interview from which the quote came.

Using the multiple data sources described here, we generated responses to the four International Framing Questions that follow.

Democracy, Institutions, Rights, and Responsibilities Domain

Core International Framing Question I

Given that democracy is a central concept, what does it mean in the national context, and what are young people expected or likely to learn about it by age 14 or 15? Are young people expected or likely to learn mainly about one particular conception of democracy (e.g. about representative democracy with its emphasis on leaders chosen and held accountable through contested elections; or about more participatory or direct forms of democracy; or about substantive views of democracy in which economic and social equality are argued to be of great importance? With what alternatives (e. g. totalitarianism, authoritarianism, anarchy, social class exploitation) is this conception of democracy contrasted? In particular, what is most emphasized as inherent to or distinctive of democracy? In other words, what is of most substantive or symbolic importance to democracy, and what are the most salient perceived strengths and weaknesses of democracy (past and/or present, foreign and/or domestic) with relation to each of the following subdomains:

1) Institutions and practices: including how governing groups and/or leaders are selected and held accountable; how laws and regulations are established, interpreted, and enforced; how individuals and groups participate in political processes and whether there is support for the idea that powers should be distributed or balanced between different institutions.

2) Rights of citizenship: including (a) civil and political rights, such as the right to formulate opinions on political issues and express them by voting or speaking publicly, the right to have access to different points of view in an uncensored press, the right to dissent from (and even peacefully protest against) government policies, the right to strike, the right to practice one's religion, and (for foreigners) the right to become citizens; (b) the right to form or join political parties, unions, and other organizations; and (c) social and economic rights, such as

the right to a certain minimal standard of living or to employment, medical care, and education.

3) Obligations or responsibilities of citizenship: including voting, military /national service, and more generally expectations for adults to work, pay taxes, and obey laws.

To what extent is democracy with respect to these rights and obligations presented in an idealized form and to what extent in a way in which young people are given opportunities to experience what it means in a more practical sense? Are young people largely asked to memorize facts about the government structure, or are they encouraged to analyze disagreements which exist between candidates or political parties? How much opportunity and what kinds of opportunities do young people get to become directly involved in meaningful ways in the interactions, practices, rights, and obligations detailed above? Are they expected or likely to believe that the government is responsive or should be responsive to citizens' expressions of political views, and to feel confident or efficacious about their ability to make their opinions heard?

g. If the topic of democracy, institutions, rights, and responsibilities is addressed as part of the official curriculum of public elementary or secondary schools, indicate all the subjects and grade levels at which it is likely to be addressed and emphasized. Emphasis here means that it is treated at several times during the year or several times a week for at least two weeks. What aspects of the topics covered in the Core International Framing Question are most emphasized in the various subject matters and the various grade levels? If there are differences between specific schools in this treatment (e.g. regional autonomy or differences between academic and vocational programs), please explain.

There is a broad consensus that the United States is a democracy and that it is a responsibility of the schools to teach about democracy and to prepare students to be democratic citizens. Nevertheless, there is some variety in how that is done. Because the curriculum of the schools is set at the local level within various requirements at the state level, there is variation from one state to the next, and among school districts within a state, about what is taught, when, and how.

In many elementary classes students are taught about democracy when the class establishes class rules or votes to do something from among several options. In the elementary grades students often learn about famous presidents. In addition, elementary students sometimes learn about local government services when they study communities. Although most direct instruction about democracy, political institutions, and rights and responsibilities of citizens usually does not occur before middle or high school, some elementary classes or schools have had special citizenship or law-related education projects, and some are using materials such as those created by the We the People project for elementary school children. Moreover, in many school districts, 5th-grade students receive instruction about the founding of political institutions in lessons on United States history. For this project we focused our attention on grade 6 and above.

In our state survey we asked the 50 state social studies consultants, or their equivalents, if

there was a statewide requirement that United States government/civics/citizenship be taught in grades 6-12 (See Appendix B). Respondents from 36 states said, yes, there was such a requirement in their state; ten said there was no such requirement, and four did not respond to this item. Of the 36, 11 reported that the requirement was for a year-long course, and 20 said it was for a quarter- or semester-long course. Several noted that although civics/government/citizenship was not specifically mandated, there was a state mandate for two or three years of high school social studies. Further, within, or in addition to that requirement, some school districts mandated a course in the civics/government area; in other districts there was simply a tradition that students would take one course in civics or government. Additionally, in four states there was a mandate that the United States Constitution be taught, but it was left up to districts to decide where and when they would do that.

Further, we asked the state consultants at which grades, between 6 and 12, they thought that the majority of the districts in their state taught particular courses, and whether or not the courses were required. In asking this question we were interested in courses--on state government, United States government, United States history, and civics or citizenship--in which students were most likely to receive direct instruction about political processes and institutions. Respondents from 45 states reported that they thought the majority of school districts in their state taught United States government or civics sometime between grades 6 and 12. Only two respondents said the majority of districts in their state did not (there was no response to this item from three states). Additionally, respondents from 34 states said the majority of districts in their state taught state and local government--often in courses combined with either state history or United States government. Respondents from only 11 states said they did not think that a majority of districts in their state taught state and local government (there was no response from individuals in five states). Additionally, respondents from 16 states said they thought that courses in law were taught in a majority of districts.

As for the grades at which students are most likely to be enrolled in civics, government, or law courses, respondents from 29 states estimated that the majority of districts teach United

States government at the 12th grade and 18 said the 9th grade. Grades 11, 10, and 8 were the next most frequently mentioned with responses from 15, 12, and 9 states, respectively. In some cases several grade levels were identified by the same person, if for example, he or she thought that the majority of districts taught civics as a required course in grade 9 and government as an elective at grade 12.

Fifteen respondents said that state and local governments were taught in the 8th grade, 12 said they were taught in the 9th grade, and 12 said they were taught in the 12th grade. Another five or six respondents specified grades 7, 10, and 11 as the grade where state and local government were taught. The most frequently cited grades for teaching law were grades 12, 11, 10, and 9 being identified, respectively, by 13, 10, 9, and 9 respondents.

Taken together, then, it appears from our survey that by age 14 to 15, students in the majority of districts in 18 states will have had the opportunity to take a course in civics or government in the 9th grade, whereas students in the majority of districts in only nine states are likely to have had such a course in grade 8. Students in a majority of districts in 15 states may have had instruction in state and local government in the 8th grade, and in 12 states students in the majority of districts may have had this instruction in the 9th grade. This means that students in many districts across the country will not have had deliberate instruction about local, state, and/or national government by the time they are 14-15 years old--the target age for the IEA study. A sizable number, however, are likely to have had such instruction. Moreover, many more students will have learned about democracy, political institutions, and rights and responsibilities of citizens in a course in United States history before they are 14 to 15 years old. Indeed, respondents from 30 states said that the majority of districts in their state taught United States history in grade 8; 12 said they did in grade 9; and 7 respondents stated the majority of districts taught United States history in grade 7. Also, it has been traditional to teach American history in the 5th grade, but we did not have data on how prevalent that was when this study was conducted.

It should be noted that because there is not a uniform pattern even within a state, the

social studies consultants were only able to estimate where a majority of districts in their state tended to teach particular courses. It will be necessary to survey a national sample of school districts to obtain more accurate figures. The 1988 National Assessment of Educational Progress, which used nationally representative samples of 13- and 17- year olds, provides further insight into this area. In that assessment, 89% of the 8th graders reported they had studied some American government or civics since grade 5 and 93% of the 12th graders said they had taken such a course in high school (National Assessment, 1990).

The variations in courses at particular grades within the same state were illustrated by the difficulty we had in finding teachers of 14- to 15-year-olds in one state to participate in our focus groups. Just in the Atlanta metropolitan area alone we learned that one school district taught Georgia history in grade 8 and civics in grade 9; another taught Georgia history in grade 8 and one quarter each of civics, economics, and geography in grade 9; and yet another taught civics in grade 8 and western civilization in grade 9. We found similar variations among districts in a single state where our other focus groups were held and when we made follow-up phone calls to state social studies consultants for our survey.

With regard to what aspects of the topic would be most emphasized, students told us that when they thought of "democracy," the following came to mind: "the form of government that we have," "freedom," and "electing people to represent us." One student's comment that, "we don't have an exact democracy," was typical of statements made by several students in expressing the view that pure democracy would mean that even children could participate in the political process. Students emphasized that "we choose the people that have the same ideas as us and we elect them and they make the choices. Hopefully they make the choice we would make." Although one student distinguished a democracy from a monarchy, no student in our focus groups mentioned parliamentary or social democracies.

The students in our focus groups said that in school they had learned about the branches and levels of government--a few using the terms 'executive,' 'legislative,' and 'judicial,' 'local,' 'state,' and 'national' while others just listed the "people who make the laws," "courts and

trials,” “the President, governor and mayors.” Most of the students in our focus groups said they had learned about the United States Constitution and its amendments, especially the Bill of Rights. Several stated they had learned about “checks and balances” and some history behind the Constitution, such as the Magna Carta, the Declaration of Independence, and the Articles of Confederation. In regard to citizens' rights and responsibilities, most students mentioned voting either as a right that people in some “other countries don't have” or as a responsibility. They mentioned jury duty and serving in the military during wartime as responsibilities. In a comment typical of ideas expressed by several of the students we interviewed, one student noted that rights included the right “to have whatever religion you want, to free speech, and to bear arms.” They recognized, however, that people disagreed about the meaning of the latter right.

Our focus groups of students gave responses quite similar to those obtained from the nationally representative samples of students in the 1988 National Assessment of Educational Progress (National Assessment, 1990). In that assessment, more than 95% of the students at both grades 8 and 12 said they studied the U.S. Constitution either “a lot” (55%) or “some” (40%). Similarly, at both grade levels close to 40% reported studying “a lot” about Congress, how laws are made, the President and cabinet, political parties, elections, and voting, while an additional 50% at each grade level reported studying those topics to “some” extent. Rights and responsibilities of citizens, the court system, and state and local government were the next most frequently cited topics.

Teachers in our focus groups mentioned several ideas about democracy that their students brought to class. One teacher said, “kids come in with the idea that democracy is freedom of opportunity, especially to use your talents.” Another felt that his African American male students who had had encounters with the police came to his class with negative ideas about democracy and political institutions. Others commented that immigrant students from Laos, Thailand, and Somalia had different ideas than those held by their native students. The teachers suggested that these differences were based on the students’ different earlier experiences.

Most of the teachers said that they taught about the distinction between direct and representative democracies. One said that he emphasized that “in a democracy, power derives from the people, but that if people do not participate, they risk losing their freedom.” Some 8th- and 9th-grade teachers said they compared democracy to communism, socialism, dictatorships, and monarchies. Also, several 6th- and 7th-grade teachers said that when they were teaching world regions, they made comparisons between other countries’ forms of government and that of the United States. One 8th-grade teacher said she compared the United States’ form of democracy to parliamentary forms. Several teachers noted that they tried to point out difficulties, as well as strengths, associated with democracy, such as its being inefficient and time consuming. Several teachers said that they also pointed out to their students instances when the ideal of democracy was not practiced in the United States, as when women could not vote and when Native Americans were put on reservations. Several teachers said their students recognized that the denying of rights to colonial women was a breach of democratic principles. One teacher reported that a student protested, “that’s not fair; that’s not democracy.”

Middle school teachers who did not explicitly teach civics or citizenship said that they sometimes taught about political institutions and procedures in the context of discussing current events. For example, if the class was talking about a bill in the state legislature a teacher said she would explain “how a bill becomes a law.” In discussing the 1996 presidential elections, many non-civics teachers said they had taught lessons related to this domain. Furthermore, teachers of 8th-grade state history courses said that “you can’t study the state without the nation.” For that reason, they said they gave attention to colonial history and Constitutional principles. Teachers of 8th-grade United States history said they taught about democracy when they taught about the Mayflower Compact and colonial America.

Teachers of civics or citizenship at the 9th-grade level said their course included attention to the background to American democracy, including ancient Greece, the ideas of John Locke, the Magna Carta, the colonial period, and the Articles of Confederation. All of the teachers reported spending much time on the United States Constitution including the Bill of Rights and

to a lesser extent the other amendments. All of the civics teachers in the focus groups reported that they taught about three branches of government. Several said they taught about landmark Supreme Court cases. After studying about the right to free speech, one teacher described dividing the class in half to consider two fictional scenarios. In one scenario, students were to decide whether a group of American Nazis should be permitted to march in a town. In the other scenario, the students were to decide if a homosexual group should be allowed to march. Civics teachers reported that they taught much vocabulary, from “legislature” and “impeachment” to “subpoena” and “habeas corpus.”

Several of the focus group teachers said that their students had much interest in rights. That led one teacher to spend more time on rights than on other topics; it led another to talk about responsibilities that were associated with the Bill of Rights. Several teachers deliberately emphasized that “one person can make a difference and you don't have to wait until you are 18.” One teacher said she emphasized that citizens should be willing to make sacrifices for the whole; for that purpose she asked her students to consider that “with rapid transit, although you may not benefit directly, our community does benefit indirectly.” Another teacher emphasized that citizens should develop more tolerance than seemed evident in recent years. For that reason she used a curriculum project Tolerance for Diversity with her students. In one focus group, teachers in different schools said that they wanted students to understand the tension between individual and group rights.

The state social studies specialist and the law-related education (LRE) network coordinator in one state reported that their state’s social studies framework was infused with LRE goals. That is, in every social studies course, at every grade level there was at least one objective stating that students were expected to learn about some legal concept or process that would enhance their understanding of democratic institutions.

Summary. Although there is considerable variation from one school district to the next, it appears as if the majority of districts in about 20 or 40% of the states teach civics, citizenship, or government to students in the 8th or 9th grades, respectively. In addition, most students seem

to be taught about political concepts and governmental issues often in 5th, 8th and 11th grade United States history classes or in 12th grade government courses. Topics emphasized seem to be representative democracy, the structure and functions of three branches of the federal government, the Constitution and Bill of Rights, and their historic antecedents. At age 14, students seem to be more aware of rights than responsibilities of citizens in the United States.

h. If the textbooks used in public schools in the grades which include the majority of 11- to 15-year-olds address the domain of democracy, institutions, rights, and responsibilities, how do they usually approach it in terms of content and method? If there are multiple approaches, please indicate the extent to which each is used. (Note: This requires some actual analysis of what is presented and emphasized regarding this topic domain in a relevant set of text materials).

Democracy is a central concept in United States civic education and, as a form of government, is addressed at the outset of each of the civics texts (For details on textbooks analyzed see Method and Appendix C, Table1). The concept of democracy (including direct democracy, representational democracy, and republicanism), is emphasized throughout each book. In general, the texts distinguish democracy as the form of government in which the citizens of the country rule directly (direct democracy) or elect representatives to rule for the citizenry (representative democracy). This second type of democracy is also described as a republic. In particular, Civics: Government and Citizenship defines democracy as “a system of government in which the people have the final power” (Fraenkel, Kane & Wolf, 1990, p. 5).

The United States history texts follow the development of democracy from English precedent through colonization to the Revolutionary and Civil Wars and Reconstruction to the present. According to the texts, the colonists left Great Britain and settled in North America as part of the search for a democratic society that offers personal liberties. The texts detail the lack of religious freedom in Europe as the primary reason for immigration to North America. The American Revolution is described in the three history textbooks as the fight for independence from Great Britain in order to obtain personal liberties and power.

The civics texts offer a substantial amount of information on the structures and functions of the national, state, and local levels of government; the content and topic sequencing are quite similar throughout the books. Each textbook describes how the Constitution of the United States divides the federal government into three branches, and details the functions of each branch. First, the texts present extensive information about the organization and structure of Congress,

and detail “how a bill becomes a law.” Second, all three texts convey information about the executive branch. The various roles of the president (e.g., commander-in-chief, chief executive officer, chief diplomat) are described and structure of the executive departments and cabinet is diagrammed. Third, the organization of the federal court system is described, with a special emphasis on the United States Supreme Court. In all three texts, the discussion of federal government precedes the study of state and local government. The sequencing of the discussion of state and local government mirrors that of the federal government: legislative, executive, and judicial branches and responsibilities. Across the three levels of government, the texts describe how to elect officials into office, how laws and regulations are established, how individuals and groups participate in politics, how each branch of government checks the other governmental bodies and who is eligible for governmental leadership. Conversely, there is little discussion (with the exception of Andrew Johnson and Richard Nixon) of what would precipitate an impeachment or how to remove an official from office.

In the United States history texts, democracy is defined through the structure of the government as outlined in the Declaration of Independence, the United States Constitution, and the Bill of Rights. Similar to the civics texts, each United States history text describes federalism in detail through examination of the legislative, executive, and judicial branches of the government. America: The People and the Dream and The Story of America describe and diagram “how a bill becomes a law.” Further, America: The People and the Dream describes the standing committees of Congress while The Story of America includes textual discussion and a table of the cabinet and executive departments.

Across the texts, democracy is contrasted with dictatorships, communism, socialism, absolute monarchies and totalitarianism. The civics textbooks often present democracy and communism/dictatorships as polar opposites. For example, following a discussion of dictatorships, Civics: Government and Citizenship states:

Democracies are quite different from dictatorships. In a democracy the final

authority rests with the people. Government is run with the people's consent. The United States is an example of a democracy. (Fraenkel, Kane & Wolf, 1990, p. 5)

American Civics lists several communist countries and the conflicts the United States government encountered with those nations. Civics for Americans states that:

Under communism the government would own everything while in democracy, individuals are free to own property and seek their own fortunes. Under communism, the individual has much less freedom. (Patrick & Remy, 1991, p. 486)

The United States history texts also contrast democracy and communism, though through a discussion of major conflicts. The texts detail political and economic events leading to both World Wars, the Korean Conflict, the Cold War, and the Vietnam War. All of these events are interwoven with information about the relationship between the United States and the Soviet Union, China and Korea, and the political leaders of the particular period. For example, America: The People and the Dream details "hot spots" around the globe that involved American and Soviet troops, such as North and South Korea (Divine, Breen, Frederickson, & Williams, 1994, p. 512). History of the United States states that a "fear of communism in the United States led to an anti-Communist crusade" (Mason, Jacobs, & Ludlum, 1992, p. 566). The Story of America lists the countries that supported and opposed the United States during the Cold War.

In the "language of democracy" in United States civics and history textbooks, individual and group rights play a prominent role. Appendix C, Table 2 presents the rights most frequently mentioned in the textbooks. Excluding general references to "rights," the civil and political rights enumerated in the United States Bill of Rights clearly frame the textbooks' discussion of

rights in a democracy. From the textbooks analyzed, students would likely learn that the right to vote is among United States citizens' most cherished rights. In comparison to rights, general references to the citizen's responsibilities and duties are much less frequent (see Appendix C, Table 3). Consistent with the strong sense of individualism inherent in American culture, the "language of democracy" in the textbooks appears to celebrate our individual civil and political rights.

As shown in Appendix C, Table 4, students are likely to learn about the two major political parties in the United States--the Democratic and Republican Parties--as well as their historical forerunners. Each textbook mentions minor political parties, such as the Socialist Party and the American Independent Party. None of the texts, however, discuss the advantages or disadvantages of the two-party system.

Summary. From examining selected textbooks, the United States Constitution is clearly the core document in the study of United States history and politics. Three documents--the United States Constitution, the Declaration of Independence, and the Bill of Rights--form the foundation of our democracy according to the textbooks. Individual rights and freedoms are celebrated, both as the driving force behind the founding of the country, and as an enduring hallmark of a democratic life. Responsibilities and duties, on the other hand, play a less significant role in the young person's civic education-- at least as it is presented in textbooks.

Further, the structures and functions of United States government are detailed in each of the texts. Across the texts, we found diagrams of the three branches of government, as well as "how a bill becomes a law."

i. What kind of activities during the class period and what kind of assignments to students would be most likely to be found in the grades for 11- to 15-year-olds dealing with the topic of democracy, institutions, rights, and responsibilities? Please illustrate with concrete examples and discuss any likely variation between schools. Include a discussion of the role of classroom discussion of student opinions and the role of group or individual project work by students. Also include a discussion of any gaps between idealized statements about democracy, identity, or diversity and the realities of students' experience in classrooms.

In the Review of Literature for this project, we reported that much social studies class time in the United States tends to be dominated by teacher talk and student recitation related to coverage of textbook content. Additionally, elementary students are often asked to complete worksheets. Teachers in some classes, however, provide more variety when they have students conduct research, participate in simulations, and present projects to their classmates. In collecting data for Phase I of the IEA civic education study, we focused on instructional activities for the oldest students in the age group 11 to 15 by interviewing groups of students in the 8th and 9th grades and teachers of 8th- and 9th-grade civics and history classes.

Additionally, the history education scholar we interviewed shared some information she had gathered from students in grades 5 and 8. Although she found little attention to current events in the classes she observed, one teacher did ask her 8th graders to “prove that one of the ten amendments applies today.” The students presented their “evidence” in a variety of forms—as an art project, a cartoon, a play, or a video presentation.

Although some students in our focus groups reported that in their classes they “mostly read out of the book” and did not do activities, the majority of students we interviewed mentioned a few activities, such as simulations and projects, that they had done in their classes to learn about democracy and political institutions. Students from one 8th-grade United States history class stood out as the exception when they described many experiential activities planned by their teacher.

Eighth-grade students taking state history at one school reported keeping notebooks about their state government and its different branches. Students at another school reported that in their 8th-grade class they had been given the assignment of designing a government and writing laws for a group of people living on an island. They said most of their classmates wrote about democracy "because for most people, it seems the best way of government." Other students reported that they learned that bad as well as good things have been associated with American democracy. As an example, these students said that their 9th-grade United States history teacher had read them a primary source document related to reform efforts for food regulation. The students said that they learned from the document that poor people died because political leaders of the time had not enforced laws.

Students in several classes had participated in debates where "you get to see both sides on issues and then make a choice." A frequently mentioned instructional activity in several of our focus groups was the use of simulations. Students in different schools had participated in simulations of the Constitutional Convention, Congress, and state legislatures. Additionally, at one school, the students told us that some classes visited the state capitol.

All of the students we interviewed reported participating in classroom or school mock elections at the time of the 1996 presidential election. Some students took the roles of candidates and gave speeches, others registered fellow students to vote, or worked at the school polls. In other schools, the students said they just voted in their classes and waited to hear the results in the daily announcements over the school intercom.

The range of activities that students in different classes were exposed to is illustrated by two examples. In the class that regularly used experiential activities, the teacher told the students to imagine it was the year 2000, there was high inflation, people felt a sense of hurt pride because the states of Texas and California had been given to Mexico, and there were many political parties vying for votes. In this imaginary scenario, one presidential candidate promised to restore national pride and solve the nation's problems. When the students were then given the opportunity to vote in the imaginary presidential election, most of the students voted for the

candidate who made such promises. The teacher used this experience to show how a person, such as Hitler, could come to power in a democracy. Upon hearing one student describe this activity in the focus group, another young woman said of her class, "we don't get to do much of that because everybody wouldn't participate or wouldn't have read the material. Or they would do things to make it not work. There are lots of people who just wouldn't participate" (S-2, p.10).

The teachers we interviewed reported using a variety of activities to teach about democracy, political institutions, and the rights and responsibilities of citizens. Teachers mentioned debates (should voting be mandatory?), essays (on compromises made at the Constitutional Convention), position papers (on first Amendment issues), and book reports (Gideon's Trumpet). One teacher used books such as Animal Farm, and Ayn Rand's Anthem for class discussion, and another teacher reported showing films (Gideon's Trumpet, and Skokie).

Several teachers mentioned particular instructional activities they used to foster the development of higher order thinking or particular attitudes. For example, one teacher mentioned using positive/negative (cost/benefit) charts to facilitate student analysis of issues. Another teacher reported using a curriculum project, Tolerance of Diversity, to develop civic tolerance in students. One teacher had his advanced 9th-grade students write short research papers on controversial topics of their choosing, such as gun control, free speech issues, and immigration policies. Another teacher had her middle school students work in groups to do research on the little known political parties, as well as the two major ones, and to present their findings in the form of an "infomercial" (television announcement). Her students obtained information by using the Internet and writing letters to the various party headquarters. A teacher in an urban middle school used the election as the basis of many activities, in the hopes of developing sufficient excitement among the students that they would encourage their parents to vote.

The teachers in our focus groups reported using current events in a variety of ways. One teacher in an urban school handed out photocopies of a newspaper article for students to copy, while another teacher in the same school used a recently passed city ordinance to stimulate

students to reflect upon the civil rights of the homeless. Other teachers had students keep a notebook of current events, which would later be used as "fodder" for discussion, and one teacher had students discuss constitutional issues that were raised in the "letters to the editor" section of newspapers.

The instructional activity mentioned most frequently by teachers as well as students was the use of role play or simulation. The teachers described simulations of life under the Articles of Confederation, the Constitutional Convention, the legislative process in Congress, presidential elections, and the justices of the Supreme Court arriving at decisions in landmark cases.

Two teachers in one metropolitan area represented the range of activities that were employed to teach about democracy, government, and political and legal institutions. One 8th-grade teacher said that she began each unit in her civics course with an experiential activity, such as leaving the class unsupervised for a period, after which she introduced the question, can people be trusted to govern themselves? On another day she told the students they would have to pay for the paper used for tests. Student complaints about the policy led into a discussion of "taxation without representation." In contrast, a teacher at a large urban high school explained:

Although they want us to be more creative, we do the traditional things--the lecture. We answer questions in the text, what it means and how it relates to the Constitution. We show films, assign essays, book reports...We've got to do whatever we can to get them to read the textbook, and answering questions is one way to guarantee that we can have a conversation about what they've read. It's a guarantee that it's been read...The students are not reading it [the textbook] at home, so we end up having to do it in the classroom, which none of us like. Number one, we'd rather be doing other things and number two, our students are falling behind. If somebody else's students are reading at home and then doing stuff in the classroom, they're getting more than ours are. But we got to deal with the cards that we're dealt. (T-3, p. 9)

Interestingly, three middle school teachers in different urban schools with largely African-American populations commented that it was difficult to teach about democracy and

speaking one's opinion when the ethos of the school worked against that. They said that although they tried to encourage their students to speak, they knew that in many of their colleagues' classes students were told to be quiet, listen, and take notes or do seat work quietly. Furthermore, these teachers told us that the students in their middle schools had to be quiet in the halls and the lunch room, where a "quiet lunch" policy was enforced (T-2). A teacher in another part of the country also expressed concern that when she taught in one urban school, "there was no sense of responsibility put on the kids other than to be in class and to be on time. What the administrators in our building were most concerned about was order, and the last thing they wanted was for kids to speak out on issues" (T-5, p. 34).

In contrast, two other teachers in different parts of the country described activities in which they took their students out of the classroom to experience positive aspects of "real world" democracy. Students in one class went to the polls to interview people after they voted. Additionally, the students chose from a variety of options such as working for a campaign or hosting a candidate as a guest speaker in the class. In one Minnesota middle school, each year students did a project to connect them to governmental institutions. For example, before they could paint warning signs on storm drains, they had to obtain permits from the appropriate authorities.

The political socialization researcher and director of a statewide citizen education program we interviewed reported that service learning activities that extended topics of study in the classroom seemed to enhance learning in this domain. Further, she argued that students would be more interested in learning in this domain if their instruction was issue oriented, where they explored issues such as local zoning debates, the tax exempt status of churches involved in politics, or issues debated by candidates in local elections.

The state social studies coordinator we interviewed reported that because there was pressure to avoid controversial issues, classroom practice did not reflect the ideal of democratic inquiry. He explained,

I think it's worse now than it's ever been ... I did a series of workshops around the state

and I would mention that if we want to teach kids to think and to be humane, rational, participatory citizens in a democratic society, that we needed to deal with controversial issues in the classroom... The teachers would go ballistic! 'I can't talk about that [a controversial foreign policy] in my school! I'd be called into the principal's office!' (E-1, p.9).

On the other hand, civic goals in that state were promoted through other less controversial activities such as a statewide mock election and a state Civics Day, which schools observed with a variety of activities.

Summary. It appears from our interviews and from other recent studies of American social studies classes (Hahn, 1991; Hahn, 1998) that there is a wide range from one class to the next and from one school to the next in terms of the breadth of instructional activities that students experience. Some teachers use little variety; others much. Most students seem to be in classes that fall between the two extremes, with frequent teacher talk and student recitation related to the textbook, and periodically, a simulation, written project, or discussion of a current issue. A few teachers use many diverse experiences both in and out of school to engage their pupils in learning about democracy, governmental institutions, and the rights and responsibilities of citizens.

These themes are further supported in one study using a nationally representative sample of students the same age as those that are the focus of the IEA study. In the 1988 national assessment of civics, 90% of the 8th graders reported reading material from the textbook; 83% said they discussed the material they read; 71% reported writing short answers to a question; and 69% said they took a daily or weekly test (National Assessment, 1990). Another 27-28% said they wrote a report of three or more pages and worked on group projects on a monthly basis. Among the 1988 sample of 8th graders, 68% said they discussed current events daily or weekly, with another 18% saying they did so monthly.

Although some teachers working in urban schools use a variety of instructional activities as was evident in Harwood's (1991) study of three civics classes, listening to students and

teachers from different schools in our focus groups, we are led to the hypothesis that many students in urban schools with a majority of their student body from lower socio economic levels may experience less varied instructional activities and less democratic school environments than do students in schools in middle-class suburban communities because of a greater concern for basic skill development and control of student behavior in the urban schools. Consequently, students in these various school types, as well as students in different classes in the same school, may be receiving very different messages about democracy and the rights and responsibilities of citizens.

j. Does the public school have examinations or other formal assessments which address in a substantial way what 11- to 15-year-olds have learned with respect to the topic domain of democracy, institutions, rights, and responsibilities? If so, please summarize the type of examinations, the age of students when they take these assessments, what aspects of the topic are most emphasized, and what regional or other variations exist?

There is no national examination that all students take which measures their knowledge in this or any other domain. However, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) does assess the knowledge of students in a representative sample of schools in the country. Knowledge of democracy, political institutions, and the rights and obligations of citizenship have been assessed by NAEP over the years in assessments with varying titles--citizenship (1969-1970), social studies (1971-1972, 1975-1976), citizenship and social studies (1981-1982), and civics: United States government and politics (1988). In the 1988 assessment, 61% of the students reached a level of proficiency that was characterized by a knowledge of the nature of political institutions and the relationship between citizen and government (National Assessment, 1990). Fewer than 13% of the 8th graders reached a level of proficiency indicating they understood specific government structures and functions. Males, White students, and students in advantaged urban communities, those whose parents had the most education, and those with the most instruction achieved higher levels of proficiency than Blacks or Hispanics, females, students living in disadvantaged urban communities, those whose parents had less education, and those with fewer courses in social studies, civics, or government.

From our state survey of social studies, we learned that 25 states require a statewide assessment of social studies knowledge, which is likely to include some attention to this domain; 21 states do not (there was no response from four states). Fifteen states administer their assessment to 8th graders, 11 administer it to 11th graders, and 9 administer it to 10th graders. No more than four states administer their test at any other single grade level. Although a few states use a standardized test, such as the California Test of Basic Skills (CTBS) or the Iowa Test

of Basic Skills (ITBS), most have developed their own state competency tests or are in the process of doing so. We were not able to look at particular state tests to determine exactly what knowledge and skills they examine related to this domain. The state coordinator we interviewed said that in his state on the ITBS there were questions related to civics and on the high school graduation test, a sub-score for civics was reported.

When we asked the state coordinators what upcoming changes were likely to significantly impact how social studies is taught in grades 6-12 in their state, more than half of the respondents mentioned the development of new state standards and corresponding assessments. It is noteworthy that 75% of those who responded said that required state and/or district assessments that were already in place had a moderate or very significant influence on social studies in their state. Sometimes it is the inclusion of social studies that drives the curriculum in this area. Other times it is the exclusion of social studies from testing programs which results in diminished attention to it. Indeed, 46% of respondents said that exclusion from state testing was a moderate or very significant obstacle to effective social studies instruction in grades 6 to 12. Others commented that it was an even greater factor in the elementary grades, when tests focused on reading/language arts and mathematics, and excluded social studies.

Most assessment of student knowledge in the democracy, institutions, and citizenship domain, as in the others in the civic arena, is done by individual teachers throughout the school year. Students and teachers in our focus groups reported that the most prevalent form of assessment was a test given at the end of each unit or textbook chapter. Some teachers reported using or adapting tests provided by the textbook publishers. Students and teachers said that items on tests tended to be of the multiple choice, matching, or "fill in the blank" variety with a single correct answer. Some teachers added a few essay questions, sometimes asking students to express their opinions and support them with evidence. One teacher mentioned giving students "rubrics" ahead of time to point out the criteria used to evaluate the essays. One junior high school teacher who said she used a variety of methods to assess student learning emphasized, "I would be doing my kids a disservice if I don't teach them how to take an objective test because

they do that in high school and college" (T-4, p10). Objective tests often evaluate student knowledge of the structure of government, historical "facts" related to political institutions, and vocabulary.

Quizzes, homework or daily work, and class participation were also cited frequently by students and teachers in our focus groups as ways in which teachers assess student knowledge. Several mentioned that students were also given grades on their notebooks, position papers, research papers, and projects of various kinds done for the class.

Teachers in one urban school explained, "we have to gear our teaching methods to the student body we have, which doesn't test well" (T-3, p. 11). One civics teacher in that school said he gave participation grades for students answering comprehension questions about paragraphs in the textbook, using "the seven horsemen" (who, what, when, where, why, how, and if); another teacher gave participation grades to his students for bringing book, paper, and pen to class. A third teacher in that school explained that it was difficult to place too much emphasis on student comments "because some who know the answers won't say anything for fear of ridicule from others."

A teacher in a school with a large immigrant population also said that class participation posed a problem for him. "The problem we would have with oral participation is usually half my kids don't speak English; so usually not necessarily class participation, but interest and effort are most important." For that reason he weighed class participation only 10% of the students' course grade; a research paper, another 10%, and the remaining 80% would be divided among test, notebooks, and daily work (T-1, p.11). Teachers in other schools, however, said that they continuously assessed student understanding by listening to what students said in recitation and discussion sessions. As one teacher explained, "you can get a good idea of how much they understand or don't understand by the questions that they ask or comments they make" (T-1, p. 10).

Some schools were using what is called "authentic assessment," asking students to demonstrate their knowledge in ways they might use it in the future. One teacher said she

assessed learning by how students applied what they had read in discussions. Another had students write letters to the editor of the local newspaper to see if they could "articulate their opinion on a policy." Other teachers said they were trying to give students opportunities to represent their knowledge in a variety of ways consistent with the popular movement based on a theory of "multiple intelligence." In one class students were encouraged to present newly acquired knowledge in diverse ways, such as through a skit or some other form teaching the subject to their classmates. As one student in a focus group explained, "so we'd go through and teach other people about the subject, and then the teacher sees that you can teach someone else, then you obviously know it" (S-4, p.37).

Summary. The one national assessment of student knowledge in this domain--NAEP--uses a representative sample of students from which to extrapolate generalizations about the effectiveness of schools. Few students, however, ever participate in such a national "examination." Rather, they are more likely to be exposed to a state competency test, district wide assessments, and teacher made tests. Whether on large scale state competency tests or chapter tests given by individual teachers, students seem to be most frequently assessed for their knowledge of "facts," such as vocabulary used in the Constitution, historical events in the nation's political history, and procedures citizens must follow in particular situations. Some teachers and schools also use assessment to teach and to measure skills needed in democratic discourse and citizen participation. However, this may occur less frequently in urban schools, schools with many immigrant students, or in schools with students from lower socio-economic backgrounds where there is an emphasis on basic skill development than in suburban middle class schools.

k. What common extracurricular activities, ceremonies, or other occasions inside the public schools give 11- to 15-year-olds the opportunity to learn more about or gain experience relating to the topic of democracy, institutions, rights, and responsibilities. Please summarize the nature of these activities, ceremonies, or occasions, how they relate to the domain of the Core International Framing Question (e.g. democracy, institutions, rights, and responsibilities), what students are expected to gain from them, and what proportion of 14- to 15-year-olds are likely to have these experiences.

School-sponsored extracurricular activities, as well as the family and media, were seen by students in our focus groups as contributing somewhat to their views on democracy. Students in all of our focus groups mentioned the student councils at their schools, although they had differing views about them. One Texas student said,

From student council we learned that everybody has a say...the whole school votes for you and then the people who are in student council are like the House of Representatives. We make the choices for the school. The kids in school voted on us and then we vote on things and then the president of the student council will say whether she likes it or not (S-3, p.28).

A Georgia student, however, dismissed student council elections as "just a popularity contest." Several students reported that candidates running for office in their school elections made posters and gave speeches during the campaign period.

Only a few teachers mentioned student government as contributing to students' knowledge of democracy, institutions, and rights and responsibilities of citizens. One teacher said that her urban middle school went through the motions, but often ideas that the council raised were ignored or stalled by the administration. Another teacher at a large Midwestern high school noted that the middle-class students on the student council passed a new dress code that alienated the minority students who came from across town. The peer mediation program was then used to resolve the conflict.

Several school-sponsored activities in addition to student councils relate particularly to teaching and learning about democracy, institutions, and the rights and responsibilities of citizens. In states such as Minnesota and Massachusetts, students take over the state government for a day, and in Washington state students attend a "Lobby Day" where they are taught how to lobby and are given time to speak to legislators. In many states, a few students act as pages when their state legislature is in session. Additionally, across the country, many schools send groups of students on the Close Up or other programs to observe government in action in Washington D.C.

The coordinator of a state high school mock trial program, supported by the Young Lawyers Section of the State Bar Association explained,

We're trying to develop people who are going to understand the [judicial] system and be empowered by the knowledge to participate... Most citizens will have an opportunity sometime for jury service. If we can help them understand the system better, then when they get into that supreme position of responsibility, then hopefully, they'll understand what's going on. (E-2, p.3)

Mock trial teams usually meet after school. Law and other teachers, as well as local attorneys coach them in preparation for state and national competitions where judges and attorneys preside. In the coordinator's state there is also a moot court program enabling individuals to compete in the writing of briefs and presenting of arguments at the Appeals stage, and they were piloting new programs for art and journalism students to compete as court artists and reporters during the mock trial competition. There was also a Summer Law Camp for students.

In recent years, the "service learning" movement has stimulated elementary, middle, and high schools, as well as colleges and universities to provide opportunities for students to engage in volunteer activities in their communities. Such programs are designed to teach students that citizen rights and responsibilities are associated with promoting the general welfare.

Interestingly, several of the teachers in our focus groups did not think that students learned about democracy, government, or citizenship through extracurricular activities, such as

sports, music, drama, and clubs. A teacher who was also a coach, however, emphasized that students learn the most about citizenship in sports, "about democracy, responsibility, duty, about right and wrong, about everything." Similarly, several students linked extra-curricular activities to learning about democracy. One young man noted that the band votes for a president and vice-president based on who is most "into" band. Another student linked soccer to learning about democracy, "on my soccer team, the people who work hard are the people who get ahead. It's not just about money. People who work hard are the people who get ahead."

In middle schools in one district in Georgia, teachers elected a "Citizen of the Month." In one Washington middle school, students were given a grade for citizenship. One teacher explained,

If you were quiet and didn't bother anybody, you got an A. We've tried to change that now so that the criteria is that you do that plus you participate, you make a better environment for other people, or you reach out and do something in an active way to change and make this a better place (T-4, p. 6).

In middle schools in one urban school district, there were programs for students in conflict resolution and peer mediation. A teacher who led some of those classes explained that as students learned to resolve conflicts nonviolently, they became empowered to realize they could make a difference. She also described the service learning program at her school, where student volunteers working in nursing homes, with the Food Bank, and in homeless shelters were learning important lessons in citizenship. Another program at her school provided teacher mentors for students who were discipline problems. A goal of the program was to teach the students to be more responsible citizens.

A Washington state teacher reported that the local Kiwanis club sponsored a youth group at her school. It was service oriented "to teach responsibility, taking care of the community, and that's part of being a citizen."

Summary. Although it appears that most schools offer some extracurricular activities

from which students might learn about democracy, democratic institutions and processes, and the rights and responsibilities of citizens, it is not clear what proportion of students in the country actually participate in such activities. Such data could be obtained from a survey of a nationally representative sample of students in Phase II of the IEA Civic Education Study. Moreover, researchers have compiled limited evidence on the effects of service learning on student learning (Newmann & Rutter, 1986; Wade & Saxe, 1996). It should be noted that some researchers cited in our Review of Literature concluded that participation in extracurricular activities correlates with student knowledge of government structure and functioning (Niemi & Junn, 1998) and tends to correlate with adult political participation, particularly for women (Damico, Damico, & Conway, 1998). However, it may be that students who are more politically interested to begin with are those who voluntarily join such activities (Eyler, 1982).

1. What common activities, ceremonies, or other occasions outside school give 14 -to 15-year-olds (including any early school leavers) opportunities to learn more about or gain experience relating to the topic of democracy, institutions, rights, and responsibilities (e.g. youth organizations public ceremonies organized by national or subnational groups, museum exhibitions, religious ceremonies or education). Please summarize the nature of these activities, ceremonies, or occasions and what students are expected to gain from them.

There are opportunities in the United States for 14- to 15-year-olds to learn about this domain from youth organizations, such as Scouts and Boys and Girls Clubs, and from public ceremonies, such as those associated with some holidays and sports events. There are also museum exhibitions, religious ceremonies, and historic sites that teach about democracy and the citizen's role. One teacher in a focus group commented that students who held leadership positions in youth groups and organizations outside of school were learning valuable lessons related to citizenship. Another teacher noted that some students do volunteer work with their families and out-of-school groups.

However, out-of-school organizations and programs were not mentioned by the particular students in our focus groups as having been influential in their learning about democracy. Rather, the students we interviewed cited families as the most important out-of-school influence on their views of democracy and citizenship.

Several students in our focus groups said that they tended to get their attitudes about candidates, political parties, and some issues from their parents. Others referred to general orientations they learned from their parents. "My parents give me ideas to think about to form my own opinions which is basically what a democracy should be. It's people forming their own opinion about what should be and what would keep the group in order and how it would help society" (S-1, p.34). A Texas student, living in an affluent suburb, however, thought that sometimes young people acquired negative messages about democracy in the family setting. He explained, "like the family votes on where they are going. The kids vote for New York and the

parents vote for Florida. It's democracy but the parents win. It's everywhere. There's always one person who wants the power, communism" (S-4).

Several teachers noted that parental influence varied. In a suburban school, one teacher heard reports of students talking with their parents about issues they had discussed in their civics class. Another said that when parents are active in the community, "the kids learn you can affect the community." Teachers we interviewed from urban schools did not mention families as a source of teaching about democracy, institutions, and citizenship. They did, however, cite out-of-school negative experiences that some students had with the police, which taught them about individual rights protected by the Constitution and about legal processes.

Summary. Many organizations provide opportunities for students to learn about democracy as evident on the annotated bibliography of organizations at the end of the Responses to 18 Framing Questions document. Yet individuals in our focus groups mentioned few such activities. It may be that only a small percentage of youth are involved in programs sponsored by out-of-school groups. Further, it may be that students tend not to associate out-of-school experiences with school topics such as democracy and government.

m. What training (pre-service and in-service) are teachers for this age group likely to have received in the content of the topic of democracy, institutions, rights, and responsibilities and in methods for dealing with it in class? Are certain aspects of the topic more likely to have been dealt with than other aspects? Have teachers been trained in using strategies such as discussion of student opinions (in the whole class or small groups) or project work relating to this content? Are teachers who lack any formal training related to this topic likely to be assigned to teach about it? Are teachers likely to be influenced in what or how they teach about this topic by standards expressed in the curriculum, or by tests students must take, or by the opinions of parents, or by explicit or implicit national goals?

Elementary and middle school teachers holding elementary teaching certificates often have had only one college level course in United States government that would have given them background to teach about democracy, political institutions, and rights and responsibilities of citizens. Teachers with a secondary teaching certificate who are teaching students in grades 7 through 9 are likely to have had a college major or minor in history, for which they took courses that included information about the political history of the United States. More secondary social studies teachers are likely to have majored or minored in history than in political science or other social sciences. Regardless of their major subject, it would be unusual for a teacher assigned to teach social studies to 14- to 15-year-olds in the United States not to have had at least one course in government.

Most of the 8th- and 9th-grade teachers in our focus groups reported that they had majored in history in college and had taken a few political science courses. One majored in political science and one in education, taking a breadth of social science courses including several in history and political science. However, none of the teachers cited their academic background as their major preparation for teaching about democracy, political institutions, and the rights and responsibilities of citizens. Rather, most mentioned their own interests and personal experiences as key factors. For example, one teacher said that because she was

personally interested in history and politics she read books on history and politics and newspapers for fun, and it was the knowledge she thus acquired on her own that was most useful to her. Another said, "I think we are self taught. I think a lot of times we end up having to teach certain things and then we have to teach ourselves first" (T-4, p. 14).

Several teachers in our focus groups mentioned that their own interest in politics had led them to be participants in student government when they were in school and/or in political campaigns as adults. One Washington state teacher explained that "being in leadership positions when we were younger, like in a youth group of some kind gives you a better feeling for democratic procedure on a smaller, micro scale" (T-4, p. 14). One African American woman had been a page in the state legislature when she was a student, later worked on a gubernatorial campaign, and for years worked as a voter registrar. An African American man reported years of activity in city politics and consumer affairs, as well as in the Civil Rights struggle. From that experience he said, "I've been very much involved in the Constitution. Although it's not perfect, it was what we used at the time to make gains, to break down the segregated structures in America" (T-3, p.14).

Traveling overseas had been important to several teachers in our focus groups. One said that travel had helped to broaden her ideas of democracy, communism, and socialism. Another reported that she learned more when she tried to explain the American political system to people she met abroad. Similarly, a teacher, who had done volunteer work with school drop outs whose parents were migrant workers, said that she learned as she taught the young people in that program about how the system functioned.

Several male teachers in our focus groups cited their experiences in the military as influencing what and how they taught about democracy and the responsibilities of citizens. One Minnesota teacher thought that he drew primarily on what he learned from his ten years of experience in business. He also commented that possibly his experiences burning flags in the late 1960s and early '70s may have contributed to his belief that students should draw information from different places and take their stand, "they have the right to their position."

With regard to teaching methods, as opposed to content, most teachers of students aged 11-15 in the United States will have had at least one course in social studies instructional methods for their certification at the elementary, middle, or secondary school levels. In such courses, pre-service teachers are usually taught how to use a variety of strategies, such as discussion, project work, and recently, cooperative learning, to teach about this domain as well as others in social studies. Only one teacher in our focus groups specifically mentioned his social studies methods classes as being helpful. He recalled that almost 30 years earlier when he took the class,

They taught us to be process-oriented, so although the content of what I learned in the university didn't help me much, I always thought that citizens should be able to analyze...critical analysis should be going into a citizen. To that extent, the university prepared me (T-5, p. 19).

Some social studies teachers participate in in-service workshops, such as those sponsored by law-related education programs, the Center for Civic Education, the Constitutional Rights Foundation, the Taft Institute, or local universities and school systems. A teacher in one of our focus groups spoke with enthusiasm about having recently taken a summer institute at Indiana University on the Center for Civic Education's We The People program. Other teachers mentioned that they had attended in-service programs on general topics such as critical thinking from which they got ideas that they were able to apply to the teaching of civics as well as other subjects.

Although it is possible that some teachers are influenced in what and how they teach about democracy and political institutions by local or state curriculum guides, the opinions of parents, or in some cases state competency tests, we found little evidence of those direct influences in the comments made by teachers in our focus groups. Further, with time the new national standards may have an indirect influence on what is taught about democracy, political institutions, and citizen rights and responsibilities, if textbooks and accompanying tests, local curriculum guides, and in-service training come to reflect the emphases of the standards

documents. In our focus groups, only one teacher specifically mentioned the National Standards for Civics and Government or the National Council for the Social Studies' Curriculum Standards for Social Studies, both of which have recommendations related to this domain.

Parent opinion seems to have an influence on some teachers in some districts. A few teachers in our focus groups indicated they might tend to avoid, or more often delicately handle, controversial issues that they thought could lead to parental complaints. Focus group teachers in urban schools appeared to worry less about this than those in suburban communities.

Summary. Most social studies teachers had a few courses in their university preparation related to both the content and processes of teaching about democracy, political institutions, and rights and responsibilities of citizens. However, the teachers that we interviewed seemed to feel that such formal preparation was less useful to them in teaching about this domain than had been their own personal experiences in the political arena. They did not express a wish to have had more relevant content or methods in their pre-service preparation; rather they expected to be learning on their own as they taught. The one teacher who participated in a recent in-service program directly related to teaching about civics and government described it positively. A national survey of a representative sample of teachers is needed to ascertain how many have experienced such programs directly related to teaching in this domain. Similarly, a national survey of students and teachers might ascertain if there are correlations between teacher academic or experiential preparation and student learning.

n. To what extent are 11- to 15-year-olds likely to be active consumers of material presented by the media (television, radio, newspapers, electronic communication networks) with regard to the topic of democracy, institutions, rights, and responsibilities? What information and attitudes are they likely to find in those sources that would be especially pertinent to the various aspects of the topic of democracy, institutions, rights, and responsibilities?

The examples cited by teachers and students point to the media having little influence on students' perceptions of democracy, political institutions, and citizens' rights and responsibilities. But that is not the conclusion drawn by the political socialization researcher we interviewed. Because she is convinced that television is such an important influence on young people directly and indirectly as it influences their peers, families, teachers, and church groups which in turn influence the students, the researcher explained that she has changed her focus in citizen education to understanding the effects of the mass media. She emphasized,

From television you don't get the depth people used to get from newspapers. You get a sound byte treatment of news that can contribute to the kind of cynicism you see about government. I think it contributes to the feeling that the government is "they" and the people are "we." (E-4 p.2)

Further, she argued that just as television advertising influences children's behavior, it is probably equally powerful in shaping perceptions of society and democracy. She noted positive potential in the use of C-SPAN, which she thought was currently underutilized by teachers and she suggested helping students to understand the entertainment goals of talk radio and local television news. Additionally, in other interviews the state coordinators of law-related education and mock trial programs noted that students knew more about the court system following the widely seen O.J. Simpson trial than they had before.

The media were named by several students in our focus groups as providing information about candidates during election periods. One group of 9th-grade students in an affluent suburb got into a lengthy debate about the power of the press and its relationship to government. "They

control us...we were born in democracy and we think it's good...but we're actually puppets...we base our thoughts on the media..they give us boundaries of where we go." Some of the students in the group argued vehemently that the government really controlled the press and others argued equally strongly that the media criticized the government.

In another focus group, which occurred during the 1996 presidential campaign, several students reported that they had experienced the situation where "the President will come on all the local news stations and block out all sitcoms and talk to us about politics." The student who made the quoted statement continued, "That has some influence, I guess, if you watched it."

In a group of Hispanic students, the discussion of the media focused on the 1996 presidential campaign debates, which the students had watched at school. These students were for Clinton and against Dole. Comments included, "Dole is like mama's little boy. He's not normal, like all for rich people; and Clinton's more like a normal person," and "I don't think I'm going to vote for Dole because I think Clinton's open to people. At least Democrats aren't racist." These students complained that Dole seemed very negative, "I think he (Dole) wants to put Clinton down so everybody will see the bad in him, but I think when it comes to voting day, people don't want somebody like that."

Several, but not all, teachers in the focus groups said they thought students learned much from television that was relevant to this domain. For example, teachers suggested that students shared jokes they heard on the David Letterman and Jay Leno shows about political leaders, they learned about the legal system from television shows focusing on the police and the courts, and after a day's absence from school they would mention what they heard on the talk shows.

Summary. Probably because students use the media primarily for entertainment purposes, they do not cite them as a major influence in their learning about politics and government--except during political campaigns. Teachers, however, think that students do pick up political messages from the media. And one researcher who has studied youth political socialization over many years believes that the media are a powerful influence. Moreover, analyses of the responses of a nationally representative sample of high school seniors to the 1988

Civics NAEP indicate that numbers of hours watching television weekly is inversely correlated with knowledge of government structures and functions. Watching television, however, does not seem to reduce knowledge about citizen rights; indeed it may enhance it (Niemi & Junn, 1998). Research beyond the scope of this project is needed to definitely answer this set of questions.

o. How much and in what ways do political parties attempt to influence what 11- to 15-year-olds think and do with regard to the topic of democracy, institutions, rights, and responsibilities?

In the United States there is a broad consensus that schools should teach about democracy and prepare students for their role as citizens in a democracy. Political parties do not attempt to influence directly what students learn about democracy and political institutions. Rather, there are many interest groups and professional and other organizations that do attempt to influence what is taught in social studies classes, some of which addresses this domain. For this reason, we decided, with the approval of the National Expert Panel, to answer this question in terms of interest groups, rather than political parties.

Various groups offer materials, give monetary support, sponsor contests, offer scholarships, and provide opportunities for teacher development. Schools and teachers have considerable freedom in responding to offers of materials, services, and support from groups. When hard pressed for funds and materials, they seem to be most likely to accept free and low cost materials. Some school districts have policies regarding the use of such materials; others do not.

Interest groups differ in their perspectives on how open schools are to their offers of materials and support, with some complaining their offers are not accepted while others complain that demands for their materials or other support are excessive or not properly utilized. Groups vary in the strategies they use, from providing speakers and information to lobbying state legislatures, school boards, or administrators to mandate that particular topics be taught.

Members of our National Expert Panel hypothesized that groups would differ in their views of how democracy, institutions and processes, and rights and responsibilities of citizens should be taught. In particular, panel members thought that patriotic groups might stress loyalty to "God and country," business groups might emphasize a connection between democracy and capitalism, law related groups might emphasize the rule of law, the role of the judiciary, and constitutional principles; environmental and ethnic groups might focus on participatory

democracy. With respect to institutions and processes, the panelists thought that civic and consumer interest groups might stress teaching about popular participation, business groups might emphasize that fiscal, monetary, and regulatory processes be taught, and ethnic groups might emphasize civil rights and social welfare issues. Similarly, the panel members hypothesized that groups would differ in the rights and responsibilities of citizens which they thought should receive particular attention. Religious groups might want students to learn about the "establishment" and "free exercise" rights expressed in the First Amendment; civil rights groups might want attention to the First and Fourteenth Amendments of the United States Constitution, as well as rights of aliens, those accused in criminal cases, and those who need a "safety net" of social and economic protection; consumer groups might be most interested in teaching about rights of workers and the consuming public, and business groups might be concerned with property rights and the costs of ensuring various rights.

Unfortunately, we were unable to obtain sufficient data to either support or reject those hypotheses. Individuals to whom we sent our organizational survey often said that they could not speak for their organization or that their organization did not have an explicit policy on the teaching of democracy, political institutions, and citizens' rights and responsibilities. Many were, however, willing to share information on the kinds of services they provided to schools. Moreover, despite several follow-up letters and telephone calls many did not return our survey. Consequently, to develop an annotated bibliography of groups that are active in civic education, we relied on descriptive brochures about programs that were available at state and national social studies conferences, from descriptions in the Encyclopedia of Associations, and from descriptions on organizations' web pages on the Internet. (See Annotated Bibliography of Organizations that is a part of the document Responses to 18 Framing Questions).

Additionally, eight of the state social studies coordinators reported that groups that had been particularly active in their state with regard to this domain were the state bar association and/or statewide law-related education groups. Other groups that were active in this domain and that were named by two state coordinators each were the Center for Civic Education and the

Eagle Forum. Named by one coordinator each were: The American Legion, the American Civil Liberties Union, the Christian Coalition, First Liberty (religious rights), the League of Women Voters, the state Attorney General's Office, the Presidential Trust, and the state political science organization. The state affiliate of the National Council for the Social Studies was named by 13 respondents to the state survey as being active in terms of social studies in general.

The coordinator of the law related education (LRE) consortium in one state explained that the purpose of their programs was to help young people “understand their rights and responsibilities and to understand that there are benefits to being a law abiding citizen.” In her state the LRE consortium publishes a newsletter, holds an annual conference for educators, conducts different workshops for experienced and beginning LRE teachers, sponsors a Youth Summit for high school students, and sponsors a poster contest for elementary and middle school students. Teachers are encouraged to use community resource people such as judges, lawyers, police officers, social service workers, and juvenile court workers. In this particular state, as in many others, LRE programs are primarily funded by the state bar foundation. National organizations working in the LRE area receive funding for some programs from the U.S. Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency, according to the state coordinator.

The political socialization researcher who we interviewed felt that although the law-related education network and the Center for Civic Education have both championed education for citizenship, there still is not a significantly strong advocate in this area. She noted that the National Council on Economic Education and the Geography Alliance had been effective advocates for their disciplines and have built strong state networks that reach many teachers. It is her hope that the American Political Science Association’s new Task Force on Civic Education for the Next Century might become such a force for teaching about democracy, political institutions, and citizens’ rights and responsibilities.

Summary. Although political parties do not normally try to influence civic education in the schools, many interest groups do. These groups vary considerably in their roles vis a vis civic education-- from providing materials and conducting teacher in-service workshops to

influencing state policies that relate to teaching about democracy, political institutions, and citizens' rights and responsibilities. The Annotated Bibliography of Organizations, which is part of the Responses to 18 Framing Questions document of this project, lists the kinds of activities in which various groups engage.

p. What are the most serious obstacles or problems schools face in dealing with the topic domain of this Core International Framing Question?

On the survey that we sent to social studies consultants in the 50 states we asked the significance of a number of possible obstacles to effective social studies instruction. Those that were cited most frequently as "very significant" were a crowded curriculum and budget constraints. Those that were cited most frequently as "moderately significant" were a shortage of materials and inadequate teacher knowledge of the subject. Exclusion from state testing, teacher beliefs and values, community pressure, and interest group pressure were cited most frequently as "insignificant." Although for the most part the latter factors were perceived as insignificant, several comments were made explaining when they did have some influence. Respondents from three states explained that because social studies was not part of the statewide assessments in elementary school, it was their perception that minimal attention was paid to social studies at that level. One state consultant wrote that teachers at the middle school level may have less than adequate subject matter knowledge. Teachers at the high school level may be knowledgeable about their subjects but ineffective in involving students.

Ninety-two percent of the participants in our state survey said that, in their opinion, social studies teachers in their state felt free to discuss controversial issues. However, of these respondents, only 9% indicated that teachers felt completely free to discuss controversial issues. Issues involving sex, sexual orientation, and HIV/AIDS were the topics most frequently identified as controversial and to be avoided in classroom discussions. Abortion and religion were the next most frequently identified issues. One respondent noted that discussion of abortion was forbidden by state law.

The teachers in our focus groups said that the obstacles to teaching in the democracy and citizenship domain were no different than the obstacles facing social studies teachers in general, with two exceptions. A teacher in one urban high school, with a predominantly African-American population and many students from low-income families, explained an obstacle that

arose particularly in teaching about democracy was,

Sometimes you have to explain to them that in spite of all the virtues of democracy, it doesn't necessarily work for them. It hasn't over the years because of economics...In spite of all that, you still want to say it can work and it has worked (T-3, p.27).

Teachers in another focus group reported that their biggest obstacle was the way that schools are operated, citing the emphasis on maintaining order. Two of the teachers in the group reported that "the last thing they wanted was for kids to speak out on issues" and that it was difficult to "teach them how to be citizens in an administration and community that's trying to keep the kids powerless" (T-5, p. 34).

Interestingly, there was no single obstacle that was uniformly identified in all of the teacher focus groups. In only one group was time and the need to prioritize mentioned. In several groups, teachers reported that lack of resources was an obstacle. However, teachers in one group cited the high quality of materials that were available as a change that had occurred over the past 10 years. Moreover, in responding to the question about obstacles on the state survey, one respondent reported that in his state lack of resources was a serious concern in urban, but not suburban, districts.

Teachers in one district said that class size of 35 students was an obstacle, particularly in the schools with many new immigrants who did not speak English well. A few teachers in schools with students of many nationalities and one in a school with white, African American, Christian, and Jewish students felt that they needed to be particularly sensitive in addressing topics with particular meanings to people with diverse backgrounds. Other teachers in diverse schools, however, did not identify this as an obstacle.

Focus group teachers in the urban high school mentioned earlier cited several obstacles related to the challenges of teaching the students in their school. One mentioned that students don't see a lot of success stories so they don't think they can be successful. Another added,

Too many of our kids have a real serious problem reading, understanding, and interpreting...We have kids who are not really that excited about learning. The conflict

there is because many teachers are successful, having several degrees, and we expect the same thought processes of our students, but they are different...they learn differently from how we learned. So it's up to us to restart wherever they are, and get over that glitch of reading problems or whatever other problems they have and just teach as best we can, over those obstacles (T-3, pp. 27-28).

In contrast a teacher in another school said that, "I've had better and better kids, harder and harder workers," over the years, but "with the current political atmosphere and the media," she found it harder to break down stereotypes about groups of people than she had in the past. Additionally, one teacher noted:

Fearful parents press down on their kids, wanting them to conform, at an age when they probably should be learning how to speak for themselves. We're talking about the creative tension between rights and responsibilities, between the good of the group and the good of the individual (T-5, p. 35).

Another teacher in that same focus group identified another obstacle,

I think it's a hard job to teach kids about democracy and citizenship because you don't get results until much later, and the civics teacher alone isn't going to do it. It's got to be the whole building. It's got to be every teacher. Right now, I don't think that happens. (T-5, p. 35).

Overall, it appears that obstacles to teaching about democracy and citizenship vary according to the school one is in. For some teaching in urban schools, availability of resources, student skill level, and conveying both the idealism of democracy and historical realities may pose particular obstacles. Availability of resources, class size, and concern for community reaction is perceived as an obstacle in some, but not all, school districts, and those factors are not unique to this domain. Further, some, but not all, teachers may perceive the bureaucratic nature of schools and a concern for control as working against what they want to teach about individual rights and responsibilities in a democracy.

Summary. There was no clear consensus among our data sources as to what the major

obstacles are to teaching about democracy and politics. It may be that local context or role--teacher or state level coordinator--influences the salience of particular factors. Those factors that were cited as obstacles included a crowded curriculum, budget constraints, exclusion from state testing, the lack of democratic practices in schools, lack of resources, student abilities, and the wider social and political environment.

q. What changes have taken place during the last 10 years in the way this topic has been dealt with in school? Have there been any recent events that have influenced the public's view of the topic of democracy, institutions, rights, and responsibilities? What recent projects or reforms (if any) are seen as particularly exemplary or worthy of emulation by others (even if they have not yet become widespread enough to be reported under the preceding points)?

As indicated from our state survey and follow-up phone calls to some of the state social studies consultants, legislative mandates in relation to high school graduation requirements and new state testing programs in a few states have influenced the amount of instruction that occurs relative to this domain. Quite a few coordinators said they anticipated changes in the years ahead, because their states were in the process of developing content standards in the area of social studies.

Publications such as Civitas, the National Standards for Civics and Government, and the Curriculum Standards for Social Studies have been widely disseminated to social studies curriculum coordinators and to teachers who are involved in national networks. Because such publications contain recommendations to teach about the civil society and founding documents, such as the Federalist Papers along with the Constitution, this domain could be taught about differently than it has been in the past. However, none of the teachers in our focus group interviews mentioned such changes.

Rather, in different focus groups, teachers identified changes in society that they felt influenced their teaching of this as well as other domains. In one school, there was a dramatic increase in the number of immigrants attending a school, and in others there were more "minority" students attending a school than had 10 years earlier. One teacher commented that

with increased diversity, students seemed more accepting of different people and she didn't feel a need to address a perceived threat as much as she had in the past. However, another teacher with a similar changing population said that at her school there was a greater need to deal with fear and backlash. Another teacher commented that teachers were reaching out to be more inclusive in their teaching than they had been in the past. Such changes could affect what students learn about a pluralistic democracy.

Several changes relate to how instruction is delivered with respect to this, as well as other domains. In one urban school with an African American population, the racial percentage had not changed over time, but the effect of economic conditions and the nature of student families had changed. Students came from homes with younger parents and grandparents than they had in the past, and more of the students were themselves parents. Those phenomena combined with others to reduce the likelihood that students would do homework after school. To overcome that, the school day was organized into two-hour-long classes, during which students spent class time doing reading and writing that formerly would have been done at home.

Other teachers commented that the instructional materials they had available to them were more exciting and dynamic than they had been in the past. Teachers in several schools noted that technology, and the Internet in particular, had changed the way that they taught social studies. However, several teachers explicitly stated that technology had no effect on their teaching because they were "basically technophobes."

Finally, a few teachers explained that changes had been made as educators were more knowledgeable about "how kids learn and there is more of an attempt to fit strategies to learning styles." Some schools had made changes to incorporate theories of multiple intelligence or were deliberately using a greater variety of modes of assessment than they had in the past.

On the one hand, a number of state, national, and grassroots leaders have been calling attention to the need for "character education" and increasing the public's interest in teaching values that are consistent with democracy. At the same time, annual Gallup polls of citizens indicate that the public is concerned about school discipline, which if responded to with more policies to ensure control as noted earlier in this section, could create less democratic school climates affecting what students learn in this domain. Other recent events that could affect the public's concern about teaching with respect to this domain are related to financial impropriety in Washington DC and the ways in which schools teach about political institutions. Interestingly, none of the teachers in our focus groups mentioned that changing public concerns had much affect on what and how they teach. Further, the bicentennials of the Constitution and of the Bill of Rights drew some public attention to political concepts and history. In these cases media stories drew the public's attention to civic education, materials were developed, and schools and communities sponsored events that may have contributed to learning in this domain.

As for recent projects and reforms that are seen as exemplary or worthy of emulation, there have been a number of important programs. State, local, and national affiliates of the American Bar Association have worked with schools to improve teaching about law, justice, and legal institutions. The Center for Civic Education works with schools to improve teaching about government and civics, and their We the People program for elementary, middle, and high school students is used in schools across the country. Similarly, the Constitutional Rights Foundation and Close Up sponsor a variety of programs across the country to improve student learning related to this domain. The National Issues Forum, supported by the Kettering Foundation, has worked with students, primarily those older than 14 to 15 years-old, and teachers to give greater attention to exploration of public policy issues. The Purdue Center and

Taft Institutes provide in-service workshops for teachers to improve citizenship education. Individual school-based service learning and character education programs, as well as those that come about through a link with a national or state network, also work to promote exemplary teaching with respect to the rights and responsibilities of citizenship in a democracy. The extent to which various programs have influenced classrooms practices can be investigated in Phase II of the IEA Civic Education study.

Summary. Changes that may have influenced the amount and way that democracy and political institutions are taught include: increased graduation requirements, new or revised state tests, the development of new curricular standards, demographic changes, improved instructional materials, computer technology, and popular educational movements such as character education, service learning, and applications of constructivist learning theory.

National Identity Domain

Core International Framing Question II

What are young people expected or likely to have acquired as a sense of national identity or national loyalty by age 14 or 15? To what degree are loyalty or sense of belonging to the nation, to its various communities, and to its traditions and institutions thought to be important to develop among young people?

What attitudes are students expected to develop toward the institutions of governments, authorities and office - holders? Do these leaders have an almost sacred quality, or are they seen in certain ways as fallible? How much and what kinds of criticism of or skepticism about monarchs or national leaders are thought to be appropriate? What, if any, symbols (such as the national flag) are thought particularly important for students to respect?

To ascertain young people's sense of national identity, participants in our student focus groups were asked what they thought it meant to be an American. In one group, a student said that being American meant being free. Another countered that it meant obeying the law or suffering the consequences. In a second student group, freedom was again identified as a key part of what it means to be an American. A female student said, "we have a lot more freedom to express our beliefs than [people in] other countries." A second young woman continued the discussion by saying that Americans are free to follow their beliefs, and cited religion and education as examples. A male student added that poor Americans "have the freedom to do things, but they don't have as many opportunities" as do wealthier Americans.

The first suggestion of students in a third group was, again, that being American meant being free. One female student added that, "we need to stay involved in our country, and stay informed about everything." Though they did not explicitly say so, the conversation between

two girls implied that being American involves an element of pride. One of these students said, “most of the stuff you hear about comes from America.” Her companion added, “like art kind of stuff, or English, poetry, and paintings.” The first girl added, “and even sometimes we’re behind, like in the space program. Russia was ahead of us, and that just pushed us further, so we develop a lot more because of other countries, too.”

In a fourth group of students most of the participants were Hispanic, and one was Asian. In this group, the immediate response was that being American meant being a citizen or resident. A young man added that he thought an American is someone “who is not illegal here in the United States.” A female student said that being an American meant being born in the United States, but another young woman disputed this, saying “you don't have to be born here, because I wasn't, and I'm a citizen.” Like the other student groups, this group then spoke of equating choice, freedom, and opportunity with being American. One young woman highlighted the freedoms enjoyed by female Americans. A student added that being American meant being loyal to the United States of America.

The students added that being American is very desirable. One young woman said, “it's like the place to be. If you're in another country, you want to come to America because you've heard so much about it.” This young woman expressed her pride both in her country of origin and in now being able to say “I'm an American.”

These students said that Americans take on the international role of helping everyone. “Everybody knows that we're the saviors,” said one student, “but,” she continued, “it seems like we help other countries a little bit too much, and some things here aren't (right); we need to help ourselves first.” Two other students agreed that America sometimes helps other countries too much, given the problems that America has. One of these students said, “we have problems over here; drunk driving, people shooting each other, and they have drugs here; there's enough problems here that they need to take care of first.” This drew the response that Americans often help themselves by helping others.

The recurring themes in the student discussion of what it means to be an American are

freedom and opportunity. Although they recognized that the reality of America does not always match the ideal, the students in the focus groups expressed pride in being American.

The expert in history education who we interviewed noted several themes she found in her research that were similar to comments we heard from students. She explained that in recent years there has been much debate about “national memory” or “the canon,” including,

How national memory is constructed and who and what gets included. What memories are repressed. What memories are made public. How it is that some sort of canon gets into the school (E-6, p. 1).

From her studies of children in grades 5 and 8 she found a canon of “American exceptionalism,” in which students perceive America to be different—and better. She said children tend to believe that Americans go to war to help people. They “clearly organize their understanding of what it is to be an American around the Bill of Rights,” and they see American history as a story of progress, including struggles for women’s rights and civil rights. From her research, this scholar concluded that schooling makes an impact by telling children what is significant in the nation’s story, “the school attaches the moral to the story” (p. 2) and is especially influential with respect to things that are not in the living memory, so that children are not getting a counter story from home, as many do with the Vietnam War or the Depression. Further, she found minority children have richer, more complex “vernacular histories” than do white middle-class children. For example, immigrant children, African-American, and female students often carry an alternative history to school history about groups similar to themselves. Nevertheless, she emphasized “in almost all the interviews we’ve done, regardless of race when the kids talk about American history, they always use ‘I, we, our.’” (E-6, p. 9)

g. Indicate all the subjects and grade levels at which national identity is likely to be addressed and emphasized. Emphasis here means that it is treated at least several times during the year or several times a week for at least two weeks. What aspects of the topic are most emphasized in the various subject matters and at the various grade levels? If there are differences between specific schools in this treatment (e. g. regional autonomy or differences between academic and vocational programs), please explain.

In our survey to state social studies coordinators focusing on grades 6-12, we received responses from individuals in 48 of 50 states. One question asked the coordinators if United States history was taught in a majority of school districts in that state in grades 6 through 12. Forty-seven people responded to this item, and all reported that United States history was taught in the majority of districts at some point between grades 6 and 12. Participants were also asked to identify the grade(s) at which United States history was taught. Eighty-nine percent of the respondents said that United States history was taught in the 11th grade. This was the highest response rate for any grade. Students are typically 16 or 17 years old in the 11th grade. This age range was not the focus of Phase I of this study, and it will only be included as an optional sample in Phase II. Eighth grade (13- and 14-year-olds) is the second most common level for the teaching of United States history (68%), according to the respondents to our survey. Twenty-one percent of the participants said that United States history is commonly taught in grades 6 or 7 (11- to 13-year-olds). Although our survey did not ask about earlier grades, many students likely receive instruction in United States history in elementary school.

Eighty-five percent of 46 respondents said that there was a statewide requirement for the teaching of United States history, with a year long course being required before high school graduation in over three quarters of these states. Ninety-five percent of 42 respondents said that United States history was afforded either highest or high priority in their state.

Students were taught awareness of all levels of our federal system, but loyalty to the nation appeared to be given greater emphasis than loyalty to the state or local community. As

already noted, 100% of the respondents in our survey of state social studies coordinators stated that United States history is taught between grades six and 12 in the majority of school districts in their state; the corresponding number for state history was 66%. United States history was accorded highest or high priority in their state by 95% of our respondents, whereas state and local history were so rated by 60% and 37%, respectively, of the participants.

Loyalty is primarily developed through study of the nation's history, its unique character, and its heroes. Important symbols such as the flag and the singing of the national anthem and other national songs are regular features of elementary and middle schools. A state social studies coordinator who we interviewed reported that many elementary teachers try to instill patriotism in their students. That is often one goal of character education programs that are being implemented in schools in his and other states.

The history education expert we interviewed reported that she found the "holiday curriculum" was still present in most schools but some revisionist elements were present so that after celebrating Columbus Day students report, "Columbus was brave, but also as a result, Indians got pushed out." She found that children sometimes thought Martin Luther King, Jr. and Abraham Lincoln were contemporaries because they studied about them both in February, when Black History Month and Presidents Day are celebrated. Another hero they learn about in Black History Month is Rosa Parks, but they tend to think of her as being tired, or sitting down in the front of the bus because King asked her to. With the exception of civil rights leaders being treated in February or in conjunction with King's birthday, this scholar found little evidence of students learning in 5th or 8th grade about 20th century events, as most classes do not go much beyond the Civil War in their chronological study of the nation's history.

The participants in our student interviews identified a number of national heroes they had studied. These heroes included presidents Washington, Jefferson, Adams, Lincoln, Roosevelt, and Kennedy. The students also said they had learned about General Colin Powell--a contemporary military leader, William B. Travis--a Mexican war General, Generals Lee and Grant--Civil War leaders, Eleanor Roosevelt--a social activist and first lady, John Brown and

Harriet Tubman--anti slavery activists, Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. and Rosa Parks--civil rights leaders, and Benjamin Franklin. The students also spoke of learning about recent presidents, including Johnson, Nixon, and Carter. These presidents tended not to be accorded heroic status, and one student spoke of studying Nixon's "involvement with Watergate." One young woman reported that her class had done a study of little known presidents. She chose to research Millard Fillmore, who she sarcastically described as "my hero," because, she said, "he was one of the presidents that did absolutely nothing."

Many heroes are presented to American students as almost sacred, although by the 9th grade, students may be aware of flaws in these heroes. These flaws might include, for example, Washington and Jefferson's acceptance of slavery. The students we interviewed, however, did not discuss or give examples of such flaws.

There appeared to be a mixed amount of criticism/skepticism with respect to national leaders. On the one hand, students were told that leaders are not infallible or above criticism; on the other hand, there was often not a great deal of effort placed on critical assessment of contemporary leaders and issues--possibly out of fear of offending parents or community groups. One student did mention Watergate as evidence of Nixon as a flawed leader. About half the students in this group said that they remembered learning about Watergate.

One of the teachers in a focus group said that she teaches both the positive and negative. She was concerned that,

There is a tendency, particularly with the emphasis on multiculturalism and everything, as seeing Americans as sort of always the villain throughout history, and I don't believe in that. I think it's very important to show that these negative things happened and are changing, or have been changing (T-1, p. 23).

Students learn about core documents in their nation's history. The students we interviewed identified the following as examples of such documents: the Articles of Confederation, the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution, and Martin Luther King Jr.'s "I Have a Dream" speech. Although the students we interviewed did not identify the Gettysburg

Address as one of these documents, we believe many American students do study this document. Teachers confirmed the importance placed on the Constitution and the Bill of Rights, with one teacher saying,

We do the Constitution in depth. By the time I'm through with them, they can cite chapter and verse of all, I mean, article and section number of everything in the Constitution. We look at hypothetical situations and they would have to explain why the solution to this particular problem would be "X" and cite the Constitutional part that it comes from. So we do the Constitution and all the amendments in extreme detail, both practical and theoretical.... We do the three branches of government, ad infinitum; and we do the difference between state powers and federal powers, so we do the principles of federalism. We do, basically, everything you would expect. I mean, we do the courts, the Supreme Court. I guess it does seem sort of obvious, but the three branches of government, the Constitution, the amendments, the Bill of Rights, and that's what we spend most of the year doing (T-1, p. 4).

Students said that the study of wars--including the Revolutionary, the French and Indian, the Mexican, the Civil, and Vietnam--were a significant component of their history studies. According to the students, the Civil War is given great importance. As one student from Texas said when asked about the big historical events studied, "Civil War, Civil War, Civil War." The students in our focus groups did not tell us that they learned about either World War, or the Korean war, perhaps because 20th century history is given more emphasis in the 11th grade than in earlier grades.

Although these students did not mention the Second World War as a component of their United States history course, Germany and Japan were identified as countries that are now allies of America, whereas they had been enemies in the past; and Adolf Hitler was identified as a villain. Britain was named as another nation that had changed from enemy to ally. One student identified France as an ally since the Revolutionary War. Iraq was quickly identified as an enemy, with one student, who was perhaps confused about various Middle Eastern countries,

adding that Saudi Arabia is also an enemy nation. One student suggested that Spain is an enemy nation, a comment made more understandable by another student, who, in reference to the Spanish-American War, had identified Spain as a former enemy nation.

Summary. Students in the United States develop a sense of national identity through history lessons and the celebration of national holidays. A flag salute is a common practice, particularly at the elementary and middle school levels. At the elementary school level, much of social studies instruction relates to the development of national identity--studies of local communities, geographic study of the nation's regions, celebration of holidays, and often, in the fifth grade, an introduction to American history. At the middle and secondary school level students have at least one course in United States history in which they study about events related to the nation's founding and its development, core national documents, presidents, and leaders of civil rights movements.

h. If the textbooks used in public school in the grades which include the majority of 11- to 15-year-olds address the topic of national identity, how do they usually approach it in terms of content and method? If there are multiple approaches, please indicate the extent to which each is used. (Note: This requires some actual analysis of what is presented and emphasized regarding this topic domain in a relevant set of text materials).

National identity is formed, in part, through a connection to a nation's "story"--its birth, celebrations, struggles, heroes, and villains. Part of civic socialization is enabling young people to see themselves as part of a grander, ongoing narrative. Across the civics and United States history textbooks we analyzed, there is a common "story" of significant events, people, and documents.

Appendix C, Table 5 shows those events most frequently mentioned in the textbooks. Two types of events dominate the United States history texts, and to a lesser degree, the civics texts: events related to the country's founding and to armed conflicts. The documents most frequently mentioned in the texts reflect the same themes (see Appendix C, Table 6). All six texts include complete copies of the Declaration of Independence, the United States Constitution, and the Bill of Rights. The Constitution, or parts thereof, is clearly the focal document in our country's narrative. Particularly within the civics texts, the United States Constitution and its amendments merit extensive attention in relationship to citizens' rights.

Table 7 (Appendix C) shows the people most frequently mentioned in the civics and history textbooks. With a few notable exceptions, the people are European-American, male, and held political offices. Over half of the individuals were president of the United States. Some of the presidents are treated more favorably than others (for example, Franklin D. Roosevelt as compared to Richard M. Nixon), however, the amount of attention devoted to these individuals is reflective of the significance attached to the office of the presidency in the United States.

The relationship of a nation to the international community is part of the way in which a country defines itself. Table 7 (Appendix C) shows the countries most frequently mentioned in

the civics and United States history textbooks. The countries tend to be either historical/current allies (e.g., Israel, Canada) or foes of the United States (e.g., Soviet Union, Cuba). Foes are generally mentioned in reference to armed conflicts or in contrast to the political/economic system of the United States. Virtually absent are countries on the continents of Africa, Australia, or South America. The United States' membership in the United Nations is mentioned in all of the texts, with significant attention devoted to the UN's purpose, organization, and structure in the civics textbooks (see Appendix C, Table 9).

Summary. The office of the presidency, in particular, plays a very significant role in civic education. There seems to be a consensus across the texts that specific presidents, such as George Washington and Franklin D. Roosevelt, deserve special attention. Further, the immigrants' role in shaping the "story" of the United States is conveyed in each of the textbooks. However, individuals from diverse ethnic backgrounds, as well as individual women, are unlikely to be seen as significant historical or political figures.

Despite the fact that the United States has neither a national curriculum nor officially sanctioned national civic goals, the similarities across the three widely used United States history textbooks that were examined in terms of organization, content, and emphasis are striking. Regardless of whether one agrees with the textbook authors' selection of facts, events, and perspectives, there is a national "story" conveyed across the textbooks.

i. What kind of activities during the class period and what kind of assignments to students would most likely to be found in the grades for 11- to 15-year-olds dealing with national identity? Please illustrate with concrete examples and discuss any likely variation between schools. Include a discussion of the role of classroom discussion of student opinions and the role of group or individual project work by students. Also include a discussion of any gaps between idealized statements about democracy, identity, or diversity and the realities of students' experience in classrooms.

Although it did not contain specific references to teaching about national identity, our Review of Literature revealed that earlier researchers found most United States social studies classes to be dominated by teacher talk and student recitation related to coverage of textbook content. From our focus groups it appeared that, whereas some teachers relied on traditional approaches, others, even within a single school, used a variety of instructional activities such as discussions of current events, simulations, and student projects.

Data from student interviews provided supporting evidence that the activities that students engage in vary from school to school, and from teacher to teacher. Reading assignments from the textbook and note taking during teacher lectures appeared to be common activities, though one student reported that in her class, they “didn’t use the book at all.” Many of the students told of participating in mock elections--1996 was a presidential election year in the USA--and mock trials. Simulations of a range of situations, including the constitutional convention and model legislatures, were part of the curriculum for many of the interviewed students. One student said that at her school they had not participated in simulations, and suggested the teacher did not use this instructional method because students would not participate. The interviewed students told us that they were often encouraged to discuss issues and to take and defend positions. One student reported that his teacher used videos frequently and encouraged students to see suggested films in cinemas, especially in relation to the Civil

War. Another student said that her class had used original documents, in the form of letters, in social studies class. One student said that his teacher had explicitly stated that American schools were not good models of American democracy. The other students in this group quickly agreed about their dislike of school rules. The opinion was expressed, and seconded, that the real America was probably more like the authoritarian structure experienced in school than the idealized picture presented in civics classes.

The teacher interviews did not focus on activities used to help students learn about national identity in particular; more attention was given to learning activities related to conceptions of democracy, government, and citizenship. Several teachers did, however, describe activities used in teaching American history, and it is likely that this subject contributes to students' concept of national identity. Teachers reported using a variety of instructional methods in teaching history. These methods include debates and discussions, experiential activities, class projects, and research papers in addition to lectures and note taking. In a specific response to a question about activities related to national identity, one teacher described an experiential activity based on giving her students a copy of the Mississippi Literacy Test. None of the students were able to complete the test without making a single error. The teacher said that she explained to her students that blacks had been declared ineligible to vote based on less than perfect scores on this test. The teacher cited this as an example of teaching about episodes in American history about which many Americans are not proud. Another teacher told us that he had his students bring an artifact to class that they felt represented them and their history. The students were to tell about their own history using the artifacts. This teacher also spoke of his plans to use as a resource the many large displays marking significant Civil War sites, and giving brief accounts of the events that transpired at these sites.

At state and national social studies conventions and in various educational journals, at the time of our data collection advocates of character education were observed recommending activities to develop patriotism and other "character" traits. Biographies, fiction, and historic situations were suggested springboards for discussion or exemplars to hold up to students

particularly at the elementary and middle school level.

Summary. Student responses about instructional activities related to what it meant to be an American were often more relevant to the topic of democracy, government, and citizenship. Focus group teachers gave few specific examples of activities used in teaching about national identity. It may have been that the concepts of democracy, government, and citizenship on one hand, and national identity on the other, were inseparable for both teachers and students or that this theme is more salient in the lower grades. Alternate hypotheses would be that the topic was presented mainly through lectures, or that it was not given much emphasis in social studies classes taken by 14- to 15-year-old students.

j. Does the public school have examinations or other formal assessments which address in a substantial way what 11-to 15-year-olds have learned with respect to national identity? If so, please summarize the type of examinations, the age of students when they take these assessments, what aspects of the topic are most emphasized, and what regional or other variations exist.

From our state survey we learned that about half (54%) of the states required state or district assessment in social studies. This assessment may have included attention to the domain of national identity as a part of the broader subject. For the states with required assessment, this testing was most often done in the 8th grade (34%, 13- and 14-year-olds). Required testing is also quite common in the 10th (21%, 15- and 16-year-olds) and 11th grades (25%, 16- and 17-year-olds). Seventy-five percent of the people who responded to this item in the state survey said that required state/district assessment had a moderate or very significant influence on social studies education in their state. Forty-six percent of respondents said that exclusion from state testing was a moderate or very significant obstacle to effective social studies instruction in grades 6 through 12.

Two respondents to our state survey made comments that illustrated the impact of state and district assessment on instruction. The first made the written note that “inclusion in state and district tests dominate what they teach.” The second wrote that “reading, writing, and math are tested in grades 3 through 8. Because social studies and science are tested only at grade 8, minimal attention is paid to them in many elementary schools.” The social studies coordinator we interviewed said that in reporting scores on the state’s high school graduation test, sub scores were reported for U.S. history before 1865 and U.S. history and economics after 1865.

According to the teachers we interviewed, most assessment experienced by students was done at the classroom level, in the form of chapter and unit tests, and semester and final examinations. Most of these tests tended to be multiple choice and short answer. Occasionally, assessment included essays that required students to take and defend a position. In such cases, students were evaluated on their ability to apply relevant information and to develop a coherent

position, not on the positions they took. Projects, homework, and other assignments were also evaluated by individual teachers. The relative importance placed on the different components of classroom-based assessment varied widely. This was illustrated by the responses given by two teachers' at the same school when asked how they allocate grades. Teacher one said,

About 50% of my grade is based on daily work and another 40% on exams, and then 10% for a final exam. Different teachers will use different percentages, but I put the most weight on the every day, daily assignments (such as) class work, class participation, homework, anything involved that we do daily. We're not going to have a test every day. Even quizzes will be part of the daily grade, fall into that 50% (T-1, p. 10).

Teacher two said,

Mine is 20% participation, but that's just strictly oral participation, and then 25% is their individual portfolio notebook which we keep, 25% is homework, and then, I think it's 30% which remains, and that's everything else, which would include tests, projects, and class assignments (T-1, p. 10).

At another school, one teacher described her assessment as follows:

Ways that I assess my students. There are a variety of forms, but one of the traditional ways would be tests. I use diagnostic tests that are generally made by me. Just to see where the students are, what they already know. I use pretests from chapter to chapter or from unit to unit, and I use some of those same items, maybe worded differently at the end of the unit. The other form of assessment comes in forms of the other requirements like book reports, position papers, research, class participation. Projects. Many projects. I also look at the student, individually (T-3, p. 12).

Two male teachers at this school agreed that they made heavy use of the multiple choice tests that come with the text book. One of the men added,

I give them a special class participation definition in my syllabus, which isn't your traditional raise your hand and answer questions. What I try to do is make it objective. 'Did you bring your book today?' 'Did you bring your pen today?' 'Did you bring paper

today?’ ‘Did you do your homework?’ The kinds of things that anybody can look at and say, ‘if you don’t have a book you can’t participate very well today because we’re going to use the book. If you didn’t bring paper, you can’t participate very well today.’ For me, that’s what I mean by class participation, rather than answered questions (T-3, p.14).

National identity appeared in examinations and assessments most often in terms of measuring student knowledge about significant national symbols, documents, leaders, and events. Loyalty and a sense of belonging probably do not play a role in assessment except as these characteristics can be described in others, such as the citing of Martin Luther King Jr.’s work as evidence of his patriotism. The fallibility of leaders and laws is likely to only play a role in assessment where “popular” history has shown them to be fallible--as in the case of Jim Crow laws and Plessey v. Ferguson, which established the “separate but equal” doctrine. Likewise, only those events in American history that are generally treated as misguided or unethical--such as the Trail of Tears or Watergate--are likely to appear in assessments. Formal and informal supranational and sub national organizations such as the United Nations and the NAACP are probably treated in state-level testing only positively and only at the knowledge level. At the classroom level, there may be sporadic treatment of such organizations at a more critical level, such as asking students to “evaluate the effectiveness of the United Nations and suggest changes that might make it more effective.”

Summary. There is no national examination taken by all students. However, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) periodically assesses the knowledge of students in a representative sample of schools. Results from the 1994 United States history assessment at grade 8 are relevant to this Core International Framing Question (NAEP also assesses at grades 4 and 12, grades which are not central to this case study). Approximately half of the states administer statewide tests that include social studies sections. It is probable that some items measure knowledge of the nation’s history which may be relevant to students’ sense of national identity. Most assessment experienced by students, however, is conducted by individual classroom teachers in the form of tests, written assignments, and observation of class

k. What common extracurricular activities, ceremonies, or other occasions inside the public schools give 11- to 15-year-olds the opportunity to learn more about or gain experience relating to the topic of national identity. Please summarize the nature of these activities, ceremonies, or occasions, how they are relevant to the domain of national identity, what students are expected to gain from them, and what proportion of 14- to 15-year-olds are likely to have these experiences.

The students in one focus group said that team sports associated with school, like football and basketball, provided opportunities to learn to work as a team with peers of different races and social classes. The students stated that this learning to work with different people was an important part of learning what it meant to be an American. One of the teachers, who was also a coach, spoke to the contribution made by team sports, expressing his opinion that students “involved in sports and extracurricular activities understand teamwork, cooperation, and those types of things. I think they probably learn a lot more in extracurricular activities than they do in the class.” However, the teacher gave this response when speaking to the contribution of extra-curricular activities to learning in the democracy and citizenship domain.

The use of the same example--sports--as a contribution to learning in both the national identity and democracy/citizenship domains by the students and teachers, respectively, supports the earlier hypothesis that the two domains were closely linked for Americans. Some observers might even argue that the emphasis on team sports contributed to the competitiveness that is characteristic of, and lauded by, many Americans.

One state social studies coordinator reported that many schools in his state participated in History Day and/or sponsored social science fairs. Some students selected topics to research and present that indirectly contributed to a sense of national identity. In his state also, students in some schools had opportunities to participate in mock elections, mock trial competitions, We the People competitions, and/or the Close-Up program in which a knowledge of citizen rights and duties contributed to their sense of what it meant to be an American.

Overall, the student and teacher interviews provided little information about the role of extra-curricular activities in promoting students' conceptions of national identity in particular. This paucity of information may be evidence that national identity was not an important theme in the extra-curricular activities of schools. An alternate interpretation may be that the role of extra-curricular activities is so integral to developing Americans' sense of national identity that it is taken for granted. Tocqueville described Americans as a nation of joiners. Young Americans may first become joiners in the many extra-curricular activities--including sports, clubs, and band--that are typical of American schools.

Summary. Schools seem to primarily handle this question within the curriculum, not through extracurricular activities. Activities related to Black History Month (February) in many schools, to Women's History Month (March) in a few schools, and to Presidents' Day in some elementary schools tend to be studied and observed during the school day and within classrooms. Similarly, art projects and language arts or English lessons as well as social studies lessons that focus on holidays such as Thanksgiving and Martin Luther King Jr.'s birthday may teach about aspects of national history, and probably contribute to students' national identity. At the middle and secondary school level, experiences in sports, or in extracurricular activities such as History Day, or programs associated with participatory democracy seem to influence perceptions of national identity.

1. What common activities, ceremonies, or other occasions outside school give 11- to 15-year-olds (including any early school leavers) opportunities to learn more about or gain experience relating to national identity (e.g. youth organizations, public ceremonies organized by national or sub national groups, museum exhibitions, religious ceremonies or education). Please summarize the nature of these activities, ceremonies, or occasions and what students are expected to gain from them.

Asked to discuss experiences outside of school that helped them understand what it means to be an American, the responses of the students we interviewed indicated that they were most aware of their American identity in contexts in which Americans and other nationals are juxtaposed. One student's mother owned a travel agency and her father was English. This student told us she had been to Europe five times. A student told us that her dance teacher was from France, and another said that she had watched a television talk show about people from different countries. Other students spoke of travel to Denmark, Mexico, and Argentina. One student said,

I have a friend, and she moved to Indonesia and she was back this summer. She was not that rich here. She lived in a one-story house. Here that's like nothing. But down there she had servants 24 hours a day, she had three bodyguards to follow just her around, not including her other family. She had a driver. She has servants, like a maid, and she doesn't ever have to clean up her room, and she is so filthy rich there, and it is so funny. She's like, 'I love all the attention' (S-3, p. 11).

A student in Texas said that a visit to the Alamo had helped her to form her conceptions of national identity. This student said,

It just shows the Alamo torn up. They were really fighting for what they believed in, it was so important. ... It was just really fun to see everything, just to know that it really happened. You might read about it in your books, but you can really see where it (the Alamo) was and what it looked like and go inside of it (S-3, p. 26).

A student who was originally from Bangladesh said that families in her home country were much closer than families in America. She speculated that this might have been because, in Bangladesh, they did not have television and the many other distractions of America.

One student spoke of experiences that involved only Americans that helped him to develop his sense of national identity. This young man said, "I've talked to a lot of people who are in different situations than I am." Whereas the other students were made aware of their national identity by differences between Americans and other nationals, this student looked to the differences among Americans.

In contrast to most of the students who talked of foreign travel, but like the student from Texas who talked about the Alamo, one Georgia teacher discussed domestic vacation travel as providing opportunities for students to develop conceptions of national identity. His example was of visiting places related to the Civil War, such as Gettysburg, Stone Mountain, or the Cyclorama in Atlanta. A second Georgia teacher saw the potential to learn about national identity through consideration of the Civil War. This teacher explained that there are many historical markers related to the Civil War in and around his community and said, "I think that might be interesting, to go somewhere and find out information; not the library, but at a park, or a bridge, or somewhere like that."

The teacher who discussed travel also said that he had immigrant students who were taking the test to become United States citizens, or who had just achieved citizenship. "For the most part, once they get that citizenship, they're real proud of it," he said. This teacher also expressed his opinion that students learned what it means to be an American in conversations with their parents.

One teacher in an urban school expressed his belief that the media has an influence on students' understanding of what it means to be an American. He said, "I think they see a contradiction with being an American. They see wealth and abundance on TV and in certain sections of the city. Then they see poverty and crime in their areas of the city."

Away from school, students appeared to learn about what it means to be an American in

situations that provided the opportunity for comparison with non-Americans, especially through foreign travel. A teacher and a student both talked of the importance of family vacation travel to historic sites in helping to develop a sense of national identity. References to national events and ceremonies were noticeably absent in the comments of both the teachers and students that we interviewed. The history education expert we interviewed reported that in her interviews with fifth and eighth graders about “significant” events in the nation’s story, many students told “granny stories,” such as “my granny told me about the Depression.”

Summary. Recreational sports teams and youth groups associated with religious, scouting, or other organizations sometimes have ceremonies for 11- to 15-year-olds in which students may develop a sense of national loyalty, respect for the flag, and national traditions. The students in our interviews, however, did not mention such activities. Rather, family travel and other experiences, associating with people of different nationalities, and observing contrasting life experiences at home and abroad were cited by students and teachers as contributing to national identity.

m. What training (pre-service and in-service) are teachers for this age group likely to have received in the content of the topic related to national identity and in methods for dealing with it in class? Are certain aspects of the topic more likely to have been dealt with than other aspects? Have teachers been trained in using strategies such as discussion of student opinions (in the whole class or small groups) or project work relating to this content? Are teachers who lack any formal training related to this topic likely to be assigned to teach about it? Are teachers likely to be influenced in what or how they teach about this topic by standards expressed in the curriculum, or by tests students must take, or by the opinions of parents, or by explicit or implicit national goals?

Elementary teachers and middle school teachers with an elementary teaching certificate have usually had only one in-depth college level course in United States history. Teachers with secondary teaching certificates working in middle or high schools likely have a major or minor in history, often with an emphasis on United States history. Teachers with secondary certification will, therefore, usually be better prepared to teach this content domain than teachers with elementary certification.

Teachers of students in grades 6 through 9 will have had at least one course in social studies education prior to certification. In that course, teachers will have been exposed to instructional strategies, such as discussion and project work, that can be used with this domain as well as with other topics in social studies. Some teachers will have participated in in-service workshops, such as those sponsored by National History Day, Women's History Month, state humanities councils, the National Endowment for the Humanities, or local universities or school systems.

The newly developed voluntary National Standards for History and the Curriculum Standards for Social Studies give recommendations for teaching this topic domain. However, it is not yet known the extent to which classroom teachers are aware of these documents and deliberately implement the documents' recommendations. It is more likely that teachers will

begin to implement these recommendations as school districts revise curriculum, state and national test developers revise tests, and publishers produce new or revised textbooks .

When the teachers in one focus group were asked what had prepared them to teach national history, one teacher responded that she had an undergraduate degree in history. Another said that the topic had long fascinated him and since childhood he had been an ardent reader of history. A second male teacher reported that he had been inspired during a childhood visit to Washington D.C. The three teachers agreed that they had participated in few, if any, in-service programs that had helped them to be better teachers of United States history.

In the other teacher focus groups, participants were asked about their preparation to teach about democracy, government, and citizenship. The question was not repeated with respect to national identity. However, as discussed earlier, teachers' and students' concept of national identity appeared to be closely linked to their ideas about democracy and citizenship. The assumption is made, therefore, that the responses of teachers are relevant to the discussion of national identity.

One of the teachers participating in a second focus group said that she had graduated with a major in history. She did not, however, believe that her undergraduate courses were key elements of her preparation. This teacher said,

The curriculum I created over the years, and I shouldn't say me, me and others, I didn't really have any preparation. It was started from when I first became a teacher and (began) professionally thinking about the curriculum and what's good for kids. ... I don't know about you guys, but I really didn't have much (preparation) ... that helped me with this stuff later (T-5, p. 24).

A second woman agreed with her colleague. A male teacher volunteered that the ten years he had spent in business and industry before becoming a teacher were his best preparation. A second man ascribed his success to lessons learned in the military. For a third male teacher, his most important preparation was a year spent teaching an Islamic monarch in Morocco. As was the case of students who developed their sense of national identity through interaction and

comparison with non-Americans, this teacher's understanding of American citizenship appears to have been honed by learning about Moroccan concepts of citizenship. He said,

It's absolutely fascinating to get a sense of citizenship in a place like that because Americans could never deal with it. It's strange for me to think about it, but there is so much of a sense of community and there was so little sense of the individual. Citizenship had nothing to do with government. They never used the term citizen. Someone once told me that there is no Arabic word for citizenship (T-5, p.25).

In a third focus group, one teacher expressed his opinion that his best preparation came from his years of active involvement in local politics, which, he said, allowed him to talk realistically and authoritatively about many topics. A female teacher in this group said that her work in voter registration helped her to be effective. Echoing a theme expressed by a teacher in another focus group, one of these teachers identified his 20 years of military service as excellent preparation. A second male teacher did credit his undergraduate political science major as being relevant. This teacher also spoke of serving three years in the military, having a friend whose father was a high ranking government bureaucrat, and spending a summer as a page in the House of Representatives.

Summary. Caution is needed in interpreting teachers' responses because most were made in response to questions about their preparation to teach about democracy, government, and citizenship. However, it is notable that the teachers we interviewed appear to view academic preparation as being less useful than lessons learned on the job, in previous careers in business or the military, or in political activity. It may also be the case that teachers take for granted the need to have had some university course work in United States history, which all the teachers interviewed had taken.

n. To what extent are 11-to 15-year-olds likely to be active consumers of material presented by the media (television, radio, newspapers, electronic communication networks) with regard to national identity? What information and attitudes are they likely to find in those sources that would be especially pertinent to the various aspects of the Core International Framing Question's topic?

In one focus group, students expressed their belief that television talk shows helped them to understand the different kinds of problems faced by Americans. Another participant in this group said that television provided mixed messages about what it means to be an American, but he did not give specific examples. This interview occurred during the 1996 Presidential campaign, and several students in this group reported that they had experienced the situation where “the President will come on all the local new stations and block out all sitcoms and talk to us about politics.” The student who made the quoted statement continued, “That has some influence, I guess, if you watched it.” With respect to radio, the students said that the wide variety of different types of music played helped reinforce the idea that Americans are a very diverse people. One student spoke of “all the different styles of music.” This student continued:

One group of people singing one song can say this is an American and another group can say that this is an American. You learn that everyone has different ways of thinking about being an American. I listened to a country song and they are talking about High Tech Redneck American, then listen to rap and you learn about Ghetto American; it is totally different (S-1, p. 13).

In a group of suburban students that was asked what they had learned through the media about being an American, the first response was from a young woman who said, “I’m sorry, but I’m getting sick of the media.” A male student complained that “the media is just as gullible as us as far as how much greater it is to be an American than some other countries; so they sit there and say America sucks, basically.” This student then expressed his opinion that people in other countries strive to get what Americans have. A second student added her complaint that the

media tend to focus on crime and violence. She then expressed her opinion that, as in their coverage of the beating by police of Rodney King, the media try to incite conflict between the races. A young woman responded that the Rodney King beating had its roots in history, and that the police had no right to beat Mr. King. There was consensus at this point that the police had gone too far. This discussion ended with one student expressing her opinion that “if it was a white guy, they would do exactly the same.”

In a group of Hispanic students the discussion of the media focused on the 1996 presidential campaign debates, which the students had watched at school. The students were for Clinton and against Dole. Comments included, “Dole is like mama's little boy. He's not normal, like all for rich people; and Clinton's more like a normal person,” and “I don't think I would vote for Dole because I think Clinton's open to people. At least Democrats aren't racist.” These students complained that Dole seemed very negative, “I think he (Dole) wants to put Clinton down so everybody will see the bad in him, but I think when it comes to voting day, people don't want somebody like that.”

Our interviews with small groups of students revealed that students of this age primarily use the media for entertainment purposes, and only incidentally acquire knowledge and attitudes that contribute to a sense of American identity. The media does seem to heighten students' understanding of the negative aspects of American society. The students we interviewed did appear to maintain a skepticism of the media.

The history education scholar we interviewed noted that with respect to perceptions of important events in the nation's history, students expressed some confusion about the Viet Nam War vis a vis a general story of progress. They observed protesters in the movie *Forest Gump*. Without school instruction, they were not sure what to make of that period in the national story.

Summary. Students of this age group may acquire images of allies and enemies from the news programs that many of their parents watch. It is likely that only a few students watch historical documentaries like the one on the Civil War that was aired on public broadcasting networks. Some students may acquire information about United States history from movies that

are shown on television, particularly on cable channels. Although many students 14- to 15-years old listen to the radio and read parts of the newspaper, they tend to do so for entertainment, and are, therefore, only incidentally exposed to relevant headline stories. Although not mentioned in our particular focus groups, some classes in the United States do use CNN Newsroom or Channel One whereby students might learn about relevant news stories.

o. How much and in what ways do political parties attempt to influence what 11- to 15-year-olds think and do with regard to the topic of national identity?

In the United States, there is a broad consensus that schools should foster pride in, and loyalty to, the civic values and principles expressed in the nation's core documents such as the Declaration of Independence and the United States Constitution. The political parties do not try to influence how this is done, although individual candidates sometimes call for greater attention to the development of national pride. Interest groups, however, are active in influencing how this domain is taught. Therefore, we have chosen to focus our attention on interest groups rather than political parties. For this reason, we sent a questionnaire to representatives of approximately 50 interest groups that have a stake in civic education. We also asked participants in our survey of state social studies coordinators a number of questions related to interest groups.

Interest groups tend to be less concerned with how students are taught than what they are taught. Interest groups provide materials, monetary support, scholarships, and opportunities for teacher development. They also sponsor academic contests. Interest groups vary in the strategies they use to promote their agendas. Methods include making speakers or information available to schools and lobbying state legislatures, school boards, or school administrators to mandate that particular courses or topics be taught.

Interest groups and other organizations can be seen as either a help or a hindrance in teaching about national identity in particular, and social studies in general. Forty three percent of those responding to our survey of state social studies coordinators viewed interest group pressure as a moderate obstacle to effective social studies instruction in grades 6 through 12 in their state. Another five percent saw interest groups as a very significant obstacle. In a slightly different question, 67% of the respondents rated the influence of interest group pressure on social studies education as moderate in their state. Five percent said that the influence of interest group pressure was very significant. Participants were also asked about the influence of parental/

community group pressure on the social studies curriculum. Responses were similar to those for interest groups.

Participants in the state survey were asked to identify groups that had been influential during the previous 24 months in influencing the social studies curriculum for grades 6 through 12. The Center for Civic Education was the only group identified by respondents from two states. Groups identified by single respondents included the American Civil Liberties Union, the American Legion, the Christian Coalition, the Eagle Forum, the state Holocaust Commission, the state Trust for Historic Preservation, the League of Women Voters, and the National History Education Alliance. Each of these groups likely has particular views as to what should be taught in schools about national identity. The National History Education Alliance was reported to have subverted the process of developing state social studies standards in one state by intervening with the Governor's Office to develop a history-centered set of standards. The respective state affiliates of the National Council for Social Studies were named by several respondents as being active in social studies. The questions about interest groups were posed in terms of social studies in general, however, so we did not have the data to determine whether the activities of the state councils impact on what was taught about national identity in particular.

Summary. A variety of interest groups and other organizations provide materials, sponsor contests, offer in-service teacher education, and/or lobby policy makers to promote the development of national identity either directly or indirectly.

p. What are the most serious obstacles or problems schools face in dealing with the topic of national identity?

On the surveys to state social studies coordinators and interest group representatives, we asked respondents what they perceived the main obstacles or problems schools face in teaching social studies and dealing with the topic domain of national history and identity. We also asked this question in our focus group interviews with teachers.

The participants in our state survey were asked the extent to which eight factors were obstacles to effective social studies instruction in grades 6 through 12 in their states. The respondents rated budget constraints and a crowded curriculum as the most serious obstacles. The second tier obstacles were a shortage of materials and inadequate teacher content knowledge. Asked to suggest other obstacles, inclusion in state testing was cited, as was exclusion from state testing. According to the respondents, inclusion created problems by too narrowly limiting what was taught, whereas exclusion meant that social studies was, at best, given nominal attention. One respondent noted that a shortage of materials was an acute problem in urban school districts in his state.

In an earlier question dealing with what it means to be an American, each group of students we interviewed stated that freedom, including freedom of speech, is a key part of being an American. It may be noteworthy, therefore, that in our state survey, 92% of the participants said that, in their opinion, social studies teachers in their state felt free to discuss controversial issues. However, of these respondents, only 9% indicated that teachers felt completely free to discuss controversial issues. Issues involving sex, sexual orientation, and HIV/AIDS were the topics most frequently identified as controversial and to be avoided in classroom discussions. Abortion and religion were the next most frequently identified issues. One respondent noted that discussion of abortion was forbidden by state law.

Asked about obstacles that they face in teaching social studies, one participant in a teacher focus group said,

I think it's very difficult to have candor in the classroom about some issues that are sensitive. You have parental concerns, you have administrative concerns. The whole idea of fear of liability, fear of being perceived as possibly insensitive to any person, I think is an obstacle.... Which is not to say that you can't teach about it (a controversial issue) or discuss it; but you're constantly ..., you don't want to be responsible. If a student, for example, makes a comment, you have to constantly be on your guard, and you don't want to let anything slide because you could be held responsible, or parents could be upset. Or if you spend a week looking at comparative religions, for example, you don't want a parent to call up and say 'But you didn't include my religion!' I think there are so many competing political pseudo-entitlements among constituency that it's difficult to be even handed in the time that you devote to a lot of different things (T-1, p. 31).

This teacher said that she did not avoid controversial topics. She was, however, very careful in her treatment of these topics. A second teacher in this focus group said that lack of resources was a major obstacle; a third offered that non-English speaking students were an obstacle. The teacher who had discussed controversial issues added that large class size--up to 35 students--was a problem. The public school teachers in the group agreed that large class size compounded the problem caused by non-English speakers. There were differences expressed as to the impact of parents. A private school teacher said that she had no problems related to class size, language, or resources, but she did have to be very sensitive to parents. She said that at times she felt like a personal servant to the parents. A public school teacher responded, "I can just about do whatever I want and not have to worry about any kind of parental input. There is virtually zero parental involvement in our school, so I don't necessarily have to worry." A public school teacher in a different group said that he, unfortunately, experienced no parental involvement at the urban high school where he taught.

A teacher in a second focus group also identified lack of resources as a major obstacle. A second teacher in this group complained of lack of moral support from parents. A third teacher

said that the reality of life makes it difficult for some of his students to accept the ideals of American life. He said,

Sometime you have to explain to them that in spite of all the virtues of democracy, they are treated like foreigners in a different land. It doesn't necessarily work for them. It hasn't over the years because of economics. Trying to get them to buy into it. In spite of all that, you still want to say it can work, and it has worked (T-3, p. 36).

A teacher in this group expressed his opinion that his students' poor reading skills were a major obstacle. He said that it was often difficult for teachers, "with two or three degrees," to understand students who function differently. He said, "there's a frustration level as a teacher trying to figure out how in the hell we're going to do this and these kids don't want to learn. Well, they learn but they learn differently from how we learned."

In a third focus group, one teacher expressed her opinion that the undemocratic nature of schools is a major obstacle to teaching about national identity. Another teacher in this group spoke of parents who

Are terribly scared. And that's one of the things that makes them press down so hard on those kids, wanting them to conform, conform, conform at an age when they probably should be learning how to speak for themselves and be individuals. Again, we're talking about that creative tension between the rights and the responsibilities, between the good of the group and the good of the individual. We come right back to home base again. Thank you, John Locke, you know, but do we have a responsibility to teach these kids how to rebel? We're right back where we started (T-5, p. 45).

In conclusion, the respondents to our state survey said that budget constraints and a crowded curriculum were the most serious obstacles to teaching about social studies in general. They also identified a shortage of materials and inadequate teacher content knowledge. Some of these respondents reported that inclusion in state testing was a problem, whereas others complained when social studies was excluded from testing. Several of the teachers we interviewed identified a shortage of resources as a major problem in teaching social studies. The

teachers also complained that large class sizes and students who do not speak English were a problem. The undemocratic way that schools are administered and the lack of freedom to discuss controversial topics were also identified as obstacles to effective social studies instruction by several of the teachers we interviewed.

Summary. The reader is reminded that these responses address social studies instruction in general. Based on students' unanimous identification of freedom as a key characteristic of what it means to be an American, a specific link can be made between national identity and the concern about restrictions on discussing controversial issues within schools. The other obstacles to social studies instruction in general may only be inferred to apply to teaching about national identity in particular.

q. What changes have taken place during the last 10 years in the way national identity has been dealt with in school? Have there been any recent events that have influenced the public's view of the topic? What recent projects or reforms (if any) are seen as particularly exemplary or worthy of emulation by others (even if they have not yet become widespread enough to be reported under the preceding points)?

Some states have new legislative mandates that have increased the number of social studies classes that students must take for high school graduation and some states have new state mandated testing programs. In such cases, there may be more attention given to this domain than there was in the previous ten years, when requirements were reduced in favor of electives. However, United States history has always been, and continues to be, a subject that virtually all schools teach.

The Bradley Commission in the 1980s, and now the History Project, have been active in publishing reports and newsletters to influence the teaching of history. Debates over the National Standards for History, and textbook adoption in some states, have focused attention on the emphasis placed on unity versus diversity in United States history courses. The American Historical Association and the Organization of American Historians, as well as a special interest group for history teaching within the National Council for the Social Studies have been active in trying to change what is taught in history courses in the nation's schools. National History Day competitions further influence the teaching of history, as does the Advanced Placement program for students over age 15, which would be relevant to a pre-university sample in Phase II. The contemporary movement calling for character education could also draw attention to developing patriotism or a sense of national identity.

Asked to describe upcoming changes likely to have a significant impact on how social studies is taught in grades 6 through 12 in their state, 22 of the 48 respondents to our survey of state social studies coordinators reported that their state had recently adopted, or would soon be adopting, social studies standards. Another six participants said that new assessments in social

studies had been, or were about to be, mandated; and four said that the social studies curriculum was being revised. One respondent wrote that “state history will most likely be phased out at 9th grade level and become part of 11th grade United States history.” Another said that his state hoped to launch a federally funded initiative to train social studies teachers in the use of the Internet to improve education in geography and economics. One person reported that his state no longer had a state social studies coordinator, the position having been eliminated due to a shortage of state education funds. One respondent reported enjoying more parental and community involvement at the state and local level, and another foresaw no changes. Note is made that the comments reported in this paragraph were all responses to questions asked about social studies in general. It may be reasonable to infer that the changes described will impact teaching about national identity.

Asked if anything had occurred in the past ten years to change the way social studies is taught, a teacher participating in one focus group responded that,

Every classroom has a computer, and we have labs to go to, and everything is on the Internet. In so many of the areas in civics you can just go and deal with topics, or go places and see things. So the things that you used to just be able to tell about, kids can actually go and examine themselves (T-5, p.43).

A colleague of this teacher said that she thought changing demographics had been a major source of change. Compared to the past, she said, her classes now included many more children from single parent families, children of color, and refugees. “This,” she continued, “changes who your constituents are. It changes who the citizens are. It changes who they have to react to, changes who they have to react with, it changes the whole idea of being a citizen.” A male teacher noted that the changing demographics meant that many students did not speak and understand English well. He said that this language barrier made teaching more difficult. In a different focus group, one man echoed, and extended, the concern about the change brought about by single parent families. This teacher said, “younger parents, more teenage mothers. The breakdown of the family has affected the type of children that we teach in our schools. That’s

not our problem. I mean, it is our problem, but it's not caused here."

In a different group of teachers, one woman said she found that the greater diversity of American society made social studies more interesting. She said, "I think it's made it much richer, to me, to teach American history" because so many more groups could now be included. Another teacher said that, to her, the biggest change was the acceptance of the concept of multiple intelligence's, and the consequential need to teach and assess students in many ways. This teacher added that she now saw teachers lecturing less and having students do more projects. A male colleague spoke of vastly improved curriculum materials, which he described as exciting, dynamic, and historically accurate. According to this teacher, students enjoy the new materials, which "introduce an element of fun. For me, too."

Summary. Social studies education in general appeared to be changing due to three influences. First, the standards movements was, or will be, changing instruction and assessment in most states. Second, the student population was becoming more diverse. This diversity was seen differently by different teachers. Some viewed it as an impediment to be overcome, others perceived it as breathing new life and excitement into teaching and learning. The third change agent was technology, which teachers saw as a positive force that made social studies more interesting. It can be hypothesized that education with respect to national identity was changing due to the same three factors. The teacher comment that changing demographics changed many aspects of citizenship was strong evidence that increased diversity applied to national identity in particular--a changing citizenry surely leads to a changing concept of national identity.

Social Cohesion and Social Diversity Domain

Core International Framing Question III

What are young people expected or likely to have learned by age 14 or 15 about those belonging to groups which are seen as set apart or disenfranchised (as defined, for example, by ethnicity, race, immigrant status, mother tongue, social class, religion, or gender)?

What groups (if any) are viewed as subject to discrimination in contemporary society? How are instances of past oppression or discrimination dealt with in civic education? If differences exist between men and women or between minority and non-minority groups in actual levels of political participation or in the extent to which they serve in positions of political leadership, are these matters discussed as issues with young people, or are these differences largely ignored?

Is there tension in the society between perceptions of the need for social cohesion and the need to recognize the cultural, social, political, and economic situation of these groups? How is conflict between these groups or between these groups and the society more broadly dealt with in education? Are attitudes and behaviors of respect and tolerance between these groups encouraged explicitly or implicitly, and how?

g. If the topic of social cohesion and social diversity is addressed as part of the official curriculum of public elementary or secondary schools, indicate all the subjects and grade levels at which it is likely to be addressed and emphasized. Emphasis here means that it is treated at several times during the year or several times a week for at least two weeks. What aspects of the topic of social cohesion and social diversity are most emphasized in the various subject matters and at the various grade levels? If there are differences between specific schools in this treatment (e.g. regional autonomy or differences between academic and vocational programs), please explain.

As was expected, there was considerable variation from one state to the next, and among school districts within a state, about what is taught, when, and how with regard to social cohesion and diversity. Only 4% of the respondents to our state survey reported that ethnic studies is taught as a separate course in grade 6 through 8 in the majority of school districts. Nineteen percent of the respondents to this survey estimated that ethnic studies is taught at grades 9 or 10, and 18% said it is taught in grade 12. Overall, 28% of the respondents said that a course like ethnic studies is taught at some grade level in the majority of school districts. However, 73% of the respondents reported that, in a majority of school districts in their state, ethnic studies is part of other courses in the grades 6 to 12 social studies curriculum. Sixty-two percent of respondents said that women's studies is included as part of other social studies courses in a majority of school districts at grades 6 to 12. Human rights was reported to be part of other courses, in a majority of school districts, by 73% of the respondents. The results of our state coordinators survey suggested that very few students ages 11 to 15 have had a course that specifically focused on ethnic studies.

As noted in previous sections, 47 of the 48 respondents to the state survey said that United States history is taught in the majority of school districts in their state, with 68% estimating that it is taught in grade 8. United States history is, therefore, the course in which most 14- to 15-year-olds are likely to have learned about social cohesion and diversity.

The state social studies coordinator we interviewed said that social studies teachers in his state,

Do teach about religion and ethnic discrimination. That gets dealt with more probably than ever before. Even though it may not be as much as it should be, and everyone doesn't do it; but I think there's more of that going on now than there has been, because we've pushed through many multicultural angles, talking about inclusion. (E-1, p. 21).

Although the attention to African-Americans had improved, the coordinator said there was still less than adequate treatment of the Native American holocaust. Furthermore, he did not think that classes talked about discrimination against gays and lesbians very much.

The expert in history education we interviewed said that in her research she found that by the end of grade 8, "all of the kids knew there was prejudice" and that "race, class, and gender were problematic in American society." Further, she noted that although they were aware there was a women's suffrage movement they did not know that protesters were arrested and forced fed. They had a general sense that immigration was a good thing in American history. Many described Martin Luther King, Jr. as a hero, but some recognized not everyone would see him that way. They thought that during the Depression everyone was poor, but they said they had not studied about that yet in school. Further, she felt that although topics in American history classes in elementary and middle school were fairly universal, the way in which they were presented is affected by the school's location:

I think location has an enormous impact on what gets taught. Which parts of American memory are going to be repressed and remembered is locational... in some ways it is another form of positionality. Where you stand is what you see and that is true for kids as well [as scholars] (E-6, p. 19).

Summary. Students in the United States are likely to learn about social cohesion and social diversity through United States history lessons and their experiences with ethnic studies as part of other courses.

h. If the textbooks used in public school in the grades which include the majority of 11- to 15-year-olds address the topic of social cohesion and social diversity, how do they usually approach it in terms of content and method? If there are multiple approaches, please indicate the extent to which each is used.

The United States is often described as “a nation of immigrants.” Immigration to the United States is described in each of the six texts reviewed. In general, the civics texts provide an historical overview of various immigrant populations and waves of immigration to the United States, with some discussion of why and how immigrants came to the United States and continue to arrive. The civics texts describe United States immigration policies of the past and the present, including graphic representations of the naturalization process.

In the United States history textbooks, immigration is viewed as an integral part of American history. For example, the history texts describe the earliest immigrants as those who arrived in the Americas from present day Siberia, the Native Americans. The texts detail the geological and geographical reasons for migration from Siberia to North America, and then present information about the earliest American civilizations, including the Aztec, Inca, Hopewell, Mound Builder, and Anasazi communities. Further information explains how particular groups in North America, such as the Iroquois, Choctaw, Creek, and Cherokee, lived within their communities.

The next wave of immigrants described in the texts includes the Protestants and Puritans, who set out for the North America in search for a place to worship freely, a democratic ideal. Throughout each textbook, reasons are given for the arrival of a variety of ethnic groups in North America, such as the Germans, French, Welsh, Irish, Scottish, Jewish, Danish, Swedish, Norwegian, English, Chinese, and Polish.

The history textbooks describe the immigrants’ experiences during different periods of United States history. These discussions often show the difficulties immigrants encountered in the new country. For example, History of the United States describes how after the passage of

the Alien and Sedition Acts in 1798, “fewer immigrants could become citizens...the president held the power to arrest disloyal immigrants or order them out of the country” (Mason, Jacobs, & Ludlum, 1992, p. 316). America: The People and the Dream explains how immigrants (especially the Chinese) were charged a 20 dollar licensing fee, created by a law passed against foreign miners of gold in California. The Story of America details how the Know-Nothing (Nativist) party “believed that too much immigration would destroy American institutions” and how they “wanted to keep the country for ‘native’ Americans” (Garraty, 1992, p. 343).

Each history textbook describes the triangular trade route driven by slavery. Slaves are described as an immigrant group forced against their will to come to the Americas. Each text describes what slaves endured in North America in colonial times, after the Revolutionary War, during the Civil War, in the West Indies, and through Reconstruction. In addition, the living conditions, religion, cultural traits, artwork, music, and education of slave culture is described.

Ethnic minorities receive little attention across the texts (see Appendix C, Table 10). Those mentioned in the civics texts are generally cited for their roles as advocates for political rights. Very few Latin American figures are cited in the history texts, with the exception of Antonio Lopez de Santa Anna, the president of Mexico in 1834 and Lorenzo de Zavala, vice president of the Republic of Texas in 1836. Although Chinese immigrants as a group are discussed in the history texts, no individual Asian-Pacific figures are cited.

Women receive significantly less coverage than men in the civics textbooks (see Appendix C, Tables 10 and 11) The three civics texts rarely highlight women as political or governmental role models. Further, the disparity between men and women in the political realm is not addressed. Women are more often discussed in the history texts than in the civics texts, although compared to the number of males addressed in the history texts, mentions of females are still low. Further, a number of the women who are discussed have marital ties to political leaders. Very few women of color are described in either the civics or history textbooks.

Advocacy groups often represent those persons thought to be less powerful in society. In the civics texts, advocacy groups are presented as a tool for gaining political influence.

Although advocacy groups do not play a prominent role in either civics or history texts, they are less likely to be mentioned in United States history texts (see Appendix C, Table 12).

Summary. In sum, students in the United States are taught about early American civilizations, immigration policies, and slavery in the widely used history textbooks that were analyzed. Very few Latin American and virtually no Asian individuals were cited in the books. Additionally, the roles and contributions of women and ethnic minorities received significantly less attention than those of Anglo, white males across the three civics textbooks analyzed for this project.

i. What kind of activities during the class period and what kind of assignments to students would be most likely to be found in the grades for 11- to 15-year-olds dealing with the topic of social cohesion and social diversity? Include a discussion of the role of classroom discussion of student opinions and the role of group or individual project work by students.

Interviews with several groups of 8th- and 9th-grade social studies teachers were conducted in different parts of the country to determine how, and what, they taught about social cohesion. The interviewed teachers reported using a variety of methods to teach this topic. Activities most often cited included role playing, simulations, group debates, speakers, and dramatic reenactments. Teacher interviews revealed that most often social cohesion and diversity was taught as part of a unit and is rarely incorporated as a stand alone unit of instruction. For example, one teacher from a southeastern school said:

When we get to the issues of antebellum days and the issue of slavery and North vs. South.....we talk about the issue of the slave trade, one of the things that I always do with my students is go back and have them talk about heritage. What happened as far as the Armenians being massacred by the Turks and having to leave their homeland and having their land taken over and being tarred, burned, and executed in front of a firing squad (T-2, p. 17).

A focus group of teachers on the west coast talked about diversity and social cohesion in most of their responses. These teachers provided a perspective that highlighted what they taught about Native Americans and the history of their state. When asked what it means to be an American citizen, one female teacher said:

We usually start with our state history and discuss the people who populate our region. We discuss who was in our state first...we look at the Native Americans, and then we begin to look at the people who came later. We do a lot of integration with literature as well. If we're talking about the building of railroads we discuss the arrival of the Chinese. When we talk about the expansion of our farmlands we discuss the Japanese arrival and

involvement with the expansion. We talk about the arrival of African Americans brought into our region, and the fact that between 300-400 African Americans made up a small town. There's a history there of who we are, and the stories that we have to tell about being American (T-4, p. 18).

Another teacher talked about an immigration-centered approach to teaching about other groups. This teacher said that, in some of her classes, her students might be required to develop either an oral or written report that addressed the cultural backgrounds and contributions made by a particular group. Because she felt the textbook often presented a white perspective to teaching history, this teacher talked about using the History Alive materials to provide a better historical perspective. In general, the focus group of teachers from the west coast said they had class discussions about immigration, stereotyping minority groups, and civil liberties.

It appears that most of the teachers interviewed used a particular unit as an opportunity to incorporate materials and activities about other groups. Teachers often cited events such as slavery, World War II, the Holocaust, and designated holidays like Martin Luther King Jr.'s Birthday, Black History Month, and Women's History Month. Most teachers we interviewed reported incorporating some form of discussion about different groups when they taught the history of their state. Teachers in the western region of the United States appeared to have more in-depth discussions and activities about the immigration of different groups to the United States than did teachers in other regions.

Surprisingly, students did not talk as much about the kinds of activities or materials teachers used to teach about different groups as did their teachers. The students we interviewed talked more about the nature of class discussions and assigned readings, such as the Diary of Anne Frank and To Kill A Mocking Bird. Several students said they had read these and other books about racism and discrimination in classes such as English or Literature. More often students spoke about the nature of their class discussions and the topics related to social cohesion that were covered in their social studies classes.

Like most of their teachers, the students who participated in our focus groups mentioned

topics or lessons about slavery, the civil rights movement, the Holocaust, and women's rights. All the students we talked to reported that they had learned about discrimination based on gender and religion. Some students said that they had learned more outside of class about other groups than they had learned in class. This was especially true for students who attended schools that had a critical mass of students who were members of a minority group such as Hispanics, Asians, or Native Americans. However, one group of students we interviewed reported learning very little about minority groups. A student in that group expressed the view that the teachers were afraid to teach about different groups.

The social studies coordinator in one state reported that a large urban school system in his state had provided in-service training for teachers around a set of "baseline essays" associated with an Afrocentric curriculum. It was his impression, however, that teachers used the recommended activities as supplements to, rather than substitutes for the traditional curriculum.

Summary. The kind of activities teachers used to deal with social cohesion and diversity and the focus on particular groups seemed to vary by location of the school. Teachers seem to implement more instructional activities related to this domain, in areas where there is greater sensitivity to particular groups.

j. Does the public school have examinations or other formal assessments which address in a substantial way what 11- to 15-year-olds have learned with respect to the topic domain of social cohesion and social diversity?

From our state survey we learned that, for about half of the states, a required state or district assessment effects what is taught in social studies. Teacher interviews did not focus on assessment for this domain. The interviews did suggest that assessments with respect to social cohesion and social diversity were usually teacher developed. Teachers reported that projects and assignments were evaluated by individual teachers. None of the teachers we interviewed reported a state or national requirement for testing in this domain.

Questions about social cohesion probably appear in examinations and assessments most often in terms of measuring student knowledge about significant national symbols, documents, leaders, and events. Student assessment in this domain tends to be related to determining knowledge about such leaders as Martin Luther King Jr. As noted in the responses to the previous set of questions related to national identity, the fallibility of leaders and laws are likely to play a role in assessment where popular history has shown them to be fallible as in the case of Jim Crow Laws and Plessy v Ferguson. Similarly, those events in American history which are generally treated as misguided or unethical, such as the Trail of Tears or slavery, may appear in assessments.

Summary. Assessments that might measure knowledge in this domain are usually teacher developed. Topics in this domain may appear on newly developed state competency tests.

k. What common extracurricular activities, ceremonies, or other occasions inside the public schools give 11- to 15-year-olds the opportunity to learn more about or gain experience relating to social cohesion and social diversity?

Although in some school districts there are special programs designed to foster intergroup relations, students in our focus groups described few school sponsored extracurricular activities that provided opportunities to learn about social cohesion and diversity. Students at two schools in the southeast did say that their participation in sports activities--such as football, swimming, and field events--provided opportunities to learn about different groups and to work as a team with people from different groups.

Most students spoke about the opportunity to socialize, during and after school, with students who were members of minority groups, or groups other than their own, as creating the greatest opportunity to learn about social cohesion and diversity. Students in each of our interview sessions spoke of learning about other groups outside of the school setting. Several students talked about the diversity of their neighborhoods and schools, and said that these settings provided the opportunity to learn about different groups.

Summary. It appears that in some schools, the composition of the school was the most powerful means of teaching about different groups in the United States. Most of the students we interviewed told us that they learned about different groups from socializing with students at their school who were members of a culture or group different from their own race or culture.

l. What common activities, ceremonies, or other occasions outside school give 11- to 15-year-olds (including any early school leavers) opportunities to learn more about or gain experience relating to social cohesion and social diversity (e.g. youth organizations, public ceremonies organized by national or subnational groups, museum exhibitions, religious ceremonies or education).

There are a number of national and local groups that sponsor activities outside school to give 11- to 15-year-olds opportunities to learn more about diversity. The state survey yielded information about groups that are active in particular states. An annotated bibliography highlighting some of these organizations is attached to another report, Responses to 18 Framing Questions.

Summary. Surprisingly, none of the teachers or students who participated in our focus groups mentioned any of the organizations that are referenced in the bibliography of this project. Students who talked about what they learned about different groups outside the classroom most often talked about what they learned while traveling in the United States.

m. What training (pre-service and inservice) are teachers for this age group likely to have received in the content of the topic of social cohesion and social diversity and in methods for dealing with it in class? Are certain aspects of the topic more likely to have been dealt with than other aspects? Have teachers been trained in using strategies such as discussion of student opinions or project work relating to this content? Are teachers who lack any formal training related to this topic likely to be assigned to teach about it? Are teachers likely to be influenced in what or how they teach about this topic by standards expressed in the curriculum, or by tests students must take, or by the opinions of parents, or by explicit or implicit national goals?

Teacher interviews revealed that teachers of classes such as civics have had some training in the content of the topic related to social cohesion and diversity. Several teachers said that they had taken a course in ethnic studies during college. Some teachers said they had attended district sponsored workshops on multicultural education and diversity. However, teacher training related to this domain appeared to vary considerably.

The focus group of teachers on the west coast talked about their inservice training on sexual harassment. A female teacher said that the district office provided booklets on how to deal with sexual harassment in the classroom. This group of teachers said that they had a very active cultural diversity committee which provided speakers and materials on diversity.

A female teacher in one southeastern school said that her school was very committed to diversity and social cohesion:

Our whole preplanning this year was devoted to issues of race in the classroom.... Last year we had a gender day inservice which was devoted to issues of gender discrimination.

I would say the in-service opportunities are probably the greatest in this category than in all other categories (T1, p.30).

A teacher from another school in the southeastern United States said that his school sponsored an International Month and that this activity provided the opportunity to learn information relevant to teaching this domain.

The newly developed Curriculum Standards for Social Studies, National Standards for Civics and Government, and National Standards for History all give some attention to teaching about social cohesion and diversity. Our interviews with teachers revealed that efforts to implement these standards were variable. Only a few teachers made reference to the standards during the interviews.

The state social studies coordinator we interviewed attributed the improved teaching in this domain to the extensive in-service training in multicultural education that had occurred in recent years. The history education expert said that she found most teachers were aware of and used Black History Month to teach about African American experiences and contributions to American society. However, few teachers had learned that Womens History Month in March was also a potential springboard for teaching in this domain.

Summary. In general, most of the teachers we talked to said that they had received considerable in-service training about teaching this domain. However, few teachers made reference to information learned, or courses taken, as part of their initial teacher preparation as helpful in teaching about the topic of this domain.

n. To what extent are 11- to 15-year-olds likely to be active consumers of material presented by the media (television, radio, newspaper, electronic communication networks) with regard to social cohesion and social diversity? What information and attitudes are they likely to find in those sources that would be especially pertinent to the various aspects of the topic of social cohesion and diversity?

Several students at one school in the southeastern United States said that the media were not necessarily a good way to learn about diversity. These students held the perception that the media often presented a biased view of some groups. One student said that the media covered too much information that was simply of no interest to students. More important, this student expressed the perception that much of what was covered on networks like CNN held little relevance to the life experiences of students at his school.

When responding to the question regarding the extent to which the media presents material about national identity a number of students expressed the perception that television talk shows provided them with the opportunity to learn about the variety of problems faced by different groups of people in America. One group of students said that the wide variety of different types of music played helped reinforce the idea that Americans are a diverse people.

Summary. Our interviews with small groups of students revealed that students between the ages of 11- and 15-years old primarily use the media for entertainment purposes, and only incidentally acquire knowledge and attitudes that contribute to their understanding about diversity in America. The media do seem to heighten students' understanding of the negative aspects of race relations in American society today. In general, it appears that the students we interviewed appear to maintain a skepticism of the media.

o. How much and in what ways do political parties attempt to influence what 11- to 15-year-olds think and do with regard to the topic of social cohesion and social diversity?

In the United States, there was a broad consensus that schools should teach about social cohesion and diversity. For the most part, political parties did not attempt to influence exactly what students learn about this topic. Individual politicians did, however, speak out during the 1996 political campaign, which occurred during data collection for this project, on the issue of inclusion and the emphasis on diversity in the history standards. Of the many interest groups that did attempt to influence what was taught in social studies classes, several addressed this domain. For that reason, this question was answered in terms of interest groups, rather than political parties.

Our survey of state coordinators asked coordinators to identify the interest groups most active at the state level in their particular state. Also some interest groups did respond to our interest group survey and an examination of organizational Web sites provided further information. The annotated bibliography attached to the document Responses to 18 Framing Questions reveals that there are a number of groups that have an interest in this domain. Groups such as the Heritage Foundation, the Humphrey Institute, the National Association for Bilingual Education, the National Association for Multicultural Education, the National Center for Innovation, and state Holocaust Commissions sponsor activities for students or teachers, provide educational materials or speakers, and take positions related to diversity and multiculturalism.

Summary. Although numerous groups exist to teach about social cohesion and diversity, it was not evident from our interviews that students and teachers perceive their influence. An interview with a state social studies coordinator reinforced reports in our state survey that organizations are active in this area.

p. What are the most serious obstacles or problems schools face in dealing with the topic of social cohesion and social diversity?

Teachers in our focus group interviews were asked what they perceived to be the main obstacles in teaching about social cohesion and diversity. Teacher responses to this question provided some insight into the obstacles or problems that teachers struggle with when teaching about this domain. One teacher at a large metropolitan school identified a lack of resources as a major obstacle to exposing students to a variety of cultural experiences:

I have to look at the lack of resources to expose the children to a lot of these things that we talk about and try to interact and provide strategies for it within the classroom.....I would love to have my students, go on an international trip maybe to Germany, where the wall was, or something like that (T-3, p. 35).

Another teacher in this focus group said that a lack of family support was an obstacle to teaching about this domain. This teacher held the view that social cohesion and diversity are very important topics, but students do not receive reinforcement from home about the economic significance of learning about different groups.

A central theme of much of the discussion with this focus group was the teachers' perceptions that their school environments were coercive with regard to the student body. These teachers talked about the ways in which the day-to-day practices at their school presented them with a number of challenges to teach in general. One teacher said that another obstacle at this school was related to the students' inability to read, understand, and interpret material. This teacher also held the view that students were not supported or motivated by their home environments.

A teacher from the west coast of the United States told us that, in her opinion, a lack of knowledge about minority groups and a shortage of materials were obstacles to teaching about minority groups. Another teacher said that coverage of this topic was limited by the time available. A female teacher in the southeastern United States said:

It's very difficult to have candor in the classroom about some issues that are sensitive. You have parental concerns, you have administrative concerns. The whole idea of fear of liability, the fear of being perceived as possibly insensitive to any person, I think is an obstacle (T-1, p. 31).

Summary. Overall, the teacher focus groups revealed several obstacles teachers face when teaching this topic. The obstacles were teachers' lack of knowledge, limited resources, time constraints, and a fear of controversy in the classroom.

q. What changes have taken place during the last 10 years in the way this topic has been dealt with in school? Have there been any recent events that have influenced the public's view of the topic of social cohesion and social diversity? What recent projects or reforms (if any) are seen as particularly exemplary or worthy of emulation by others?

In the 1970s, many high schools added new electives in courses such as Black history and women's history. In the 1990s, many states increased the number of required courses. However, the effect on electives of the new requirements has been inconsistent. Whereas 33% of the state consultants responding to the survey reported that the number of electives had remained constant in a majority of districts in their state, 26% said the number had declined, and 26% said the number had increased. Most electives were offered to juniors and seniors in high school, not to students aged 14 and 15. Most 14- to 15-year-olds seemed to be exposed to this topic domain primarily in United States history and English lessons.

In 1992, during the quincentennial observation of Columbus' voyage, there was media attention focused on the ways in which the topic was handled. The media attention lead members of the public to debate how school history should be taught with respect to diverse views. In 1994-1995, when the National Standards for History came before Congress, there was much media attention on the emphasis on social cohesion or diversity. Even one of the candidates in the presidential election that occurred during data collection for this project spoke out on the issue. In the 1990s, there was also media attention focused on Afro centric curriculum projects adopted by a few urban systems, and to the diverse reactions to these projects.

Summary. The National Council for the Social Studies has long had guidelines for multicultural education. These guidelines were recently revised. Similarly, social studies conferences regularly hold sessions and host speakers related to multicultural education. Beyond

the specific field of social studies, many professional organizations have given attention to multicultural education. Increased attention has been a response to the changing demographics of the nations's student population.

Economics and Government Policy Domain

Core International Framing Question IV

To what extent are young people expected or likely to have learned by age 14 or 15 that economic principles (such as free market principles versus state intervention and control over the provision of goods and services) are connected with government or political issues?

Are young people to be taught that it is the state's responsibility to give protection from such threats as unemployment, illness, homelessness, or hunger, or are they to be taught that these are private matters which are not the responsibility of the state? If youth unemployment is high, is this dealt with as a political issue in school?

Some of the students we interviewed said that, in their social studies class, they did not talk much about the connection between the economy and democracy. Several said that the topic had never been mentioned in class, but they expressed their opinion that the government should provide benefits to the people. A few students told us that they had talked about welfare. Several students said that they had discussed government regulations and taxes, and one expressed the opinion that:

Taxes are pretty much fair.... The president can't really do anything bad because they have all these other people watching them all the time. In other countries the presidents are pretty much like dictators so they can take the money if they want to (S-4, p.42).

When one group of students was asked if the government should provide benefits to the people, the students replied that this topic had never been raised in class. However, a few students recalled learning that the government was supposed to take care of the sick, the homeless, and the unemployed.

One teacher, participating in a focus group, commented that she tried to emphasize the

connection between the economy and democracy, in her class. This teacher had her students compare economic systems and answer the question of whether one could “have a politically free country without a free market.”

Some of the middle school teachers we interviewed complained that they hardly had time to teach economics. In this group of teachers, those who did talk about the economy said that they emphasized that the government controlled the money supply and, therefore, government policies effected the economy. One teacher said that she taught the two concepts, democracy and the economy, at two different levels and that, “it’s hard for me even to find a place where I draw the connection between democracy and the economy for these kids.”

According to the director of a southeastern state Council on Economic Education, the vision of the Council was of students staying in school and becoming aware of their economic roles as consumers, workers, and citizens. The Council’s mission, said the director, was to help teachers convey this vision to their students. In the state served by this Council, a course in economics was required for high school graduation. The director said that some 14- and 15-year-olds would have taken the mandated high school course, whereas other students would not take the course until the 11th or 12th grade. The director added that the relationship between government and the economy was studied within the context of macroeconomic theory. This, he said, was where the students would also learn about the different types of unemployment, and how to measure unemployment. The director ended the interview with the comment that, “when I say our vision is of students leaving school prepared for their economic roles as workers, consumers, and citizens, we think our ... role of (promoting) citizenship important, most important.”

In another interview, a state social studies coordinator expressed doubts about whether 14- or 15-year-olds learned about economic responsibilities of the government. “They never take it to the level ... there are people without clothes There are homeless people. What can you do to make sure that everyone has something to eat? We never take it to social, civic action,” said the coordinator. The coordinator believed that schools taught about capitalism.

“Look at the official name of the mandated course, it’s not economics, it’s ‘principles of economics, business, and free enterprise.’ That’s what we teach.... We don’t teach comparative government. We don’t teach comparative economic systems,” he said.

g. Indicate all the subjects and grade levels at which connections between economics and government policy is likely to be addressed and emphasized. Emphasis here means that it is treated at least several times during the year or several times a week for at least two weeks. What aspects of the topic are most emphasized in the various subject matters and at the various grade levels? If there are differences between specific schools in this treatment (e. g. regional autonomy or differences between academic and vocational programs), please explain.

According to the state survey data, economics or free enterprise was infrequently taught in grades 6 through 8. Instead, the subject was often taught in high school, with about 40% of the respondents saying that their state had a statewide requirement for an economics course. The respondents to the survey reported that economics was most often taught in the 12th grade.

One state director of a Council on Economic Education associated with the National Council on Economic Education was interviewed. He said that by the time students reach the 9th grade they have been explicitly exposed to economic concepts integrated throughout the ongoing curriculum. Most of the time, it is through the context of United States history, world history, and state studies. The fundamental concepts they would learn would include concepts of scarcity, production and consumption, and factors of production. The state social studies coordinator in that state also noted that the competencies students were to achieve in social studies included economics objectives for each grade level. Still he felt that because teachers are afraid of economics, they tend to be textbook dependent and textbooks deal with goods and services, and needs and wants. Further, he said, before ages 14 to 15, students are not likely to talk about civic action, such as volunteerism, or what the government is doing or could do for the poor.

This economic education council director went on to say that through the 9th grade students were typically learning what may be called "micro ideas." The specific connection between the government and economic systems was usually dealt with in the "macro economic" course. Macro economics was where the students would learn about the "big picture," and it is

here where they would ask the central question : “What is the relationship and what is the primary role of government in the economy in different economic systems?” He added that macro economics was often viewed as “very difficult for students to understand,” and therefore was only taught at the 12th grade level.

Summary. From the survey and the expert interview it may be concluded that the connection between government policy and economics is usually addressed in the 12th grade. Till then, economic concepts are taught within social studies, history, and civics lessons.

h. If the textbooks used in public school in the grades which include the majority of 11- to 15-year-olds address the topic of the relationship between government policy and the economy, how do they usually approach it in terms of content and method? If there are multiple approaches, please indicate the extent to which each is used. (Note: This requires some actual analysis of what is presented and emphasized regarding this topic domain in a relevant set of text materials).

Each of the three civics textbooks we analyzed described the economic system in the United States in terms of a free market system. Specifically, students are taught the relationship between business and economics, government and economics, labor and economics, and mass production and the distribution of goods and services. Each text detailed the role that labor unions played in labor-management relationships. The texts, implicitly and explicitly, tended to support government provision of baseline services to American citizens (garbage removal, police and fire services), leaving the citizen to his or her own resources after that. One textbook quoted Abraham Lincoln: “the legitimate object of government is to do for people what needs to be done but which they cannot by individual effort do at all or do so well for themselves.” The authors continued with the statement that Lincoln knew that government could grow too large and spend too much money. However, the three civics textbooks described the independent agencies of the executive branch of the United States government that attempted to ameliorate the effects of unemployment, illness, homelessness, hunger, natural disaster, and other harm to the individual.

Adolescent unemployment was not covered within the civics textbooks in the sections on economics. Instruction was given on planning and using budgets, being a careful shopper, saving and investing, borrowing and buying on credit, insurance, consumer interests, and writing checks. The importance of future careers and work opportunities was covered in one of the texts.

Like democracy and communism, capitalism and communism were contrasted in each of the three civics texts. Capitalism received discussion as the economic system that allows all members of the society to make economic decisions. Communism was portrayed as leaving the citizen with no choices in her or his life. There was little examination of poverty and unequally distributed resources in the United States. Possible inadequacies in a capitalist economy were not addressed in the three civics books we analyzed.

Summary. The civics textbooks examined give an overview of the connection between government and economics. There is little examination of poverty and unequally distributed resources in the United States, and the possible inadequacies of a capitalist economy were not addressed.

i. What kind of activities during the class period and what kind of assignments to students would most likely be found in the grades for 11- to 15-year-olds dealing with the relationship between the economy and government policy? Please illustrate with concrete examples and discuss any likely variation between schools. Include a discussion of the role of classroom discussion of student opinions and the role of group or individual project work by students. Also include a discussion of any gaps between idealized statements about the relationship between the economy and government policy and the realities of students' experience in classrooms.

A variety of activities were mentioned by the students and teachers in our focus groups. Most of the students we interviewed in one state said that they had played “the stock market game.” Students from one class said they had done an exercise in which they had to prepare a personal budget. One student said that his class often went to the library to do research using recent economics-related magazines. The research assignment was to analyze what was written in the magazines about the government’s role in the economy, and to try “to see their (the writers’) points of view.” Another student talked about conducting surveys about the jobs students would like to do after high school, because “everybody doesn’t have to go to college.”

Several teachers who participated in our focus groups said that they frequently conducted discussions and debates in their classes. One teacher described a class discussion where:

We’re looking at the government of these ... countries, and then our relationship (with these countries) which is usually economic ... and then how the different governments deal with the laws, regulations, and, well the culture of the area..... It’s so integrated.... We’ll look at China, for example, right now, and their move toward capitalism, but their legal system is different from that (T-4, p. 17).

Another teacher described comparing capitalism and socialism by having students buy and sell things in the classroom. The students were told to analyze what could, or could not, be bought or sold, and asked if everything is a commodity in the free market system. One teacher said that, with parental permission, he had students buy their own food for one week. The

teacher related this to the government run Thrift Food Plan. Several teachers said they discussed income taxes in their classes. One teacher asked students who had part-time jobs what percentage of their wages went to the government, what the government did with this money, and whether or not taxation was fair. Some of the teachers we interviewed described using the Wall Street Journal classroom edition to teach about the connection between democracy and the economy. One teacher said that he had students do research in various stores to compare the prices of international and American goods.

While talking about the various activities used to teach about the connection between economics and politics the director of a state Council on Economic Education noted that, in his state, the stock market game drew about 20,000 students each fall and spring. He added that, beginning in the fall of 1997, the game would also be playable on the Internet. The director also mentioned Students In Free Enterprise, a project that sends groups of college students into the schools to present entrepreneurship related programs.

Summary. On the whole students and teachers spoke about various activities and assignments that were done in classes. The director of a state Council on Economic Education also mentioned some of the activities the Council supported in classrooms.

j. Does the public school have examinations or other formal assessments which address in a substantial way what 11- to 15-year-olds have learned with respect to the relationship between government policy and the economy? If so, please summarize the type of examinations, the age of students when they take these assessments, what aspects of the topic are most emphasized, and what regional or other variations exist.

The teachers we interviewed did not describe the use of any unique assessments related to this domain. Rather, they said assessment was basically the same for all the social studies subjects, and included essays, book reports, projects, and traditional tests. One teacher said that she believed that economics involved a great deal of content knowledge and, therefore, she gave many unit tests. There is no national examination that all students take. However, the NAEP periodically assesses the knowledge of students in a representative sample of schools, and a few items on civics, history, and social studies assessments deal with this domain, as do items on some state competency tests. The state social studies coordinator we interviewed said that in reporting results on his state's high school graduation test, a subscore for U.S. history and economics after 1865 was given. The National Council on Economic Education has developed a Test of Economic Literacy that has been administered to some samples of students 14 to 15 years old.

k. What common extracurricular activities, ceremonies, or other occasions inside the public schools give 11- to 15-year-olds the opportunity to learn more about or gain experience relating to the relationship between government policy and the economy. Please summarize the nature of these activities, ceremonies, or occasions, how they are relevant to the relationship between economics and government policy, what students are expected to gain from them, and what proportion of 14- to 15-year-olds are likely to have these experiences.

Economics instruction usually takes place in the classroom or when students participate in class-related activities such as state level competitions of the Stock Market Game. Some extracurricular activities serve as an introduction to capitalist practice and principles. For example, teachers in one focus group mentioned that students participated in the Junior Achievement program. School stores run by students from the elementary through high school are not uncommon. However, the degree to which such experiences translate into an understanding of the relationship between economics and government policy is questionable.

1. What common activities, ceremonies, or other occasions outside school give 11- to 15-year-olds (including any early school leavers) opportunities to learn more about or gain experience relevant to the relationship between government policy and the economy. Please summarize the nature of these activities, ceremonies, or occasions and what students are expected to gain from them.

Many of the students we interviewed said that they learned about connections between government policy and the economy by working part-time and paying social security taxes. The students said that the common act of buying and selling demonstrated there were different sales taxes in the different states. Several students told us that they learned about taxes and the balancing of checkbooks from their parents. A teacher participating in one of our focus groups said students learned “all these things” at home.

m. What training (pre-service and in-service) are teachers for this age group likely to have received relevant to the relationship between government policy and the economy and in methods for dealing with the topic in class? Are certain aspects of the topic more likely to have been dealt with than other aspects? Have teachers been trained in using strategies such as discussion of student opinions (in the whole class or small groups) or project work relating to this content? Are teachers who lack any formal training related to this topic likely to be assigned to teach about it? Are teachers likely to be influenced in what or how they teach about this topic by standards expressed in the curriculum, or by tests students must take, or by the opinions of parents, or by explicit or implicit national goals?

Many of the teachers in our focus groups agreed that, compared to the other social studies subjects, a good deal of academic preparation was required to teach economics. Several teachers named the state Council on Economic Education as an organization that provided help to economics teachers. We were told also that some colleges of education at state universities often provided special courses on how to teach economics. The teachers in our focus groups said that there were ample inservice opportunities related to the teaching of economics available to them.

The director of a state Council on Economic Education said that the Council conducted workshops and provided materials for teachers. The director added that the Council supported not only the teaching of economics as a stand-alone subject, but also its integration with other subjects such as civics, government, geography, history, home economics, business education, or vocational courses. The director described a series of graduate credit summer workshops that the Council offered:

We deliver ... programs primarily through our Centers on Economic Education. They are located on fourteen college and university campuses.... Nationwide there's a Council like ours in almost every state ... and there's somewhere between 250 and 300 centers on college and university campuses. And the traditional vehicle for delivering workshops is graduate credit summer workshops (E-3, p. 2).

When asked about the materials that were offered to teachers by the Council, the director said that grade appropriate materials were provided at no cost to workshop participants. Therefore, he said, most workshop participants left with a complete library of materials. The director explained that the materials provided by the Council fell under two categories. The first category consisted of materials developed by the national and state Councils. Materials in the second category were developed by other organizations such as the Foundation for Teaching Economics, Junior Achievement, and the Hugh O'Brien Youth Leadership Group.

The director of a state Council on Economic Education talked about Economics At Work, a National Council on Economic Education and the Agency for Instructional Technology project for high school economics. This project, he told us, used multimedia, laser disk technology. This project was becoming very popular with economics teachers, he said. The director also spoke about Virtual Economics. Virtual Economics, he said, was a National Science Foundation funded CD ROM economics tutorial for teachers that included a database of about 35,000 pages of lesson plans, text, and support materials. The project was funded by the National Science Foundation.

The state social studies coordinator also spoke about the in-service workshops that were available to the teachers. He said,

Materials are available to teachers all over the state, free, you just have to ask. You just have to go to the workshop and get them. I think the teachers that have participated in those workshops have a really good track record of going back and using materials and applying what they had learned to their teaching (E-1, p. 23).

Summary. On the whole, the state Council director and the state social studies coordinator emphasized that teachers have access to ample in-service training. The teachers we talked to also described many in-service opportunities to learn about this domain. However, it is not known what percentage of social studies teachers actually participate in such programs.

n. To what extent are 11- to 15-year-olds likely to be active consumers of material presented by the media (television, radio, newspapers, electronic communication networks) with regard to the relationship between government policy and the economy? What information and attitudes are they likely to find in those sources that would be especially pertinent to the various aspects of the Core International Framing Question's topic?

Several students we interviewed said that they learned a substantial amount about the economy and its connection with government policy from various magazines and newspapers. Some teachers in our focus groups referred to programs, aired by the Public Broadcasting System, that talked about changes in the economy and how these changes came about. One of the teachers said she used video tapes of these programs in her teaching.

Summary. Our sources indicated that there were powerful tools available through the media for teaching about the connection between economics and government policy. Further, our sources said, the use of these tools was increasing.

o. How much and in what ways do political parties attempt to influence what 11- to 15-year-olds think and do with regard to the relationship between government policy and the economy?

In the United States, there has been a broad consensus that schools should teach about capitalism and democracy. For the most part, political parties did not attempt to influence what students learned about this topic. Of the many interest groups that attempt to influence what is taught in social studies classes, several address this domain. For that reason we decided to answer this question in terms of interest groups, rather than political parties. In our state survey, we asked social studies coordinators to identify which interest groups were the most active at the state level. Most respondents said that the state Council on Economic Education affiliated with the National Council on Economic Education was quite active, particularly in providing in-service opportunities.

In addition to the state and National Councils on Economic Education, the Foundation for Teaching Economics, and Junior Achievement are particularly active as noted in responses to other questions related to this domain. Further, as a Council director noted, groups such as the Hugh O'Brien Youth Leadership Group, and the Students in Free Enterprise are active. Additionally, the Federal Reserve banks, the Consumer Credit Counseling Service, the Internal Revenue Service, agricultural cooperatives and labor unions do provide materials as do private corporations such as Visa, Amoco, Procter and Gamble, MacDonalds, and insurance companies. The Council director said that his state Council screens materials for appropriateness before distributing them. Additionally, he perceived that the corporate world for the most part had backed away from producing materials in recent years.

Summary. Interest groups differ in their beliefs about the degree to which government has a role to play in regulating the economy and about what and how students are taught about government's role. Interest groups differ in their beliefs about which level of government should administer social welfare benefits or even whether providing social welfare is a government responsibility. Interest groups differ about when, how, and how much teaching of economic

principles and practices should be incorporated into the teaching of civics. Interest groups that espouse a free market economy have been especially active in attempting to influence what is taught. Interest groups with ties to labor have also been concerned with influencing what is taught.

p. What are the most serious obstacles or problems schools face in dealing with the topic of the relationship between government policy and the economy?

One teacher said that he always had to keep in mind that the administration had to approve of what teachers were doing in the classroom. This teacher saw the oversight by administrators as an obstacle to effectively teach this domain. Many of the public school teachers we interviewed identified a lack of resources as the most serious obstacle to teaching about the relationship between government policy and economics. This viewpoint was, however, in marked contrast to what the state social studies coordinator and director of a state Council for Economic Education told us. The two experts both talked about the abundance of free materials available to teachers for teaching about government and the economy.

q. What changes have taken place during the last 10 years in the way the relationship between government policy and the economy has been dealt with in school? Have there been any recent events that have influenced the public's view of the topic? What recent projects or reforms (if any) are seen as particularly exemplary or worthy of emulation by others (even if they have not yet become widespread enough to be reported under the preceding points)?

Some of the teachers in our focus groups said that there had been no substantial change in methods and the curriculum for teaching this topic over the past 10 years. On the other hand, one teacher enthusiastically said that, although resources for teaching social studies were lacking, some of the instructional material had “really come a long way.” The new materials “were exciting and dynamic, and kids like them.” A few teachers commented that more of their colleagues in social studies were now emphasizing student projects rather than just lecturing and assigning readings from the book.

In the 1970s and 1980s, upon the urging of interest groups such as the Chamber of Commerce, several state legislatures mandated a course in economics for high school graduation. Where the course was not mandated, it was usually offered as an elective in the 11th- and 12th-grades. In either case, only in a few states would students have had a course in economics by the time they are 15 years-old; most students who take economics do so later in their high school careers. However, the National Council on Economic Education has long promoted the teaching of economics at all grade levels. The extent to which the network of state affiliates of that organization have been successful in promoting economics instruction within social studies classes prior to grade 10 varies.

During the Bush administration, when the Goals 2000 Project was launched, the administration and Congress decided on education goals in the areas of history, geography, and civics. Because economics was noticeably absent, the National Council on Economic Education then launched a project to develop Voluntary Content Standards in Economics. Additionally, the National Standards for Civics and Government and the Curriculum Standards for Social Studies

both give attention to economic understanding as an important component of citizenship education. Further, social studies conferences regularly have sessions and speakers related to economic education.

Summary. Overall we may say that there has been a recent trend to encourage the teaching of economics in the public schools. Although some complain that there have been few changes in methods and curriculum, there has been a large increase in the resources available to teach economics.

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APPENDIX A

Instruments

State Survey
Organizations Survey
Student Focus Group-Interview Protocol
Teacher Focus Group-Interview Protocol

IEA CIVICS PROJECT - STATE SURVEY

Part I. Social Studies Courses Taught in Grades 6 Through 12

01. Do the **majority** of school districts in your state teach the following courses in grades 6-12? If yes, please indicate at what grade(s) each subject is usually taught.

- | | | |
|--|--------------------------------|-------|
| (a) State history | Yes __ (Grade(s) taught _____) | No __ |
| (b) U.S. history | Yes __ (Grade(s) taught _____) | No __ |
| (c) World history | Yes __ (Grade(s) taught _____) | No __ |
| | | |
| (d) State and local government | Yes __ (Grade(s) taught _____) | No __ |
| (e) U.S. government / civics | Yes __ (Grade(s) taught _____) | No __ |
| (f) World geography or area studies | Yes __ (Grade(s) taught _____) | No __ |
| | | |
| (g) Global studies / issues | Yes __ (Grade(s) taught _____) | No __ |
| (h) Economics or free enterprise | Yes __ (Grade(s) taught _____) | No __ |
| (i) Sociology, anthropology, or psychology | Yes __ (Grade(s) taught _____) | No __ |
| | | |
| (j) Ethnic studies | Yes __ (Grade(s) taught _____) | No __ |
| (k) Law | Yes __ (Grade(s) taught _____) | No __ |
| (l) Other _____ | Yes __ (Grade(s) taught _____) | No __ |

02. Is there a **statewide** requirement for the following **courses** in your state for grades 6-12, and if yes, what is the length of these courses?

- | | | |
|---|-------------------------------|-------|
| (a) U.S. history | Yes __ (Year __ Sem./Qtr. __) | No __ |
| (b) Civics / U.S. government / citizenship | Yes __ (Year __ Sem./Qtr. __) | No __ |
| (c) Economics / free enterprise | Yes __ (Year __ Sem./Qtr. __) | No __ |
| (d) Other _____ | Yes __ (Year __ Sem./Qtr. __) | No __ |
| | | |
| (e) If a course is not required, but content in any
of the above subjects is required, please explain. _____ | | |

Part II. Texts and Tests

03. Does your state have a textbook adoption policy? Yes ___ No ___
If yes, at what grade levels? 6 through 8 ___ 9 through 12 ___
If yes, please attach a list of the approved books for U.S. history, civics/U.S. government,
and economics instruction in grades 6-12, and return with this questionnaire.

Whether or not your state has a textbook adoption policy, please provide your best estimate of the most widely used textbooks for U.S. history, civics/U.S. government, and economics instruction in grades 6-12 in your state.

Text Name and Author and/or Publisher

(a) K through 5 Social Studies _____

(b) Grades 6 through 8

i) U.S. History _____

ii) Civics/U.S. Govt. _____

iii) Economics _____

(b) Grades 9 through 12

i) U.S. History _____

ii) Civics/U.S. Govt. _____

iii) Economics _____

04. Please list your best estimate of the most widely used **supplementary materials** for U.S. history, civics/U.S. government, and economics instruction in grades 6-12.

Name and Author and/or Publisher

(a) U.S. History _____

(b) Civics/U.S. Govt. _____

(c) Economics _____

05. Does your state require statewide assessment in social studies for grades 6-12? Yes ___ No ___
 If yes, at what grade level(s) is assessment required? _____

If yes, for each of the following subjects, please report the name of the tests, their authors and/or publishers, and the 6-12 grades in which testing occurs.

Subject	Test Name	and	Author and/or Publisher	Grade
(a) Govt./civics/citizenship	_____		_____	_____
	_____		_____	_____
	_____		_____	_____
(b) U.S. history	_____		_____	_____
	_____		_____	_____
	_____		_____	_____
(c) Economics	_____		_____	_____
	_____		_____	_____
	_____		_____	_____
(d) Other	_____		_____	_____

Part III. Influences on the Curriculum

06. For your state, please identify any groups that have been active during the last 24 months in influencing the grades 6-12 social studies curriculum; indicate the extent to which these groups have been active; and specify how they have exercised this influence. Please consider business, parent, religious, labor, civil rights, patriotic, political and other special interest groups.

Group	Check one		Check all that apply		
	Moderately Active	Very Active	Provides Materials	Influences Policy	Other (Specify)
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

07. Please indicate the extent to which the following are **obstacles** to effective social studies instruction in grades 6-12 in your state.

	Insignificant	Moderate	Very Significant
(a) Budget constraints	___	___	___
(b) Crowded curriculum	___	___	___
(c) Shortage of materials	___	___	___
(d) Community pressure	___	___	___
(e) Interest group pressure	___	___	___
(f) Inadequate teacher knowledge of subject	___	___	___
(g) Teacher beliefs and values	___	___	___
(h) Exclusion from state testing	___	___	___
(i) Other _____	___	___	___

08. To what extent have the following factors influenced social studies education in your state?

	Not at all	Moderate	Very Significant
(a) Legislative mandates	___	___	___
(b) Parental/community pressure	___	___	___
(c) Interest group pressure	___	___	___
(d) National standards	___	___	___
(e) State standards	___	___	___
(f) Required state/district assessment	___	___	___
(g) Other _____	___	___	___

09. Please describe any upcoming changes that are likely to significantly impact how social studies is taught in grades 6-12 in your state.

Part IV. Other Issues

10. (a) Over the last 10 years, the number of social studies electives available to students in grades 6-12 in your state has decreased__ remained constant__ increased__.

(b) Over the last 10 years, the time devoted to social studies by elementary teachers in your state has decreased__ remained constant__ increased__.

11. In your state, are there special programs in social studies for new immigrants?

Yes __ (in a few districts__ in many districts__ in most districts__) No __

If yes, describe. _____

12. Is community service or service learning encouraged in your state?

Yes __ (in a few districts__ in many districts__ in most districts__) No __

If yes, it is usually voluntary __ required __.

13. (a) In your opinion, do social studies teachers in grades 6-12 in your state feel free to discuss controversial issues?

Yes __ (somewhat free __ moderately free __ completely free __) No __

(b) What topics are considered most controversial in your state for student discussion or research in grades 6-12? _____

14. Please indicate which of the following were/are included in the grades 6-12 social studies curriculum in your state.

	Before '85	Since '85	Separate Course	Part of Other Courses	Not Offered
(a) Career Education	___	___	___	___	___
(b) Citizenship Education	___	___	___	___	___
(c) Civics/U.S. Govt.	___	___	___	___	___
(d) Economics	___	___	___	___	___
(e) Environmental Education	___	___	___	___	___
(f) Ethnic Studies	___	___	___	___	___
(g) Geography	___	___	___	___	___
(h) Global Studies	___	___	___	___	___
(i) History	___	___	___	___	___
(j) Law Related Education	___	___	___	___	___
(k) Human Rights	___	___	___	___	___
(l) Women's Studies	___	___	___	___	___

15. Please indicate the priority given to each of the following in grades 6-12 social studies in your state.

	Priority			
	Low	Medium	High	Highest
(a) Citizenship Education	___	___	___	___
(b) Civics / U.S. Government	___	___	___	___
(c) Critical Thinking and Problem Solving	___	___	___	___
(d) Current Events	___	___	___	___
(e) Economics	___	___	___	___
(f) Ethnic Studies	___	___	___	___
(g) Geography	___	___	___	___
(h) Global Education	___	___	___	___
(i) History				
family	___	___	___	___
local	___	___	___	___
state	___	___	___	___
U.S.	___	___	___	___
world	___	___	___	___
(j) Law Related Education	___	___	___	___
(k) Reading, Writing, Graph and Map Skills	___	___	___	___
(l) Other _____	___	___	___	___

Name	_____	Phone	_____
Title	_____	Fax	_____
Address	_____	E-mail	_____

Do you want to receive the results of this 50 state survey? Yes ___ No ___

THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATING IN THIS SURVEY!



IEA CIVICS PROJECT - SURVEY OF ORGANIZATIONS

Section I. Perspectives on Content

Civic and citizenship education has an important place in the curricula for American students ages 11 to 15. The following questions ask about the views of your organization on what the curriculum should be. American students are expected to learn that the United States is a democracy and that its citizens have rights and responsibilities. In the view of your organization, please indicate what students should be taught as to:

01. The most important principle(s) of democracy: _____

02. The most important right(s) of citizenship: _____

03. The most important responsibility(ies) of citizenship: _____

04. The most important institutions and processes of the U.S. government: _____

05. The realities along with the ideals of American government and politics: _____

There is considerable discussion these days about whether students should be taught about what unifies Americans or about the differences between groups of Americans. Which of these statements best describes your organization's position on this issue?

06. ___ Teach students about what groups of Americans have in common; what makes for unity among Americans.
07. ___ Teach students about both what unifies and what divides groups of Americans.
08. ___ Teach students about different groups and and the value of pluralism and diversity among Americans.

Differences in the economic and political resources among groups of Americans are sometimes discussed in civic education and social studies classes. What is your organization's view as to:

09. Which group(s) have less political influence. _____

10. Which issue(s) should be taught in order to illustrate the barriers faced by this group or these groups? _____

Another important subject taught in civic education is the connection between the government and the economy in the United States. Which of these statements best describes your organization's view about what students should be taught as to the role of the government in the economy?

11. ___ Government has no role because the U.S. has a free market economy.
12. ___ Government has some role, but is limited to stabilizing the economy in time of crisis.
13. ___ Government has a role to play in regulating the economy and providing for the economic well being of Americans.

Which of these statements best describes your organization's view about what students should be taught as to the role of the government in providing social welfare?

14. ___ Government should have no role in providing for social welfare.
15. ___ Government should provide for limited, long established general social welfare, namely social security.
16. ___ Government should provide enough welfare so that there is a social safety net.

American students are also expected to be taught about other countries and international affairs. What is your organization's view as to:

17. Which regions or countries should American students learn about? _____

18. Which international issues should be taught to American students? _____

Section II. Activities Undertaken by Groups to Promote Their Perspective on Civic Education

We would like to learn about your group's involvement on behalf of civic education. The next two questions ask about your organization's programs/materials and presentations.

19. Please use the chart below to indicate whether your association provides materials or supports activities that relate to major topics in civic education.

Civic Education Materials and Activities

Topic	Materials	Speakers	Student Competitions	Student Scholarships	Special Events	Other (Identify)
Democracy						
American Ideals						
American Government						
Diversity / Multiculturalism						
Marginalized Groups						
Economy/Economic Issues						
Soc. Welfare/Soc. Issues						
World Regions / Countries						
International Issues						
Law						

20. Please indicate, with a check mark, if your association works with any of the following entities to promote civic education.

- students, directly teachers parents school boards
- governors media municipal or county government
- state legislators school curriculum supervisors or administrators
- Others? Please identify _____

Section III. Obstacles and Changes

21. There is considerable discussion about the quality of education in the United States. Please check all of the following that your organization believes are obstacles to improving civic education

teachers: because of their competence and/or values and beliefs

textbooks

content / point of view taught in courses

school boards

parents: because of their lack of involvement and/or preferences

students: because of their lack of motivation and/or lack of discipline

television / the media

any other source? Identify _____

22. Finally, please comment on what your association considers to be the most significant change(s) in education in the last ten years and whether the changes have strengthened or weakened civic education. _____

Organization	_____	Respondent	_____
Address	_____	Title	_____
	_____	Phone	_____
	_____	Fax	_____
		E-mail	_____

Do you want to receive the results of this survey?

Yes No

Thank you very much for your participation in this survey.

STUDENT INTERVIEW

Notes to Interviewer

1. To cover all the questions in 90 minutes, use prompts only as needed.
2. Explain
 - (a) the study.
 - (b) that students are being interviewed in different parts of the country.
 - (c) confidentiality - students will not be identified in the written transcripts, tapes will be destroyed.
3. Encourage
 - (a) all participants to contribute equally.
 - (b) participants to react to what others say by expressing agreement, disagreement, or by presenting alternate points of view.

I. On Being an American (35 minutes)

To focus attention, have students jot down a few words that come to mind when they hear the words "American citizen".

1.
 - (a) What have you learned in your social studies class about what it means to be an American?
 - (b) Please describe what you have learned in other classes, besides social studies, about what it means to be an American.
 - (c) What did you learn about American heroes, leaders, historical events, and/or documents?
 - (d) What have you learned about events or times in our country's history that some people are not proud of?
 - (e) What have you learned about America's historical allies and enemies?
 - (f) What have you learned about America's contemporary allies and opponents?
 - (g) What have you learned about America's role in international affairs?
2.
 - (a) What kinds of things have you done in your classes to learn about what it means to be an American?
 - (b) Did you do any other activities and/or assignments in your classes to learn about what it means to be an American? Explain.
3. What after school, weekend, and/or vacation activities have helped you learn what it means to be an American? (Prompts: sports, scouts, church, travel, jobs.)
4. What have you learned from TV, radio, newspapers, and/or magazines about what it means to be an American? (Prompts: CNN Newsroom, talk shows, scholastic news.)

II. Minority Groups (15 minutes)

To focus attention, have students jot down a few words that come to mind when they hear the words “minority group”.

1. (a) Think about being in your social studies class. What have you learned about discrimination against groups based on religion, gender, race, language, or culture?
 (b) Please describe what you have learned in other classes, besides social studies, about discrimination against groups based on religion, gender, race, language, or culture?
 (Note which groups students initially mention, and then probe for others.)
2. (a) What kinds of things have you done in your class to learn about minority groups and discrimination?
 (b) Did you do any other activities and/or assignments in your classes to learn about minority groups? Explain.
 (c) How has the composition of the student body in your school helped you to learn about minority groups and discrimination?
3. What after school, weekend, and/or vacation activities have helped you learn about minority groups?
4. What have you learned from TV, radio, newspapers, and/or magazines about minority groups?

Break (5 minutes)

III. Democracy, Government, and Citizenship (15 minutes)

To focus attention, have students jot down a few words that come to mind when they hear the word “democracy”.

1. (a) Think about being in your social studies class. What have you learned about democracy?
 (b) Please describe what you have learned in other classes, besides social studies, about democracy.
2. (a) What does democracy mean to you?
 (b) What characteristics do most democratic countries have?
 (c) What have you learned about the different parts of government?
 (d) What have you learned about the rights and duties of citizens?
3. (a) What kinds of things have you done in your class to learn about democracy?
 (b) Did you do any other activities and/or assignments in your social studies class to learn about democracy? Explain.
4. What after school, weekend, and/or vacation activities have helped you learn about democracy?
5. What have you learned from TV, radio, newspapers, and/or magazines about democracy?

IV. Democracy and the Economy (10 minutes)

To focus attention, have students jot down a few words that come to mind when they hear the words “the economy”.

1. (a) Think about being in your social studies class. What have you learned about the connection between democracy and the economy?
(b) Please describe what you have learned in other classes, besides social studies, about connection between democracy and the economy.
2. (a) What have you learned about the role of the government in regulating the economy?
(b) What have you learned about who’s responsibility it is to take care of people who are sick, homeless, or unemployed?
3. (a) What kinds of things have you done in your class to learn about the connection between democracy and the economy?
(b) Did you do any other activities and/or assignments in your social studies class to learn about the connection between democracy and the economy? Explain.
4. What after school, weekend, and/or vacation activities have helped you learn the connection between democracy and the economy? (Prompt: What have you learned from family, jobs, and general observations of taxes and social programs?)
5. What have you learned from TV, radio, newspapers, and/or magazines about the connection between democracy and the economy?

V. Assessment (10 minutes)

1. How does your teacher determine what you know in social studies?
2. What do you do in social studies that contributes to your final grade in the class?
(Probe to separate activities that do not contribute to grades.)

TEACHER INTERVIEW - For Use By Interviewer

Notes to Interviewer

1. Explain
 - (a) the study;
 - (b) that social studies teachers are being interviewed in different parts of the country;
 - (c) confidentiality will be strictly maintained, the audio tapes will be destroyed after they are transcribed, and no names will be identified in the written transcripts.
2. Encourage
 - (a) all participants to contribute equally;
 - (b) participants to react to what others say by expressing agreement or disagreement, and/or by presenting alternate points of view.
3. Ask about
 - (a) content;
 - (b) methods;
 - (c) extracurricular activities;
 - (d) teacher preparation and in-service training opportunities.
4. Provide participant with an overview of how the interview is organized: Sections I through IV attend to specific content areas, and then sections V through VII examine factors that influence instruction.

I. Democracy, Government, and Citizenship (30 minutes)

1.
 - (a) What do you teach about conceptions of democracy?
 - (b) What do you teach about government and legal institutions?
 - (c) What do you teach about the rights and responsibilities of citizenship?
2. Please give examples of teaching strategies, students learning activities, and assignments that you have used to help students learn about democracy, government and legal institutions, and the rights and responsibilities of citizenship?
3.
 - (a) In what ways do you assess student learning in these areas?
 - (b) What percentage of grades is based on i) tests, ii) other forms of evaluation?
4. What activities are students involved in after school, on weekends, or during vacations where they learn about democracy, government and legal institutions, and the rights and responsibilities of citizenship?
5. What preparation did you have before you started teaching that has helped you to teach about this domain? (College major, content and/or methods courses, other.)
6.
 - (a) What in-service opportunities have there been since you started teaching that have helped you teach about this domain? (Workshops, courses, conferences, other.)
 - (b) Are there in-service opportunities available that you have not yet taken advantage of?
 - (c) What other resources or activities, such as the media, travel, or conferences, have helped you to teach this domain?

II. Democracy and the Economy (15 minutes)

1. What do you teach about the connection between democracy and the economy?
2. Can you give me examples of activities and assignments that you have used to help students learn about the connection between democracy and the economy?
3. You have described using ... to assess student learning in the last set of questions. Do you use any different methods to assess student learning about connections between democracy and the economy? If so, please describe these.
4. What activities are students involved in after school, on weekends, or during vacations where they learn about the connection between democracy and the economy?
5. What preparation did you have before you started teaching that has helped you to teach about this domain?
6. (a) What in-service opportunities have there been since you started teaching that have helped you teach about this domain?
(b) Are there in-service opportunities available that you have not yet taken advantage of?
(c) What other resources or activities, such as the media, travel, or conferences, have helped you to teach this domain?

III. National Identity (20 minutes)

1. What do you teach about what it means to be an American citizen?
2. Can you give me examples of activities and assignments that you have used to help students learn about national identity?
3. Do you use any methods to assess student learning in these areas that are different from the methods previously described? If so, please describe these.
4. What activities are students involved in after school, on weekends, or during vacations where they learn about what it means to be an American?
5. What preparation did you have before you started teaching that has helped you to teach about this domain?
6. (a) What in-service opportunities have there been since you started teaching that have helped you teach about this domain?
(b) Are there in-service opportunities available that you have not yet taken advantage of?
(c) What other resources or activities, such as the media, travel, or conferences, have helped you to teach this domain?

Break (5 minutes)

IV. Minority Groups (20 minutes)

1. What do you teach about minority groups?
2. What do you teach about discrimination against groups based religion, gender, race, culture, or language?
3. Please give examples of activities and assignments that you have used to help students learn about minority groups?
4. What groups are represented in your classes, and how does this effect your teaching?
5. Do you use any methods to assess student learning in these areas that are different from the methods previously described? If so, please describe these.
6. What activities are students involved in after school, on weekends, or during vacations where they learn about minority groups?
7. What preparation did you have before you started teaching that has helped you to teach about this domain?
8. (a) What in-service opportunities have there been since you started teaching that have helped you teach about this domain?
 - (b) Are there in-service opportunities available that you have not yet taken advantage of?
 - (c) What other resources or activities, such as the media, travel, or conferences, have helped you to teach this domain?

Continued on Back

V. Obstacles (10 minutes)

Given the four domains: *Democracy, Government, and Citizenship*; *Democracy and the Economy*; *National Identity*; and *Minority Groups*; what obstacles or barriers do teachers face in dealing with these in the classroom?

VI. Interest Groups (10 minutes)

1. To what extent do interest groups (please consider business, community, religious, labor, civil rights, patriotic, political and other special interest groups) attempt to influence the teaching of any of these domains?
2. To what extent do parents attempt to influence the teaching of any of these domains?

VII. Changes (10 minutes.)

What, if anything, has occurred in the past 10 years to change the way you and your colleagues teach about these topics?

APPENDIX B

Summary of State Survey

Q.1 Do the majority of school districts in your state teach the following courses in grades 6-12?

If yes, please indicate at which grade(s) each subject is usually taught.

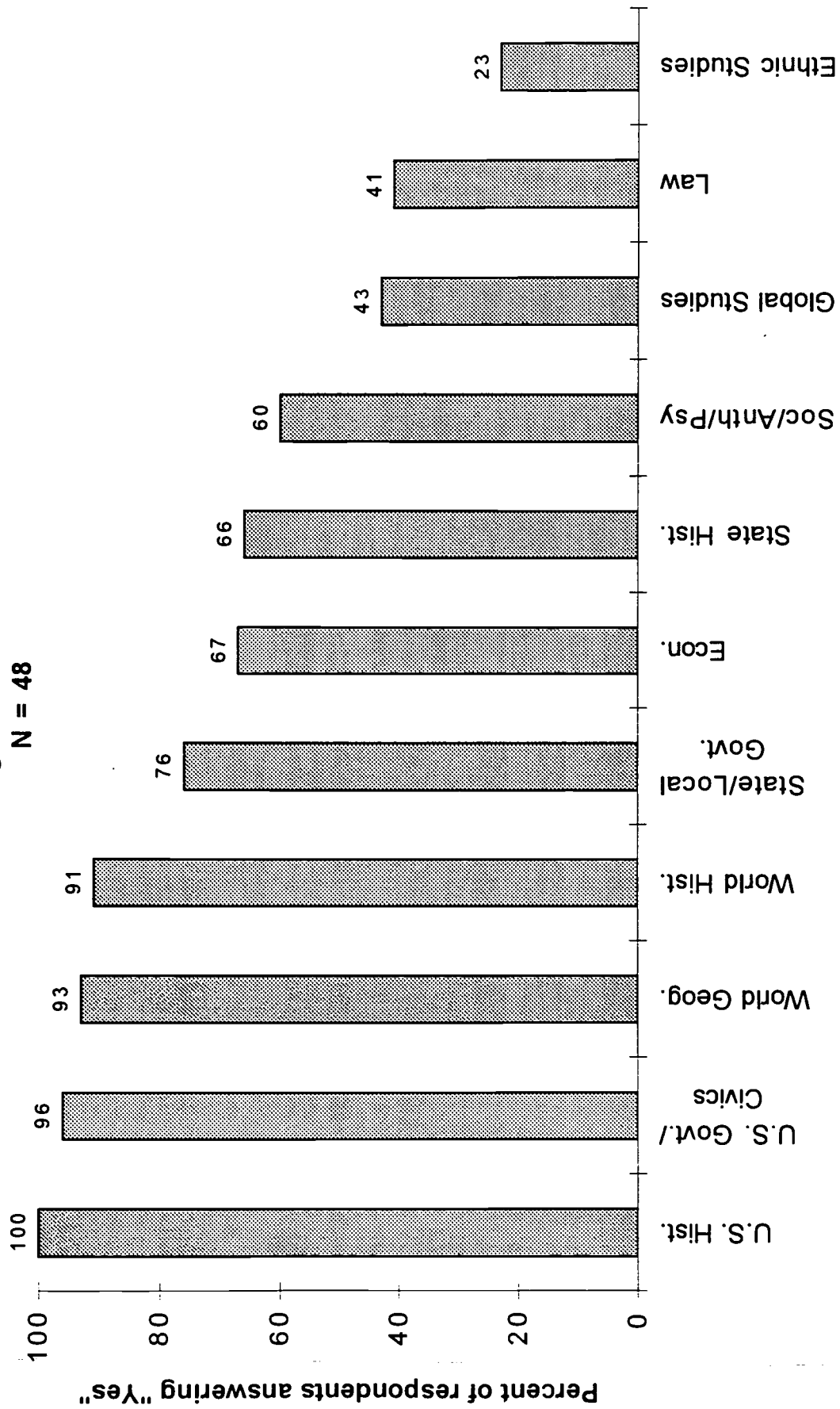
N = 48

Course	% Number		% at this Grade						
	Yes a	Missing b	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
U.S. History	100	1	5	16	68	27	25	89	11
U.S. Govt./Civics	96	1	5	7	21	42	28	35	67
World Geog.	93	3	26	43	10	48	45	21	17
World History	91	2	21	27	11	39	82	27	18
State & Local Govt.	76	3	2	12	37	29	15	14	29
Economics	67	5	2	5	2	23	19	28	58
State History	66	1	6	13	16	6	1	1	45
Socio/Anthro/Psycho	60	8	3	3	3	20	25	48	55
Global Studies	43	8	8	13	5	25	33	20	23
Law	41	9	5	5	5	23	23	26	33
Ethnic Studies	23	8	3	5	5	8	13	15	18

a % Yes indicates percent of respondents who checked "yes."

b Number Missing indicates the number of missing cases for this item.

Q.1 Do the majority of districts in your state teach the following courses in grades 6-12?
N = 48



Course

Q.1 Do the majority of school districts in your state teach the following courses in grades 6-12?

% of Respondents Who Checked 'Yes' - By Region

N = 48

Course	Region				
	Northeast	South	Midwest	North Central	West
State History	33	82	70	57	80
U.S. History	100	100	100	100	100
World History	100	100	78	86	90
State and Local Govt.	44	82	90	83	78
U.S. Govt. / Civics	89	100	100	86	100
World Geog / Area studies	89	100	100	86	90
Global studies / issues	50	40	43	33	44
Econ. / Free enterprise	71	73	67	50	70
Soc. / Anth. / Psych.	43	50	78	50	75
Ethnic studies	14	20	22	17	38
Law	29	36	50	50	43
Number of States	10	11	10	7	10

Q.2 Is there a statewide requirement for the following courses in your state for grades 6-12?

If yes, what is the length of those courses?

N = 48

Course	% Number		Course Length		Number
	Yes a	Missing b	Year	Sem / Qtr	Missing
U.S. Histroy	85	2	78	5	7
Civics / U.S. Govt. / Citizenship	78	2	27	49	7
Economics / Free Enterprise	40	8	5	27	11
Other	65	17	39	19	22

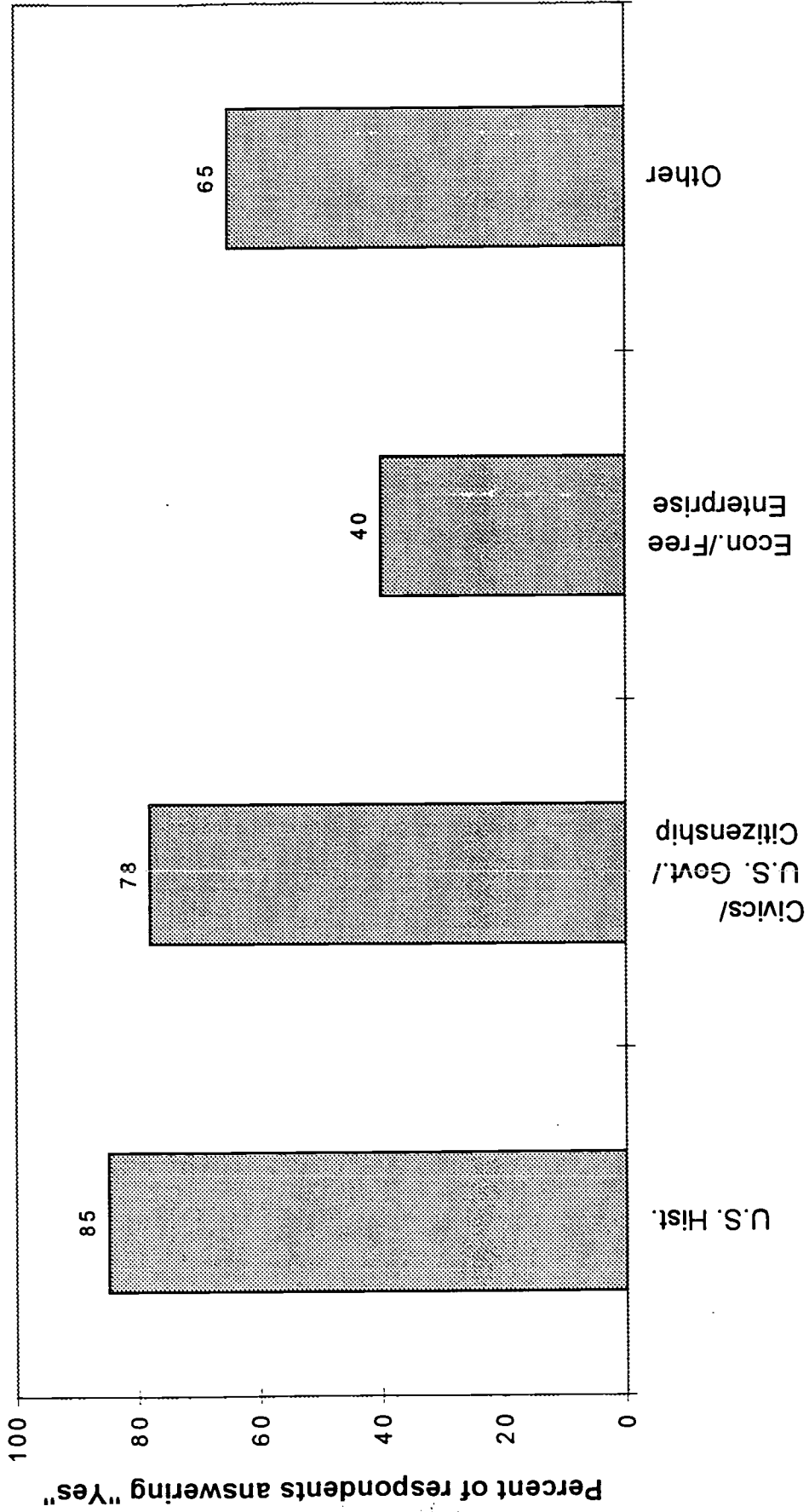
a % Yes indicates percent of respondents who checked "yes."

b Number Missing indicates the number of missing cases for this item.

Q.2 Is there a statewide requirement for the following courses in your state for grades

6-12?

N = 48



Course

167

Q.3 Does your state have a textbook adoption policy? If yes, at what grade levels?

N = 48

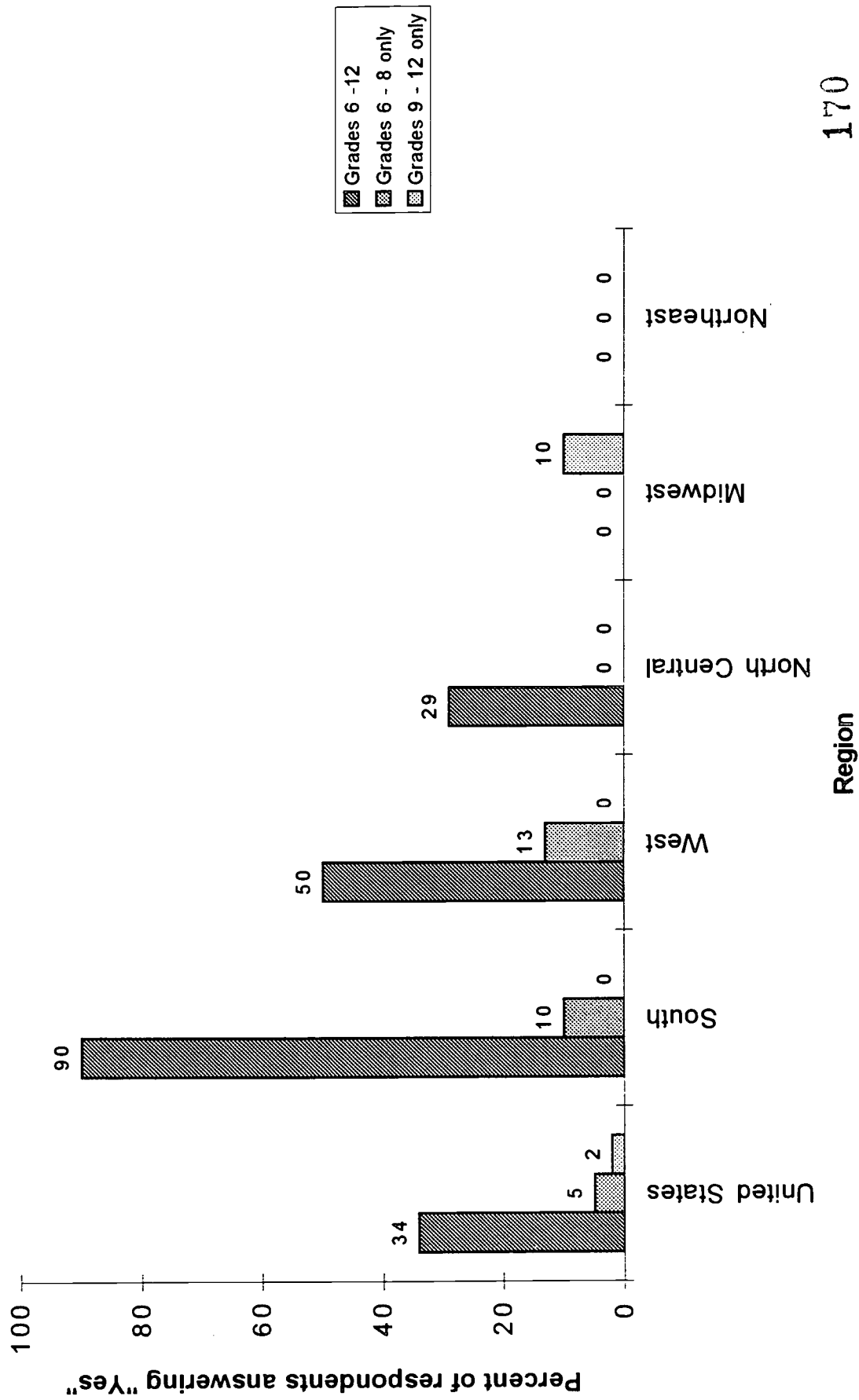
U.S. or Region	%		Grade Level			
	Yes a	Missing b	6-8 only	9-12 only	6-12	Missing
United States	55	1	5	2	34	4
South	100	0	10	0	90	1
West	70	0	13	0	50	2
North central	29	0	0	0	29	0
Midwest	10	0	0	10	0	0
Northeast	0	1	0	0	0	1

a % Yes indicates percent of respondents who checked "yes."

b Number Missing indicates the number of missing cases for this item.

Q.3 Does your state have a textbook adoption policy? If Yes, at what grade levels?

N = 48



Q.5 Does your state require statewide assessment in social studies for grades 6-12?

If yes, at what grade level(s) is assessment required?

N = 48

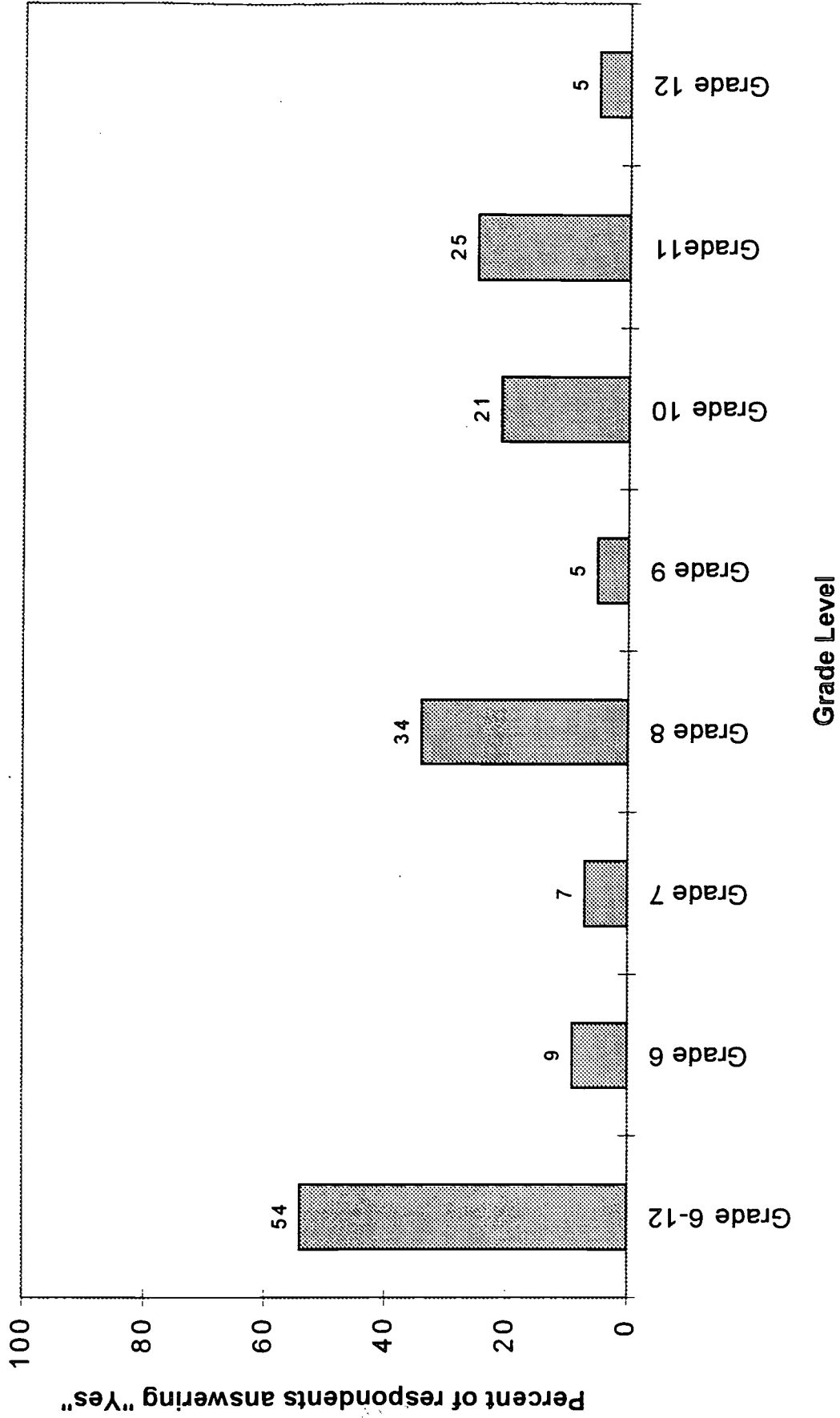
Assessment Required	%		Number	
	Yes a	Missing b		
Grade 6 -12	54	2		
Grade 6	9	4		
Grade 7	7	4		
Grade 8	34	4		
Grade 9	5	4		
Grade 10	21	4		
Grade 11	25	4		
Grade 12	5	4		

a % Yes indicates percent of respondents who checked "yes."

b Number Missing indicates the number of missing cases for this item.

Q.5 Does your state require statewide assessment in social studies for grades 6-12? If yes, at what grade level(s) is assessment required?

N = 48



Q.7 Please indicate the extent to which the following are obstacles to effective social studies instruction in grades 6-12 in your state.

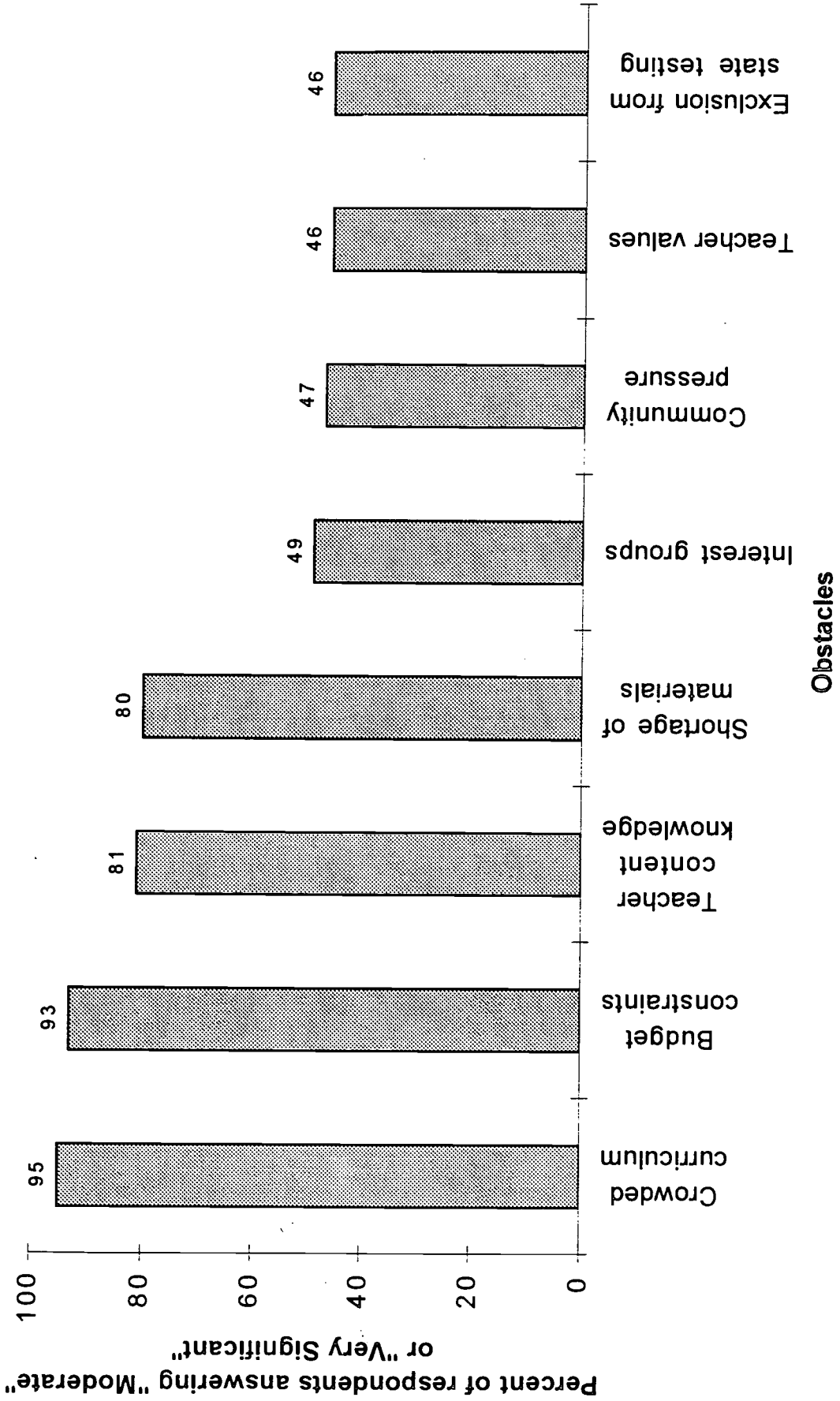
N = 48

Obstacle	%	%	%	Number
	Insignificant	Moderate	Very Significant	Missing a
Budget constraints	7	47	47	5
Crowded curriculum	5	44	51	7
Shortage of materials	21	64	15	9
Community pressure	53	44	3	12
Interest group pressure	51	43	5	11
Inadequate teacher subject knowledge	20	66	15	7
Teacher beliefs and values	54	37	9	13
Exclusion from state testing	54	30	16	11

a Number Missing indicates the number of missing cases for this item.

Q.7 Please indicate the extent to which the following are obstacles to effective social studies instruction in grades 6-12 in your state.

N = 48



Obstacles

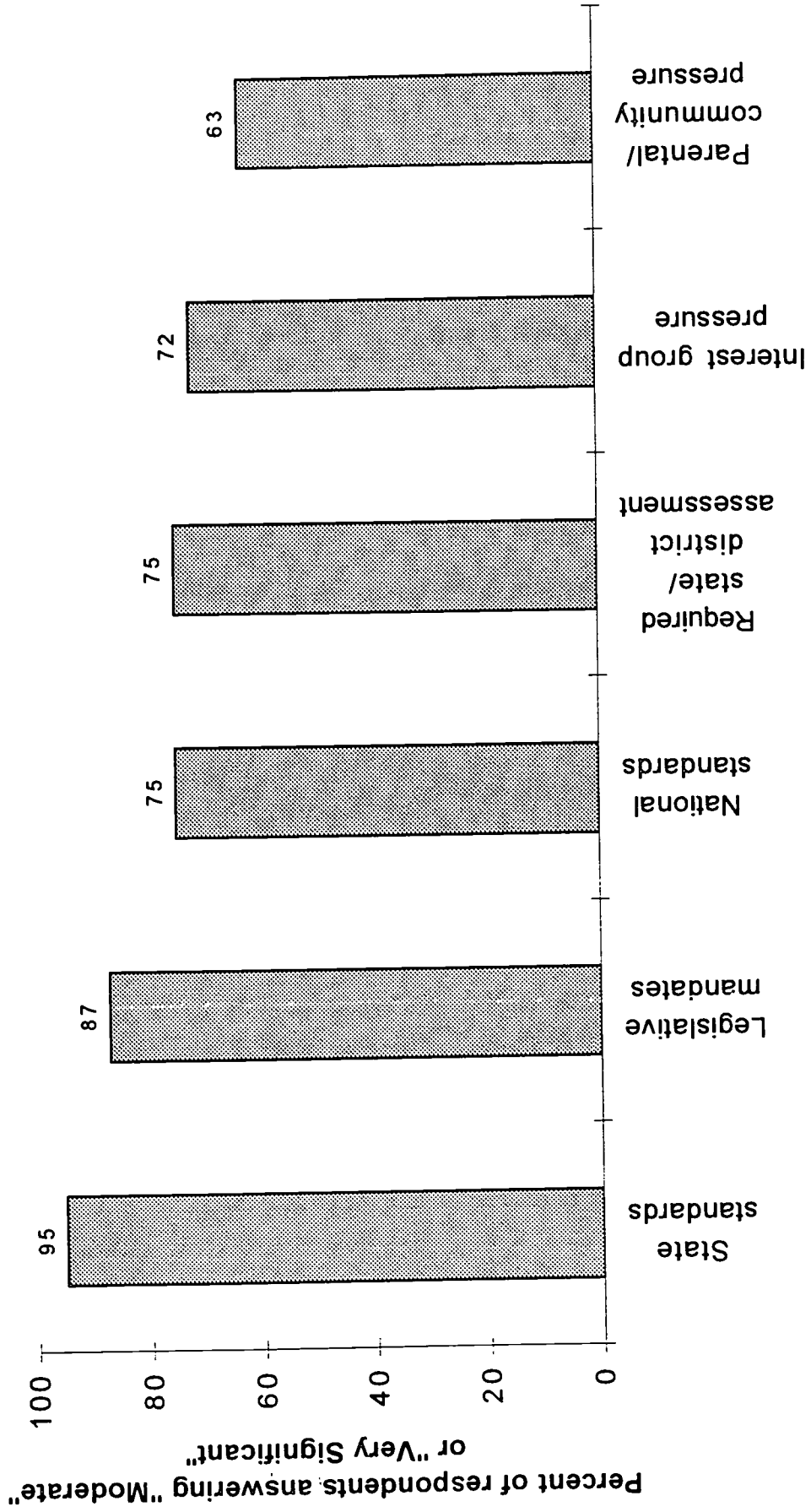
Q.8 To what extent have the following factors influenced social studies education in your state?

N = 48

Obstacle	%	%	%	Number
	Not at all	Moderate	Very Significant	Missing a
Legislative mandates	13	36	51	3
Parental/community pressure	37	59	5	7
Interest group pressure	30	67	5	5
National standards	25	55	21	4
State standards	5	35	61	5
Required state/district assessment	25	23	53	8

a Number Missing indicates the number of missing cases for this item.

Q.8 To what extent have the following factors influenced social studies education in your state?
N = 48



Influences

Q.14 Please indicate which of the following were/are included in the grades 6-12 social studies curriculum in your state.

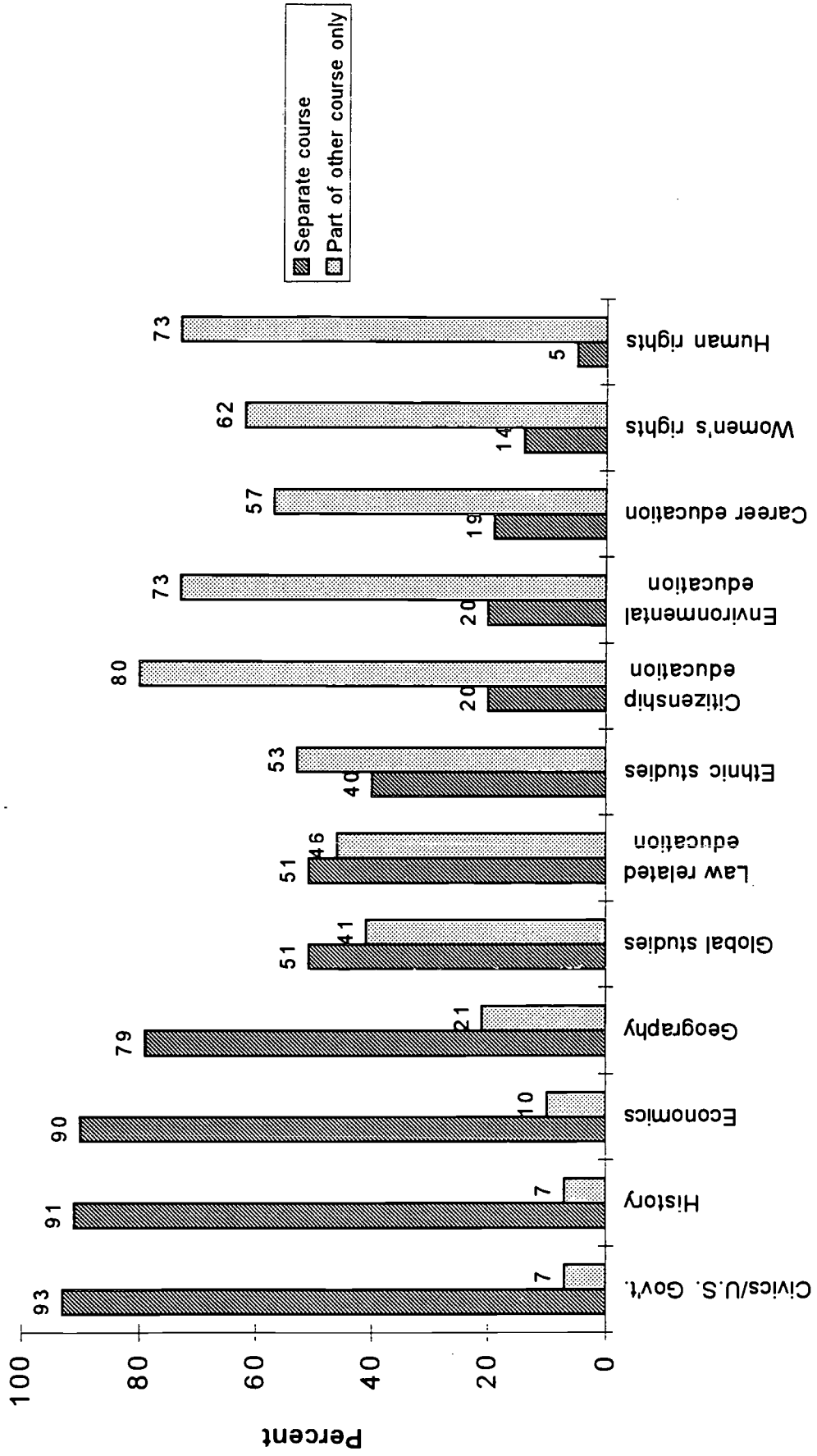
N = 48

Topics	% Not offered	% Separate course	% Part of other courses	% Separate and part of other courses	Number Missing a
Career education	24	11	57	8	11
Citizenship education	0	8	80	13	8
Civics/U.S. Gov't.	0	67	7	26	6
Economics	0	53	10	38	8
Environmental education	7	13	73	7	8
Ethnic studies	8	16	53	24	10
Geography	0	38	21	41	6
Global studies	8	30	41	22	11
History	2	74	7	17	6
Law related education	3	31	46	21	9
Human rights	22	3	73	3	11
Women's rights	24	5	62	8	11

a Number Missing indicates the number of missing cases for this item.

Q.14 Please indicate which of the following are included in the grades 6-12 social studies curriculum in your state.

N = 48



Q.15 Please indicate the priority given to each of the following in grades 6-12 social studies in your state.

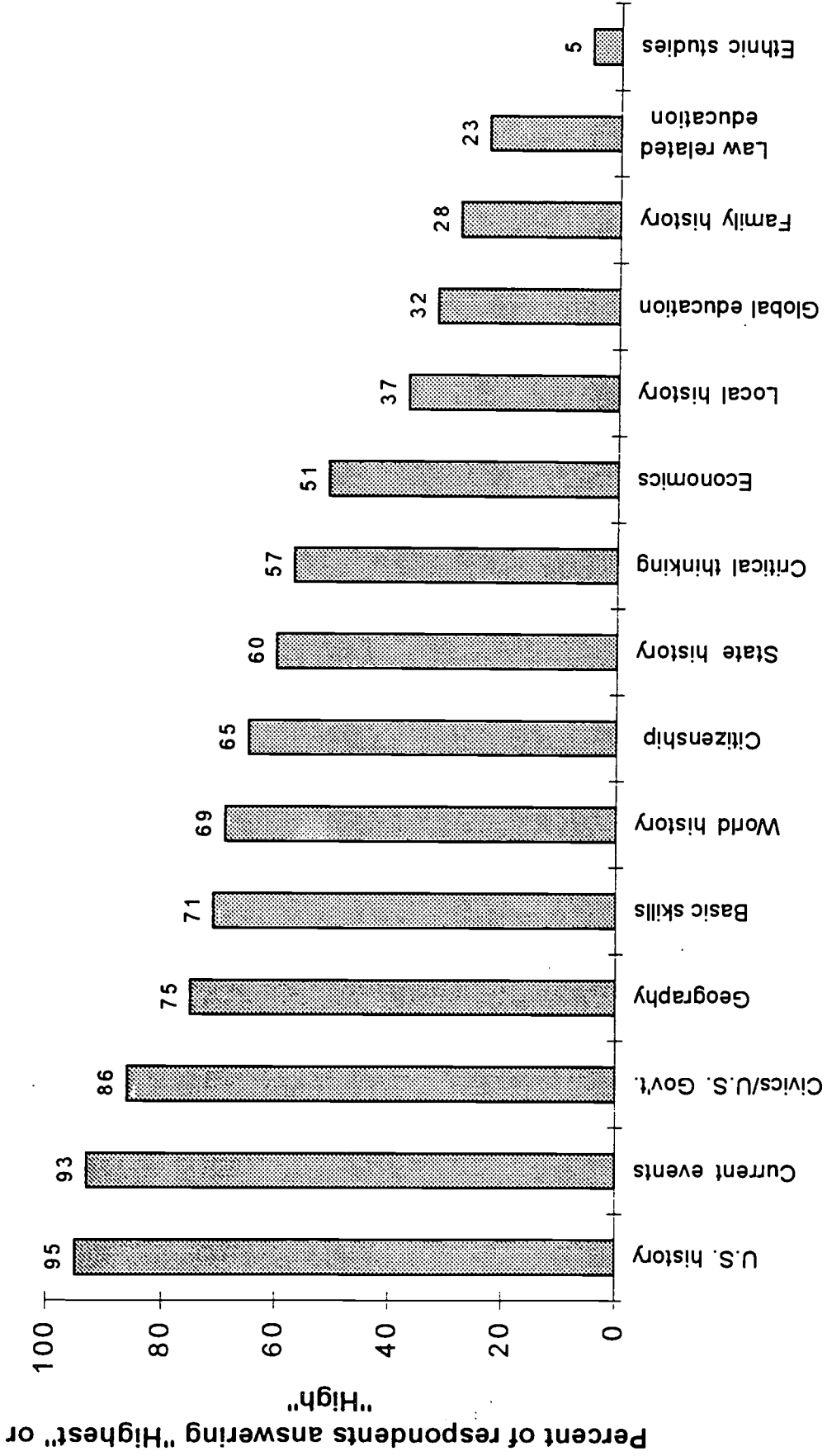
N = 48

Obstacle	%	%	%	%	Number
	Low	Medium	High	Highest	Missing a
Citizenship education	9	26	42	23	5
Civics / U.S. Gov't.	0	14	64	23	4
Critical thinking	5	38	43	14	6
Current events	7	62	31	0	6
Economics	12	37	47	5	5
Ethnic studies	37	59	5	0	7
Geography	2	23	64	11	4
Global education	32	37	29	2	7
Family history	51	21	26	3	9
Local history	39	24	29	7	7
State history	17	24	41	19	6
U.S. history	2	2	41	55	4
World history	5	26	43	26	6
Law related education	14	63	23	0	5
Basic skills	5	24	57	14	6

a Number Missing indicates the number of missing cases for this item.

Q.15 Please indicate the priority given to each of the following in grades 6-12 social studies in your state.

N = 48



Content

APPENDIX C

Textbook Analysis

Appendix C

List of U.S. Civics and History Textbooks Evaluated

- Divine R. A., Breen, T. H., Frederickson, G. M., and Williams, R. H. (1994). *America: The people and the dream, volume 1, the early years* (2nd ed.). Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman and Company.
- Fraenkel, J. R., Kane, F. T., & Wolf, A. (1990). *Civics: Government and citizenship* (3rd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, Inc.
- Garraty, J. A. (1992). *The story of America, volume 1, beginnings to 1877*. Austin, TX: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.
- Hartley, W. H., & Vincent, W. S. (1992). *American civics, freedom edition*. Austin, TX: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.
- Mason, L., Jacobs., W. J., Ludlum, R. P. (1992). *History of the United States, volume 1, beginnings to 1877*. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Patrick, J. J., & Remy, R. C. (1991). *Civics for Americans* (2nd ed.). Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman and Company.

References

- Hahn, C. L. (1995). *Revised proposal for the case study: Civic education in the United States*.
- Keith, S. (1991). The determinants of textbook content. In P. G. Altbach, G. P. Kelly, H. G. Petrie, & L. Weis (Eds.), *Textbooks in American society: Politics, policy and pedagogy*. (pp. 43-59). Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.
- Sewall, G. T., & Cannon, P. (1991). The new world of textbooks: Industry consolidation and its consequences. In P. G. Altbach, G. P. Kelly, H. G. Petrie, & L. Weis (Eds.), *Textbooks in American society: Politics, policy and pedagogy*. (pp. 61-69). Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Table 1

Categories of Analysis for U.S. Civics and History Textbooks

<i>Category</i>	<i>Examples</i>	<i>Notes</i>
Advocacy Groups	NAACP, NOW	exclude government-administered groups
Countries	Morocco, France	exclude references to the United States
Documents	U.S. Constitution, <i>Brown v. Board of Education</i> , Clean Indoor Act	highlight only capitalized documents (not "party platform")
Events	Shay's Rebellion, Great Depression	highlight only capitalized events (not "nominating convention")
International Organizations	NATO, OPEC, UN	highlight only capitalized international organizations
Names	Abigail Adams, John F. Kennedy	highlight only proper names; exclude fictitious people
Political Parties	Democratic Party, Republican Party	highlight only when reference to party is capitalized
Responsibilities	civic duty, responsibility	
Rights	right, voting rights, right to free speech	highlight phrase surrounding key word if relevant, e.g., highlight <i>right to free speech</i> in the sentence, "Citizens have a right to free speech."

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Table 2

Rights Mentioned Most Frequently in U.S. Civics and History Textbooks

Civics Texts		History Texts		
<i>Civics: Government & citizenship (1990)</i>	<i>American civics (1992)</i>	<i>Civics for Americans (1991)</i>	<i>America: The people and the dream (1994)</i>	<i>The story of America (1992)</i>
rights (general) (250)	rights (general) (301)	rights (general) (104)	rights (general) (203)	rights (general) 230
human rights (27)	right to vote (51)	civil rights (21)	right to vote (36)	civil rights (21)
right to vote (15)	civil rights (51)	right to vote (18)	women's rights (15)	women's rights (21)
freedom of speech (12)	equal rights (24)	rights and freedoms (11)	civil rights (13)	state's rights (8)
freedom of religion (9)	freedom of speech (22)	right of citizens (9)	state's rights (8)	women's rights (9)
civil rights (7)	free press (13)	right to privacy (8)	right to a fair trial (5)	freedom of speech (9)
women's rights (5)	right to fair trial (13)	civil rights and liberties (7)	equal rights (5)	right to a fair trial (4)
free press (4)	free assembly (12)	freedom of speech (7)	freedom of speech (4)	freedom of religion (3)
				freedom of religion (3)

right to bear arms (6)	human rights (11)	right to free speech (7)	rights of the accused (4)	human rights (5)	
right to a fair trial (4)	freedom of religion (8)				

Note. The number in parentheses indicates the frequency of references to a specific right.

Table 3

Frequency of References to General Rights and Responsibilities U.S. Civics and History Textbooks

Textbook	General References to Rights	General References to Responsibilities and Duties
<i>Civics: Government & citizenship (1990)</i>	250	36
<i>American civics (1992)</i>	301	106
<i>Civics for Americans (1991)</i>	104	81
<i>America: The people and the dream (1994)</i>	203	13
<i>The story of America (1992)</i>	230	0
<i>History of the United States (1992)</i>	182	1
TOTAL	1270	237

Table 4

Political Parties Mentioned Most Frequently in U.S. Civics and History Textbooks

Civics Texts			History Texts		
<i>Civics: Government & citizenship (1990)</i>	<i>American civics (1992)</i>	<i>Civics for Americans (1991)</i>	<i>America: The people and the dream (1994)</i>	<i>The story of America (1992)</i>	<i>History of the United States (1992)</i>
Democratic Party (74)	Democratic Party (38)	Democratic Party (75)	Republican Party (120)	Republican Party (107)	Republican Party (92)
Republican Party (61)	Republican Party (32)	Republican Party (60)	Federalists (91)	Democratic Party (86)	Federalists (66)
Federalists (14)	Federalists (9)	Federalists (13)	Democratic Party (78)	Federalists (69)	Democratic Party (49)
Anti-Federalists (10)	Anti-Federalists (7)	Progressive Party (8)	Whigs (36)	Whigs (45)	Whigs (22)
Populist Party (9)	Democrat-Republican Party (4)	Anti-Federalists (7)	Anti-Federalists (24)	Democrat-Republican Party (28)	Anti-Federalists (12)
Socialist Party (4)	American Independent Party (2)	Prohibition Party (4)	Democrat-Republican Party (23)	Anti-Federalists (15)	American Nazi Party (8)
Democrat-Republican Party (3)	Populist Party (2)	Independent Party (3)	Free Soilers (8)	Tories/Loyalists (18)	Democrat-Republican Party (7)
American Independent Party (2)	Progressive Party (1)	Socialist Party (3)	Know-Nothings (7)	American Nazi Party (6)	Radical Republican Party (5)
Communist Party (2)		Whig Party (3)	American Nazi Party (3)	North American Party (5)	Free Soilers (5)
			Constitutional Unionist Party (2)	Constitutional Unionist Party (5)	Know-Nothings (4)

Note. The number in parentheses indicates the frequency of references to a specific political party.

Table 5

Events Mentioned Most Frequently in U.S. Civics and History Textbooks

Civics Texts			History Texts		
<i>Civics: Government & citizenship (1990)</i>	<i>American civics (1992)</i>	<i>Civics for Americans (1991)</i>	<i>America: The people and the dream (1994)</i>	<i>The story of America (1992)</i>	<i>History of the United States (1992)</i>
Constitutional Convention (24)	Cold War (32)	Constitutional Convention (36)	American Revolution (75)	American Revolution (127)	American Revolution (76)
Great Depression (19)	Constitutional Convention (30)	World War II (21)	Civil War (54)	Civil War (118)	Civil War (90)
World War II (17)	World War II (30)	Cold War (13)	Confederation Congress (33)	Reconstruction (50)	Constitutional Convention (43)
American Revolution (16)	Great Depression (16)	Great Compromise (9)	Constitutional Convention (26)	War of 1812 (23)	Mexican War (32)
World War I (6)	Watergate (15)	Watergate/Watergate Affair (8)	Reconstruction (64)	French and Indian War (17)	Reconstruction (62)
Civil War (6)	Earth Day (12)	Vietnam War (7)	Second Constitutional Convention (49)	World War I (16)	War of 1812 (45)
New Deal (5)	Civil War (10)	Whiskey Rebellion (5)	War of 1812 (25)	World War II (16)	World War II (20)
	World War I (7)	World War I (5)	French and Indian War (22)	First Constitutional Convention (16)	French and Indian War (20)
		Civil War (4)		Cold War (14)	
		Shay's Rebellion (4)		New Deal (13)	

Note. The number in parentheses indicates the frequency of references to a specific event.

Table 6

Documents Mentioned Most Frequently in U.S. Civics and History Textbooks

Civics Texts		History Texts		
<i>Civics: Government & citizenship (1990)</i>	<i>American civics (1992)</i>	<i>Civics for Americans (1991)</i>	<i>America: The people and the dream (1994)</i>	<i>The story of America (1992)</i>
U.S. Constitution (340)	U.S. Constitution (408)	U.S. Constitution (388)	U.S. Constitution (255)	U.S. Constitution (282)
Bill of Rights (44)	First Amendment (32)	Articles of Confederation (32)	Articles of Confederation (42)	Articles of Confederation (44)
Articles of Confederation (40)	Bill of Rights (31)	Proposition P (to restrict smoking) (31)	Declaration of Independence (33)	Declaration of Independence (42)
Strategic Defense Initiative (22)	Articles of Confederation (30)	Bill of Rights (29)	Bill of Rights (25)	Stamp Act (26)
First Amendment (20)	Declaration of Independence (27)	Fourteenth Amendment (23)	Stamp Act (24)	Treaty of Paris (26)
Preamble, Declaration of Independence (15)	Fourteenth Amendment (15)	Article 1 (21)	Fourteenth Amendment (23)	Bill of Rights (23)
Declaration of Independence (12)	Preamble, Declaration of Independence (12)	First Amendment (18)	Treaty of Paris (22)	Northwest Ordinance (23)
Article 1, U.S. Constitution (10)		Preamble (18)	Emancipation Proclamation (16)	Missouri Compromise (22)
Fourteenth Amendment (10)		Fourth Amendment (17)	Thirteenth Amendment (15)	Monroe Doctrine (22)
		Proposition 13	Missouri Compromise (18)	Stamp Act (15)
				Fourteenth amendment (20)

Note. The number in parentheses indicates the frequency of references to a specific document.

Table 7

Names Mentioned Most Frequently in U.S. Civics and History Textbooks

Civics Texts			History Texts		
<i>Civics: Government & citizenship (1990)</i>	<i>American civics (1992)</i>	<i>Civics for Americans (1991)</i>	<i>America: The people and the dream (1994)</i>	<i>The story of America (1992)</i>	<i>History of the United States (1992)</i>
Franklin D. Roosevelt (75)	Richard Nixon (34)	George Washington (86)	Thomas Jefferson (210)	George Washington (214)	Christopher Columbus (134)
Ronald Reagan (45)	George Washington (27)	Richard Nixon (44)	George Washington (182)	Thomas Jefferson (185)	George Washington (91)
George Washington (25)	Clarence Giddion (23)	Ronald Reagan (43)	Abraham Lincoln (173)	Andrew Jackson (167)	Benjamin Franklin (53)
George Bush (21)	Eli Whitney (19)	Jimmy Carter (35)	Andrew Jackson (152)	Alexander Hamilton (90)	Hernan Cortes (52)
Jimmy Carter (20)	Franklin D. Roosevelt (15)	Ralph Nader (35)	Alexander Hamilton (120)	John Q. Adams (64)	God (39)
Thomas Jefferson (20)	Mikhail Gorbachev (12)	Gerald Ford (23)	James Madison (83)	Christopher Columbus (60)	Robert LaSalle (38)
John F. Kennedy (20)	Chief Justice John Marshall (12)	John Goode (23)	John Adams (73)	John Adams (58)	Ferdinand Magellan (34)
John Peter Zenger (16)	Rosa Parks (12)	Martin Luther King (23)	Ulysses S. Grant (59)	God (56)	Thomas Jefferson (31)
Richard Nixon (14)	Benjamin Franklin (10)	Mary Anderson, Ray Kroc (14)	Andrew Johnson (50)	Benjamin Franklin (50)	James Madison (26)
Mikhail Gorbachev (13)	Woodrow Wilson (10)	Michael Dukakis, Alexander Hamilton, John F. Kennedy (13)	Benjamin Franklin (47)	Henry Clay (45)	Henry Hudson (25)

Note. The number in parentheses indicates the frequency of references to a specific individual.

Table 8

Countries Mentioned Most Frequently in U.S. Civics and History Textbooks

Civics Texts		History Texts		
<i>Civics: Government & citizenship (1990)</i>		<i>Civics for Americans (1991)</i>	<i>America: The people and the dream (1994)</i>	<i>The story of America (1992)</i>
Soviet Union (51)	American civics (1992)		England/Great Britain (288)	History of the United States (1992)
England (24)	Soviet Union (69)		France (150)	England/Great Britain (381)
Israel (24)	China (33)	Soviet Union (49)	Spain (126)	Spain (268)
China (15)	England (27)	Great Britain (38)	Mexico (103)	Mexico (198)
Egypt (13)	Cuba (16)	Germany (22)	Canada (75)	France (169)
Iran (10)	Canada (13)	Japan (19)	Germany (27)	Portugal (46)
Cuba (10)	Vietnam (13)	Panama (19)	Portugal (23)	Soviet Union (38)
France (7)	Germany (11)	France (18)	Soviet Union (20)	Peru (37)
Iraq (7)		Vietnam (11)	China (16)	Canada (34)
		Brazil, Canada, Egypt, Israel, Mexico (8)	Cuba (19)	Germany (30)
			China (12)	Panama (19)

Note. The number in parentheses indicates the frequency of references to a specific country.

Table 9

International Organizations Mentioned Most Frequently in U.S. Civics and History Textbooks

Civics Texts			History Texts		
<i>Civics: Government & citizenship (1990)</i>	<i>American civics (1992)</i>	<i>Civics for Americans (1991)</i>	<i>America: The people and the dream (1994)</i>	<i>The story of America (1992)</i>	<i>History of the United States (1992)</i>
United Nations (71)	United Nations (60)	United Nations (40)	League of Nations (5)	United Nations (8)	League of Nations (5)
Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (6)	League of Nations (10)	Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (3)	United Nations (1)	League of Nations (4)	North Atlantic Treaty Organization (5)
UNESCO (6)	World Health Organization (9)	World Health Organization (2)		North Atlantic Treaty Organization (2)	United Nations (5)
World Health Organization (6)	UNESCO (7)			Organization of American States (2)	Warwas Pact (2)
	North Atlantic Treaty Organization (7)				
	Organization of American States (OAS)				

Note. The number in parentheses indicates the frequency of references to a specific international organization.

Table 10

Women and Ethnic Minorities Mentioned Most Frequently in U.S. Civics and History Textbooks

Civics Texts		History Texts		
<i>Civics: Government & citizenship (1990)</i>	<i>American civics (1992)</i>	<i>Civics for Americans (1991)</i>	<i>America: The people and the dream (1994)</i>	<i>The story of America (1992)</i>
Women				
Sandra D. O'Connor (5)	Cassandra Cole (14)	Susan Sertich (9)	Queen Elizabeth (16)	Queen Isabella (18)
Queen Elizabeth (3)	Felicia de Rosado (13)	Geraldine Ferraro (7)	Harriet Tubman (12)	Queen Elizabeth (13)
Kely Leonard (3)	Rosa Parks (12)	Mary Beth Tinker (4)	Anne Hutchinson (9)	Abigail Adams (11)
Ruth Brinker (3)	Rosa Furvo (10)	Dorothy Olmstead (3)	Abigail Adams (8)	Mercy Otis Warren (9)
Ann Roselle (2)	Candy Lightner (10)	Linda Brown (2)	Dorothea Dix (8)	Anne Hutchinson (7)
		Rosa Parks (2)	Queen Isabella (8)	Elizabeth Freeman (7)
		Sandra Day O'Connor (2)	Harriet Beecher Stowe (8)	
Ethnic Minorities				
Quoc Tan Phan (6)	Felicia de Rosada (13)	Martin Luther King (23)	Tecumseh (16)	Montezuma (24)
Homer Plessy (5)	Rosa Parks (12)	Thurgood Marshall (4)	Martin Luther King (15)	Chief Pontiac (13)
Jesse Jackson (4)	Bill Chan (9)	Linda Brown (2)	Montezuma (12)	Atahualpa (12)
Senator S.I. Hayakawa (3)	Martin Luther King (7)	Jesse Jackson (2)	Harriet Tubman (12)	Cuauhtemoc (6)
			General antonio Lopez de Santa Anna (15)	
			Montezuma (15)	
			Tenskwatawa (The Prophet) (10)	

		Ay Atollah Khomeini (2)	General Antonio Lopez de Santa Anna (11)	Michikinikua (Little Turtle) (9) Sacajawea (9)	Squanto (6)
		Rosa Parks, General Omar Torrijos, Rosalyn Yalow (2)			

Note. The number in parentheses indicates the frequency of references to a specific individuals.

Table 11

Frequency of Mentions of Females and Males in U.S. Civics and History Textbooks

Textbook	Mentions of Females	Mentions of Males
<i>Civics: Government & citizenship (1990)</i>	36	250
<i>American civics (1992)</i>	23	185
<i>Civics for Americans (1991)</i>	78	832
<i>America: The people and the dream (1994)</i>	53	578
<i>The story of America (1992)</i>	133	3159
<i>History of the United States (1992)</i>	134	1855
TOTAL	457	6859

Table 12

Advocacy Groups Mentioned Most Frequently in U.S. Civics and History Textbooks

Civics Texts			History Texts		
<i>Civics: Government & citizenship (1990)</i>	<i>American civics (1992)</i>	<i>Civics for Americans (1991)</i>	<i>America: The people and the dream (1994)</i>	<i>The story of America (1992)</i>	<i>History of the United States (1992)</i>
AFL-CIO (18)	Kids Against Pollution (24) AFL-CIO (19)	Sun City Posse (28) Conservation Coalition (14)	American Anti-Slavery Society (7) National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (5) AFL (4)	American Anti-Slavery Society (6) American Colonization Society (5) American Temperance Society (4) AFL (3)	American Indian Movement (2) National Organization of Women (2) National Negro Business League (2)
Habitat for Humanity (12)	Mothers Against Drunk Driving (8)	League of Conservation Voters (9) League of Women Voters (9)			
Amnesty International (11)	VIPS-Seniors (6)		AFL-CIO (3)		
Students Against Drunk Driving (11)	National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (6)	National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (9) Kentucky Mountain Housing Development (8)	National Organization of Women (NOW) (3) American Colonization Society (3)	American Indian Movement (3) Children's Aid Society (3)	

Note. The number in parentheses indicates the frequency of references to a specific advocacy groups.



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