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AN EXAMINATION OF STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS TOWARD CIVIC ISSUES:
A COMPARISON OF 1957 AND 2011

by

Cody Long Lawson, M.A.

A Dissertation

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the

Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Major: Instruction and Curriculum Leadership

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ABSTRACT

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Major Professor: Dr. Jeffrey Byford

Illuminated by a historical review of trends in educating for citizenship in the American social studies classroom, the purpose of this study was to investigate students' present perceptions of civic principles across three domains—democratic values, economic principles and constitutional rights and responsibilities. To this end, a purposive, nonrandom sample of two hundred 12th grade students from eight high schools in a suburban school district in a Southeastern state was drawn and subsequently surveyed using an instrument originally developed during the 1950s by Purdue University researchers. To determine whether there were generational differences in perceptions, the responses of the contemporary sample of 12th grade students were statistically compared to norms obtained for a national sample of 12th graders surveyed over 50 years ago. In keeping with the emphasis on diversity in today's social studies classrooms, also conducted were analyses of responses by gender, ethnicity, overall grade point average, level of class discussion, political orientation, and confidence in the current Presidential administration's policies to determine whether such factors influenced current student perceptions with regard to one or more of the issues investigated.

Employing the “one-way” or “goodness of fit” chi-square test, statistical analyses of contemporary responses versus historical norms indicated generational differences across all five items within the domain of democratic values, all three items within the domain of economic principles, and five of the 10 items in the domain of constitutional

rights and responsibilities. Especially robust differences were observed with respect to items referencing affirmative action laws ($\chi^2 (2, N = 200) = 41.37, p < .001, w = 0.45$), immigration ($\chi^2 (3, N = 200) = 98.29, p < .001, w = 0.70$), universal voting rights ($\chi^2 (3, N = 200) = 93.72, p < .001, w = 0.68$), and the legal right to face one's accuser ($\chi^2 (3, N = 200) = 112.52, p < .001, w = 0.75$). However, when the "two-way" or "test of independence" chi-square was employed to identify differences in item responses by student characteristics, statistically significant results were much less commonly observed and only systematically emerged with respect to the issue of "limiting and controlling immigration." When levels of agreement and disagreement to this item were compared, differences among students in the contemporary sample were observed by ethnicity ($\chi^2 (2, N = 200) = 17.19, p < .001, V = 0.29$), political orientation ($\chi^2 (2, N = 195) = 14.85, p < .001, V = 0.28$), and confidence in the current US administration's policies ($\chi^2 (2, N = 200) = 3.96, p < .05, V = 0.14$). To help clarify the generational findings, reference to the historical record is made, while more current events are evoked to help make the subgroup differences in contemporary student responses more interpretable.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to investigate students' perceptions of democratic values and civic principles in the social studies classroom. A focus on civic education and knowledge, especially in social studies, was supported in both national and state standards. The 1916 National Education Association Committee described citizenship as "social efficiency." The student in school was not to become a good citizen but to practice citizenship in his or her peer community in the classroom. The National Council for the Social Studies, for instance, issued the following position statement in 2001: "the primary goal of public education is to prepare students to be engaged and effective citizens" (p. 15). Citizenship education aims to prepare students who learn how to become informed and responsible citizens of a democratic society. A democracy depends on citizens who understand their rights and responsibilities. Citizens in a democracy should be able to discuss and debate current social and political issues affecting the global world.

The practice of preparing students to become responsible citizens can be traced through the decades, beginning with the vestiges of John Dewey. Dewey (1944) suggested that schools reflect the life of its society. The Dewey philosophy of social studies is centered on the development of a student's critical thinking skills and contributes to an issue-centered curriculum. Democracy means active participation by all citizens in social, political, and economic decisions affecting their lives. According to progressive principles, two essential elements were highlighted in the education of engaged citizens. The first element described a respect for diversity; an individual should

be recognized for his or her own abilities, interests, ideas, needs, and cultural identity. The second element was the development of critical, socially engaged intelligence, which supports an individual's understanding of and participation in community concerns. Citizens practice collaborative decision making in society, working toward a common goal. These elements form the beliefs and ideas of progressive education, often referred to as "child-centered" and "social reconstructionist" approaches (Washburne, 1952).

Goals and curriculum of social studies education in the 1930s helped transition the need of measuring students' civic knowledge. Events, social and political challenges, and growing resentment of the political and educational establishment led to a series of surveys and polls to measure such issues. Franklin Delano Roosevelt was elected President of the United States in 1932, a time when approximately 13 million people in the country were unemployed (Riley, 2006). Roosevelt proposed a program to bring recovery to business and agriculture—those who were in danger of losing homes and farms—through the development of the Tennessee Valley Authority and similar programs. In the 1930s, there was an emphasis on understanding the problems of democracy in social studies curriculum. "School is a shared experience in life that helps to develop students into Americans, as well as, the knowledge of how America works, how America got here, and what it means to be a citizen" (Roosevelt, 1930, p. 19). At this time, new materials for the curriculum were being developed. A major contributor and author of the time was the progressivist Harold Rugg. Rugg wrote a series of Social Studies textbooks focused on social and political issues. Many thought Rugg's texts were communist-driven and antidemocratic. Questions about these textbooks were raised concerning the role of government, welfare, and the unemployed in society. However,

teaching students the importance of collectivism and individualism and doing so to better society is considered “democratic.” Teaching students to question everything leads citizens to be more productive in society, think about things, and stand up for what is right. Evans (2007) summarized Rugg’s efforts to reconstruct social studies education by creating a curriculum that would develop active and informed citizens. Rugg’s curriculum was based on the study of society concerning social issues. The social reconstructivist’s approach of the 1930s, following Harold Rugg’s textbook series, viewed social change as a school’s responsibility in transforming American society to overcome social injustice and the challenges of capitalism (Riley, 2006).

Key political events caused a collective examination of social studies education in the following decade. United States involvement in World War II, heightened fear of communism and establishment of the Marshall Plan, and the formation of the United Nations impacted the development and criticism of social studies with a renewed focus on patriotism and democracy. The late 1940s witnessed the beginning of the Cold War and an analysis of existing teaching methods of American history in schools. The *New York Times* published an article by historian Allan Nevins on the inadequate teaching of history in schools. Nevins (1942) stated that schools in all states needed consistent laws that require the teaching of history in schools. At this time, 22 states lacked laws requiring the teaching of this content. Viewed by many as unpatriotic, school and reform, especially in the social studies was necessary in time of war.

In an effort to measure patriotism, Nevins (1942) surveyed 7,000 college freshmen at 36 universities across the nation. The survey indicated that students were deficient, lacking in their knowledge of American history. As a result of these college

students' apparent lack of knowledge, the *New York Times* publicly blamed the National Council for the Social Studies and the Teacher's College at Columbia University and their involvement in the social studies curriculum. It was this council organization and scholars who were considered extremists and progressive liberals, responsible for creating the current history curriculum. Nevins (1942) concluded, "the fact is our educational requirements in American history and government have been and are deplorably haphazard, chaotic, and ineffective" (p. 28). During this time period, after the attack on Pearl Harbor and the establishment of the United Nations, it was more important than ever to promote civic knowledge, such as democratic principles and historic knowledge. This concern led to a transformation of social studies curriculum, requiring American History in all schools. The United States victory in World War II, the efforts to rebuild Europe, the continued fear of the spread of communism, particularly by the Soviet Union, and the beginnings of the Cold War all influenced the changes in social studies curriculum.

As a result of these historical events in the late 1940s, in the beginning of the 1950s, social studies curriculum was created through a process of discovery learning and inquiry. The examination of the social studies began with scholars from leading universities. The 1950s brought about scientific reasoning and skill building. The inclusion of new curriculum highlighted the use of technology and design in building and creating productive citizens. An empirical measure of support for democratic principles was conducted (Stouffer, 1956). The study, *Fundamental Principles of Democracy*, was the first comprehensive example of the political tolerance of the American public. The study highlighted the importance of civil liberties and found that the American public

was considered politically intolerant, denying rights and liberties to certain groups (Stouffer, 1956). Public education received the greatest impact of influence on tolerance.

Another measurement of knowledge and perception during this time was the Purdue Public Opinion poll of 1957. The poll was given to 2,000 high school students, questioning their knowledge and attitudes toward democratic ideals. This survey was administered at a significant time, following several key events in American history. Events such as the Cold War and communism-based struggles in thought and action led to the re-examination of the social studies curriculum, focusing on democratic values. Hunt and Metcalf (1955) believed the social studies curriculum should focus on the teaching and discussion of controversial issues, considered “closed areas of society” and often neglected by schools. Such topics included patriotism, race, religion, and gender differences. The Purdue poll (1957) provided data that exposed significant findings pertaining to this re-examination. Compared to 1951 poll, this study (Remmers, 1951) revealed a steady decrease in knowledge of the upper-class man compared to the lower classman, and many students reported supporting the Marxist doctrine or were undecided about it. Remmers (1958) stated that the overall decrease in democratic knowledge is a cycle of decreased overall knowledge, and the study shows that the students surveyed have a weaker democratic orientation, which was a disturbing downward trend. The discussion and practice of civic issues in classrooms may support a democratic-based social studies curriculum.

This focus on citizenship continued into the 1960s and modeled a variety of teaching methods. It was at this time in education that the Praxis was developed to evaluate teachers’ knowledge of the content that they were teaching. Lessons

implemented in the social studies classroom revealed action, procedures in instruction, and reflection. Modifications to improve student performance were made based on daily reflection and teacher-prepared lessons were more common than in the past. The idea of knowledge base, skills assessment, and values were critical to social studies education. Student performance was based on individual projects instead of uniform tests. The idea of teaching democratic values and inquiry was introduced and emphasized. Many professional organizations developed curriculum based on their areas of expertise (e.g., civics, geography, anthropology, sociology, history) and proposed projects to be implemented in their specialized content into school curriculum. Scholars from various universities were driven to develop curriculum for social studies as relevant to their discipline, contributing to the overall goal of social studies as an interdisciplinary subject. A problem then occurred because so many groups brought forth projects of interest; social studies were taught based on particular issues and in short courses. This was the introduction of “new social studies,” and many projects from various disciplines within the social studies emerged.

The 1970s brought a series of objectives, methods, and procedures to civic education. Procedures and standards led to the comfort of conveying information in the form of direct instruction. New materials were being developed for social studies based on new goals and definitions. Purpose, content, and methods of teaching social studies were analyzed. One interpretation was introduced by Barr, Barth, and Shermis (1977), revealing three approaches to defining social studies: through citizenship transmission, through social science, and through reflective inquiry. Citizenship transmission is considered the most important goal of social studies by the general public (Barr, et al.,

1977). Teaching social participation, cultural norms, obeying laws, and working with others are the essence of citizenship transmission.

Key political and social events in this decade significantly influenced the need for citizenship education. The United States decreasing involvement in Vietnam and less emphasis on Vietnamization, as well as the announcement of America's invasion into Cambodia, fueled the responses of Americans speaking out about the war. This event was further publicized with student protests and the tragedy that occurred at Kent State University. This decade was also the peak of the Civil Rights Movement, and the fight for equality among citizens was apparent. The fundamental democratic principles behind the Civil Rights Movement reflected the meaning of civic education. During this movement, individuals and civil rights organizations challenged segregation and discrimination with a variety of activities, including protest marches, boycotts, and refusal to abide by segregation laws.

Social studies education and the promotion of citizenship continued to drive the goals of society. Continued research showed that schools were not improving and that the nation was failing to provide students with experiences that would make them productive adults (DeCecco, 1970).

In the 1980s, there was a return to the basics in social studies. The goal of citizenship in social studies education, based on teaching values, was essential. The content in the social studies class in the 1980s was organized around topics such as place, continents, events, and subjects, and no federal mandates in curriculum organization had yet been established. It was at this time that a national curriculum was considered necessary. Basal textbooks were the foundation of teaching and learning, and teaching

practices reflected past methods. The effects of selected class materials were being examined. Influences of those writing the curriculum and textbooks were also explored. The most commonly used practices of teaching continue to be lecture-based, discussion and individual assignments in large group settings. Provoking inquiry and teaching values were less common at the time. Public support was a problem for social studies in the 1980s. Neither students nor adults during this decade understood how social studies in the classroom related to their lives outside the classroom. The general public and the government pushed for a general curriculum for social studies. However, it was society's pressure to excel globally that led to the reform of social studies education, as highlighted by Superka and Hawke (1984):

Although other subject areas and aspects of school share some responsibility for citizen education, social studies is primarily responsible for providing opportunity for students to learn the basic knowledge, skills, and values needed to understand and participate effectively in the United States political system and to analyze and help resolve public issues. (p. 120)

McClosky and Zaller (1984) developed a Democratic Values Scale to identify attitudes toward the two main traditions in America: democracy and capitalism. The scale was composed of items relating to the support for rights and liberties of various groups, attitudes toward equality, and support for due process and privacy rights. The authors found significant disagreement among participants concerning some democratic and capitalist values but an overall support for fundamental values. An example of the results indicated that Americans support the religious rights of others but have some problems with specific practices, such as flag burning or violations of moral codes or such as in terms of sexual preference. This study also found that Americans have a strong sense of equality, especially concerning politics, and they value a strong work ethic. Further,

Americans tend to support capitalism but are strongly suspicious of big business and feel as if they must protect their private property. McClosky and Zaller (1984) revealed the often conflicting traditions of free enterprise and popular rule in their study. Economic individualism and the government's involvement in the fairness of the common good were common themes. However, limited studies have been done in this area with high school students.

In 2001, legislation was passed to ensure that “no child was left behind.” This legislation favored teaching math and English rather than civics, ignoring one of the major goals of public schools (Jackson, Hinde, & Haas, 2008). Because of this national effort to improve students' standardized test results, teachers have less time to focus on and teach civic issues in the classroom. This era was the beginning of the shift to formal standards in education. Social studies standards that were initially focused on history now expanded to various content disciplines under the social studies umbrella. The social studies curriculum was seen as problematic because it was so much information to teach (McGuire, 2007). McGuire (2007) have continued by saying that teachers offering students learning experiences make a difference in the roles these students play in a democratic society. These experiences are important for giving purpose to studies of the past and reinforce the importance of the role of citizen.

Ellis, Fouts, and Glenn (1991) examined civic education and resolve that balance is needed between a knowledge-centered approach, a society-centered approach, and a learning-centered approach. A knowledge-centered approach was indicated as “negative” among student's attitudes toward the social studies. The authors (Ellis, et al. 1991) conceded that a “transformative social studies curriculum presents a major challenge and

requires a new way of thinking about the United States and the world” (p. 277). Similar research described that people under the age of 35 years pay less attention to politics and have lower levels of political knowledge than older people (Delli Carpini & Keeter, 1996). Further civic research (Owen, 1999) suggested that young people distrust politicians and have limited faith in government institutions to act in the best interest of citizens. These studies provided society’s refocus on combining civic competence among young people in connection with the research and practice in the social studies classroom. However, little research has been done on students’ perceptions of civic principles in the social studies classroom.

The 32nd Annual Phi Delta Kappa Gallup Poll, agreed in 2000, the most important purpose of schools was “to prepare people to become responsible citizens” (Branson, 2001, p. 4). In 2003, the Carnegie Corporation of New York and the Center for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement (CIRCLE) reported research conducted on school-based civic education in the United States. A national organization, the Civic Mission of Schools, was then established. The goal of the organization was to promote civic education with the goal of developing competent citizens who have the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary to participate responsibly and effectively in the political and civic life of a democracy. In 2004, the American Youth Policy Forum (AYPF) and the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD) discussed the reincorporation of civic engagement in public schools. The report (Billig, 2004) found that schools again were failing to teach not only the necessary information about democracy and citizenship but also the critical thinking skills and attitudes of productive citizenship. Together, the AYPF and the ASCD

developed an action plan that outlined the ways schools can meet the goals of producing active and engaged citizens. A list of propositions on ways to build civic engagement into the social studies curriculum was included in the report (Billig, 2004).

One of the challenges of teaching social studies to today's youth, more particularly teaching citizenship, is engaging the interests of students. Teachers may use a variety of teaching strategies and lessons in which they incorporate exciting and engaging materials that are relevant to the students' lives. Technology may also be used in the social studies classroom to promote citizenship and the development of global understanding and democratic principles. The role of technology in creating productive citizens has become an important part of social studies education (Cassutto, 2000). The Internet serves as a medium for people to meet and deal with issues and concerns on a global scale. The Internet promotes tolerance and serves a democracy, where people have a free speech. This freedom of expression is the highlight of the Internet, and educators should encourage students to actively participate. The Internet also provides students with opportunities to discuss issues and debate topics in an open-minded, free-thinking environment. This electronic environment has the ability to promote global understandings and teach students acceptance of world cultures. Further, the Internet introduces a world of information and people under a common language and allows for connections between people (Barnett, 2003). Students learn more from peers than from teachers—there is no argument there. So if given the guidance, students who use the Internet to socialize with other people from around the world are able to broaden their perspectives.

Banks (2008) described the new definition of citizenship as transformative, where action taken by citizens includes promoting values and morals, such as social justice and equality. Banks argued that citizenship education should reflect the individual's diverse culture and identity instead of assimilating that individual into group societal norms. Considering that this country was built on immigrants escaping religious persecution and the opportunity for rights and freedoms, it is important to educate students in the history of citizenship and adapt its meaning to our multicultural world. It is America's responsibility to maintain social justice and values such as ethics, freedom, equality, unity, and diversity. Citizenship in this country, according to Banks (2008), meant embracing principles such as social justice and equality, principles upon which the country was built. Hartonian, Scooter, and White (2007) stated that "the quest for cultural unity is inconsistent with democracy if it does not also recognize the rich diversity of our increasingly pluralistic society" (p. 243). The authors argued that values such as those listed above must be understood, reconciled, and balanced in order to establish the critical process of democracy (Hartonian, et al., 2007). Teachers can promote the American ideals of freedom, equality, unity, and diversity in their lesson planning and classroom activities.

Context of the Problem

Risinger (2003) reported that the percentage of people who vote, particularly those between the ages of 18 and 24 years, has declined each election year since 1972. That was the first election when all people between 18 and 21 could vote, and approximately 50% voted in that election. Risinger (2003) continued that in the year 2000, only 23% voted, and those statistics were self-reporting, indicating a possibly

lower rate. More than voting statistics were of concern (Risinger, 2003), the overall attitudes of students toward citizenship and the role of being a productive citizen were of concern as well. Risinger (2003) referred to the students as being disconnected from societal issues. Likewise, Paul (2002) found that more than half of 18- to 24-year-olds actually believe that schools are doing an adequate job providing young people with the information they need to make informed decisions, such as voting in elections. When students are brought together to discuss a school issue or the consequence of student actions, they are modeling a democratic society. Teaching students about civic issues and practicing democratic values in the classroom may ensure effective and productive citizens in today's society. The Civics Framework for the 1998 National Assessment of Educational Progress:

Students [should] show broad knowledge of the American constitutional system and of the workings of our civil society. They [should] demonstrate a range of intellectual skills-identifying and describing important information, explaining and analyzing it, and evaluating information and defending positions with appropriate evidence and careful reasoning. (p. 8)

Chiodo and Byford (2004) conducted interviews with students concerning their interest in the social studies classroom, seeking to reveal whether students really dislike social studies. Interestingly, students explained their concerns with social studies and the need to teach values of civic participation. Students expressed their desire to be a part of the learning process in the classroom as well as being of part of their community. Students described their experiences in government and United States history to have “direct relation to their lives and gaining knowledge in civic responsibility as important building blocks in their lives” (p. 21). Altoff (2008) affirmed helping prepare students for

college and for a career, as well as citizenship, should be the goals of social studies educator.

The lack of democratic practice in the classroom limits students from learning very important character values, such as responsibility, teamwork, group decision-making, and problem-solving skills. Individual responsibility for the community is an idea that lies at the heart of our society. Ochoa-Becker (1999) claimed that social studies teachers are responsible for teaching democratic values like equality, freedom, respect for all, and the celebration of diversity. It is important for students to understand all political systems, but democracy should not just be taught in schools, it should be practiced.

Citizenship addresses issues relating to social justice, human rights, community involvement and concern, and global interdependence and should encourage students to stand up against injustice, inequality, and discrimination. Citizenship education should help students develop critical thinking skills and problem-solving in cooperative groups when discussing issues of social, political, ethical, and moral problems. Gathering information, listening to other's opinions, and respecting and reflecting on their own opinions is key to civic minded students (Altoff, 2008). In geography, through inquiry, students question, investigate, and think critically about issues affecting the world and peoples' lives. Today, social studies teachers are engulfed with high stakes testing and meeting required standards. Teachers are not necessarily concerned with the promotion of citizenship as the primary goal of social studies education. It is my intention in the current study to provide information regarding students' perceptions of citizenship education.

Statement of the Problem

The State of Tennessee defines social studies with certain process standards that all social studies courses must fulfill. Acquiring information in the form of locating, gathering, observing, comprehending, organizing, and processing information is one aspect. A second standard is being able to analyze data and solve problems. Students are to analyze, synthesize, summarize, and evaluate information individually and in groups.

The expression of views about political or social issues and exposure to the ideas of others appear to help students be more analytic about information they possess and reinforce their understanding as they prepare to express their own opinions (Torney-Purta & Wilkinfeld, 2009, p. 19).

Communication is another process standard defined by the State of Tennessee. Conveying ideas, valuing judgments, beliefs, emotions through individual expression, and group dialogue are suggested to provide a connection in cultural communities and global networks. Finally, historical awareness is defined as the prioritizing of events, the identification of biases, the recognition of diverse perspectives, and the interpretation of history in efforts to predict the future. “Students who experience both types of civic education (interactive discussion and lecture) pay more attention to what is happening in the world around them and have more experience in school relating to diversity and cooperation” (Torney-Purta & Wilkinfeld, 2009, p. 21). All social studies teachers should be aware of their state’s standards and work to meet such goals. The idea of citizenship education encompasses these standards.

For the social studies teachers in a high school setting in Tennessee, the overwhelming emphasis on testing and accountability of teacher quality and student achievement contributes to teaching specific content found in State-issued textbooks. Through the researcher’s teaching experience and discussions with other social studies

teachers, it is noted that the goal of citizenship seems to be lost through the introduction of various standards across different disciplines. A new examination of school reform is needed on the basis of incorporating citizenship education into the social studies curriculum. Practicing democracy in the classroom and building a foundation in all social studies courses, based on developing citizens that are knowledgeable in global issues, show empathy and understanding for tolerance and diversity. This is the belief that such knowledge may empower individuals and create free-thinking, autonomous learners (Bickmore, 2001). The teaching of democracy in the classroom is vital to creating intelligent, informed members of society. It is within a democracy that freedom and liberty are highly valued and progress towards unity is desired for all.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided the study:

1A. How do the perceptions of a sample of 18-year-old students compare with those of a similar group studied in 1957 in regard to democratic values?

1B. How do students' perceptions of democratic values differ by such demographic characteristics as gender, ethnicity, grade point average, perceived level of classroom discussion in social studies courses, and political orientation?

2A. How do the perceptions of a sample of 18-year-old students compare with those of a similar population studied in 1957 with regard to constitutional rights and responsibilities?

2B. How do students' perceptions of constitutional rights and responsibilities differ by such demographic characteristics as gender, ethnicity, grade point average,

perceived level of classroom discussion in social studies courses, and political orientation?

3A. How do the perceptions of a sample of 18-year-old students compare with those of a similar population studied in 1957 with regard to economic issues?

3B. How do students' perceptions of economic issues differ by such demographic characteristics as gender, ethnicity, grade point average, perceived level of classroom discussion in social studies courses, and political orientation?

Research Methods

The increase in social studies testing and evaluation of teacher performance and test scores is centered on accountability. Social studies teachers, as a result of the increase in testing and accountability, must meet standards for testing as well as maintain essential goals for citizenship. After six years of teaching in a social studies classroom, the researcher's interest in student perceptions and knowledge of democratic values and beliefs increased, following the often-prescribed instruction associated with Tennessee's state tests. The researcher observed that as a result of such curriculum, the students' ability to identify and clarify democratic principles was limited.

To determine students' perceptions of civic education, the current study focused on 12th grade students from eight different high schools in a suburban school district in a Southeastern state. Schools were selected based on similar demographics, size, and classes. In the survey, participants responded to statements in three general areas: (1) constitutional knowledge, (2) economic concepts, and (3) democratic principles. The survey utilized a 5-point Likert scale with responses including "strongly agree," "agree," "no response," "disagree," and "strongly disagree." To establish validity, a pilot study

was conducted prior to the initial research. The senior students were currently enrolled in a regular or advanced placement (AP) Government course. For purposes of this study, a nonrandom sample was selected from each school from either a standard Government class or an AP Government class. Students were selected from each of the two Government courses according to age. A purposeful sample of 18-year-old students was selected in this study. Since the study investigates democratic values and knowledge, it is representative for the students to be of voting age and considered adults. The sample size consisted of 200 students.

This study was designed to investigate the perceptions of students regarding the goal of citizenship. The researcher intended to provide educators in the field with valuable information concerning this goal. For example, findings will be presented at district inservice and data analysis provided to the schools involved. With the researcher also serving as a social studies teacher, efforts were taken to ensure validity of the research outcomes. It is understood when conducting research among teachers in the same field that biases and other potential concerns do exist. It is of the utmost importance to understand and reveal such concerns during the study. Questions and reflective feedback was accepted during the study for all participants involved. Political and ethical assumptions will be considered during data collection and analysis, and necessary precautions will be taken.

This study took into account the variables that may influence the study of Constitutional knowledge and civic principles. Variables such as sample size, survey response time, dates of research, and influences in the school setting are all possible negative factors. Because the surveys were mailed, the researcher has no control over the

amount of time the respondent may take to complete the survey. Therefore, the sample size may be undetermined for a period of time to provide an appropriate response rate. The study was conducted over a two-month period, considerate of testing times in school when teachers are particularly busy, once again in efforts to gain an appropriate response rate. Finally, the school setting (diverse goals and initiatives) and the researcher's personal beliefs (political and moral) may also have affected this study.

Definitions of Terms

The following terms are defined as they were mentioned in this study. These definitions were developed through a review of the literature, as presented in Chapter 2. For purposes of the current study, definitions are as follows:

Democratic practices: Active participation from students in decision-making process in class.

Purposeful sampling: Sampling in which the researcher selects individuals and sites for study based on how the participants contribute purposefully to the research problem (Cresswell, 2007).

Cooperative learning: An instructional method where students work together to complete an assignment or task (Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 1994).

Habeas Corpus: The indefinite detention of noncitizens suspected of terrorism (Davis & Silver, 2002, p. 5).

Nationalism: Loyalty and devotion to a nation, especially in a sense of national consciousness exalting one nation above all others and placing primary emphasis on promotion of its culture and interests as opposed to those of other nations or supranational groups (Merriam-Webster Dictionary).

Patriotism: Love for or devotion to one's country (Merriam-Webster Dictionary).

Student empowerment: Boomer (1982) defined as "exercise their own powers and responsibilities" (p. 3).

Classroom climate: Place of study; an educational environment.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this chapter is to investigate student perceptions of democratic values and civic principles in the social studies classroom. To begin, a historical background of social studies education in terms of its goal of citizenship education from the 1920s to present day was presented. An examination of historical events, social and political movements, and the educational initiatives toward the establishment of social studies education was discussed. Analyses of surveys and polls taken throughout the decades designed measuring attitudes toward civic issues were also included. Critical review of previous literature of citizenship education and perceptions toward democratic values and civic principles were included to support the current study.

1920–1929: The Development of Social Studies Education

The National Education Association Committee released a report (1916) arguing that students should develop the qualities of citizenship through social studies education. It was not until the report was released that social studies became widespread and accepted in school systems. The report (National Education Association Committee, 1916) suggested combining subjects such as history, geography, political science, and economics to nurture the ideals of good citizenship. Watras (2006) explained that good citizenship is developed when students learn how human society has evolved. Citizenship education requires the promotion of national ideals, such as loyalty and feelings of being a part of the global community. It was also during this decade that the increase of immigrants to the United States, following the World War I, became a significant aspect of social studies education. Woodrow Wilson called for schools to increase the training of

community and national life. The focus of “Americanizing” immigrants and establishing patriotic feelings among native-born Americans were primary goals. At this time, historians claimed that the study of history was necessary to create a productive society. In 1921, college educators and public school workers formed the National Council of Teachers of Social Studies to provide a way local, regional, and national organizations to collaborate. In 1922, The National Society for the Study of Education published its 22nd yearbook on social studies. Harold Rugg (1922) edited the text and revealed the insufficient aspects of contemporary topics in current political, social, and industrial issues. Rugg demanded a revision of the textbooks being used at the time. To better understand the development of citizenship, social scientists like Charles Merriam began studying the diverse societies found around the world and their indoctrination of civic education.

Charles Merriam’s landmark work in the 1920s and 1930s provided the momentum for the emergence of political studies of socialization and the practical endeavor of civic education. Merriam and colleagues (1931) produced a series of cross-cultural reports that examined the development, control, and implications of civic training in eight nations: Austria-Hungary, England, France, Germany, Italy, Russia, Switzerland, and the United States. Through these studies, they investigated the relationship between political socialization and political regimes. The authors identified the specific qualities of citizenship being taught across each nation. Such qualities included patriotism and loyalty, obedience to the law, respect for government and public officials, an individual’s recognition of political obligations, a minimum degree of self-control, responsiveness to community needs in stressful times, knowledge of and agreement with the legitimating

national ideology, and a recognition of the special qualities of people within one's country compared to those of other nations (Merriam, 1931). The notion, made by each society, that good citizens must be able to exercise judgment about political issues and make decisions on public policies was not included. Merriam (1931) confirmed the position of John Dewey that critical thinking is an essential characteristic of a good American citizen, and Dewey's concern was that civic education was not developing such critical thinking skills. Dewey's commitment to reforming society was based on educational and political connectedness. Critical thought of issues facing a democratic society and the practice of good citizenship embodied the goals of Dewey and other progressive educators. Dewey aimed to integrate the school with society and the processes of learning with the actual problems of life by a thoroughgoing application of the principles and practices of democracy. The school system would be accessible to all: equal basis without any restrictions or segregation based on color, race, creed, national origin, sex, or social status. Group activity under self-direction and self-government would make the classroom a model republic, where equality and consideration for all would prevail (Warde, 1960).

Merriam's (1931) work promoted the importance of educating democratic citizens although establishing a research agenda and implementing civic education programs in the classroom were challenged. The American Historical Association (AHA), at this time, created the "Commission on the Social Studies in the Schools" to improve the promotion of citizenship and civic principles in the United States. Historian A. C. Krey (1932) chaired the commission and upon the review of *The History Inquiry* in 1924, published by the AHA, Krey confirmed the state of social studies curriculum as a

state of chaos. The number of students enrolled in schools increased dramatically, and social conditions in the United States changed rapidly. The spread of industrialization and national economic planning became essential topics for social studies instruction. These concerns led to a number of professional organizations working together to better develop social studies curriculum in schools to improve American society. The Commission on the Social Studies committee was composed of historians, educators, and political scientists in 1928 and was funded by the Carnegie Corporation. Charles Merriam served on the committee, and the work began in 1929. The committee analyzed current social studies textbooks and courses of study, read through pedagogical studies, and held discussions on their content. Historians included Charles Beard, Guy Stanton Ford, and August Krey, and the curriculum directors were George Counts, Franklin Bobbitt, Boyd Bode, and Harold Rugg.

Beard (1932) wrote the first volume, *A Charter for the Social Studies in the Schools* and outlined six key segments. These segments ranged from the synthesis of multiple perspectives, the need for planning and intelligent cooperation; preparing students for active participation in a democratic society, and enhancing liberty and promoting justice and equality of opportunity for all people. The Committee wrote the Charter with the overall purpose of social studies education as the promotion of civic principles. Franklin Bobbitt considered the aspect of creating rich, diverse thinking in students as a vague civic goal and suggested that more information was needed as to what defines a good citizen. Boyd Bode disagreed with the idea that an overly precise definition of citizen responsibility would link the document to present-day concerns. Merriam stated in his volume for the AHA commission that social science curriculum

should be developed based on social changes in society. Changes, such as technological advancement, the growth of modern companies, increase in labor unions, and the growth of governmental agencies, could produce increased benefits or threaten personal freedoms (Watras, 2006). Merriam (1934) suggested civic education should encourage students to think critically about the principles of democracy involving the distrust of irresponsible elites, mass control of institutions, and inequitable distribution of wealth. These principles are reflective of societal concerns at the time.

1930–1939: Early Progressive Education

The 1930s social studies curriculum was developed based on events such as the Great Depression and the economic effects of the stock market's crash in 1929. In 1935, the New York Regents' Inquiry on Citizenship Education measured student's civic competence and investigated citizenship practices in New York secondary schools. As a result of the New York Regents' Inquiry, on Education for Citizenship (Cornbleth, 1971) explained that first the attainment of information was the primary goal of civic education in these schools. Second, the reports (Cornbleth, 1971) suggested that the school climate and the environment of the community had more of an impact on student attitudes than actual instruction. Third, the reports (Cornbleth, 1971) announced that students lacked the skills necessary for civic competence. The commission concluded that civic educations be comprised of not only subject matter relevant to democratic values, but also a total school experience involving community and diverse teaching methods and participation in defining school policies of a democratic nature. (Cornbleth, 1971). Thus, the relationship of social studies and civic principles is still unclear for high school students.

In the late 1930s, the Progressive Education Movement emerged from Columbia University's Teachers College with a goal of reconstructing society through education. One of the leaders of this reform movement was Harold Rugg, whose first publication appeared in 1921. Rugg's innovative ideas and apparent passion for education and the promotion of teaching social studies were well known. Rugg firmly declared a deficiency in social studies curriculum, as in the social studies courses that were offered and how these courses were being taught in schools. Rugg (1921) defended the need for developing curriculum through a scientific approach and censured the failure to relate topics to students' daily lives and current societal issues. This modernism presented to social studies education was criticized by many in the 1920s but propelled into the following decade of change. Rugg proposed a new curriculum for social studies. He wrote a series of social studies textbooks, including *Man and His Changing Society* (which contained six sections), *An Introduction to American Civilization*, *Changing Civilizations in the Modern World*, *A History of American Civilization*, and *An Introduction to the Problems of American Culture*. This textbook series was considered both innovative and controversial at the time. The textbooks were viewed as un-American or unpatriotic because they raised questions about the structure of American society and a capitalist economy. Reviews of the textbooks revealed liberal, "new dealish" views, and right wing politicians and conservatives, particularly the American Legion, were critical of content that raised questions about social, economic, and cultural institutions (Evans, 2007, p. 101).

Harold Rugg emphasized teaching social studies using an issues-centered learning approach. Rugg's curriculum (Riley, 2006) encompassed the problems of America and

the promotion of education for social justice. His textbooks presented inquiry on the role and control of government in business. Issues of poverty, race and diversity, and labor rights were among the topics included in the series. The problem-centered format of the books and the open-forum questions included in the books were considered innovative during these times. For example, a textbook may include a problem in political life, such as the control of government by business. The problem would be presented with the introduction of a serious question, e.g., What control does the government have over business? In *America's March toward Democracy* (Evans, 2007), Rugg raised difficult questions about the functioning of democracy in America and initiated an open-forum discussion.. Narrative history, dramatic stories, stimulating pictures, moral dilemmas, and values lessons were oriented toward stimulating questions about the social and economic institutions of the nation (Evans, 2007). Furthermore, Evans (2007) explained that the goal of Rugg's textbooks was to "reconstruct social studies education in the United States in order to create a curriculum that would lead to an active and informed citizenry by centering the study of society on social issues" (p. 103). The objective was an innovative yet risky approach with the idea of changing social studies curriculum completely and abandoning the current more traditional curriculum. Rugg's curriculum was based on learning topically, not chronologically, through discussion and inquiry related to societal issues. Harold Rugg advocated against bias and teaching from a single perspective in the development of social studies curriculum. He concluded that there must be collaboration between different education professionals in creating and implementing a student-centered curriculum.

The very definition of indoctrination among the conservatives and contributors of progressive education affirms the ever-growing bias and perspective in social studies curriculum. Dewey (2001) defined indoctrination as the teaching of “systematic use of every possible means to impress upon the minds of pupils a particular set of political and economic views to the exclusion of every other” (p. 229). Promoting nationalism for patriotism may impose certain values, beliefs, and ideas on students. Scientific inquiry provided students with an opportunity to question the textbooks and content provided by the teacher. Rugg’s ideas were controversial and changed the way social studies curriculum was written, offering diverse teaching methods for the classroom. Teaching critical thinking and problem-solving skills are primary goals in citizenship education.

1940–1949: Fostering Faith in American Democracy

Dewey (1944) recommended students need the skills to think critically, locate, assess and evaluate information, analyze, synthesize, and apply learning to real-life situations. Teaching students to respect diversity, identifying individuals with their own abilities, ideas, and cultural identity, and developing critical thinkers and knowledgeable citizens who are engaged in societal issues are the goals of progressive education. From 1940–1949, this pedagogical view was implemented in US schools despite the nation being at war, the post-war economic recovery, and the beginnings of the Cold War with the Soviet Union.

In an effort to improve civic education curriculum, Stanford University examined the promotion of American ideals in schools, in which students understood cause-and-effect relationships and were taught through open-ended problem scenarios with discussion (Cornbleth, 1971). The Stanford Social Education Investigation, which took

place between 1939 and 1943, found that the problem-solving method was more effective in terms of student comprehension than the chronological approach to teaching history and civics. Problem-solving skills led to improvements in students' work habits, study skills, and research abilities. The teaching of these American ideals was implemented by various political and social educators through different concepts and values. Educators presented topics of good citizenship, and many of these topics became part of state legislation for teaching history and teaching students about the Constitution. Sampling procedures show this study's limitations on teaching civic principles on social studies.

It was World War II that influenced change in social studies education and its goal of citizenship. The teaching of American values such as patriotism and civil liberties, continue to be goals for civic education. The role of government at war time and the involvement of national security were topics of discussion and debate in the Social Studies classrooms on the secondary level. The United States government established the Marshall Plan in 1947 to help Europe rebuild after the War. Appreciating and understanding diverse cultural ideals and citizen's global responsibility highlighted the goals of social studies during this time. The US and Soviet Union became superpower nations after the Second World War. Citizens of The United States had started to fear the spread of communism, as observed in Soviet control of communist republics and eastern bloc countries. The Truman Doctrine, written as a response to the spread of communism, stated that any nation threatened by communism would receive aid from the US in "containment" efforts. These events solidified the need for citizenship education in terms of patriotism, nationalism, and liberty, the very nature of a democracy. Finally, the formation of the United Nations was also a result of World War II. Again, this union of

nations promoted international concern and became the foundation of civics. These historical events led to a re-evaluation of social studies and its goal toward citizenship.

In efforts to better understand the knowledge of civic ideals and perceptions of democratic principles in post-war America, Purdue University administered an opinion poll to 2,000 high school students across the country. The survey included questions about the Bill of Rights, democratic principles, and socialism. These investigations, led by Hermann Remmers (1945) of Purdue, consisted of three polls administered to a total of 20,000 high school students from five different states: Indiana, Illinois, Kentucky, Michigan, and Ohio. Statements were given on a 3-point, Likert-type scale in the survey and analysis that included the percentage of total responses of “yes”, “no”, or “uncertain”. One of the purposes of this study was to determine changes in youths’ opinions and attitudes on issues of government, education, economic enterprise, and cultural aspirations and values. Obtaining high school students’ views on such issues may have served various purposes. One of these purposes was to reorganize the study and the methods used to teach social studies particularly. Another purpose for examining students’ perceptions on these issues was to establish a starting point for more effective community integration. Students make a connection to the local community as well as in the global world in terms of building and understanding social roles and relationships. Findings may also serve as the basis for the more effective planning of education, government, and social provisions.

Understanding the climate of opinion within high schools concerning current issues helps educators and social scientists determine the best plan of action in improving vital educational problems. For example, roughly 70% of the students agree that “our

government should establish a permanent system for providing medical services for all” (Remmers, 1945, p. 295), and 50% believe that “the age requirement for voting should be lowered from 21 to 18” (Remmers, 1945, p. 295). Other current issues included the training of the military after World War II, stating that “Some military training of all able-bodied young men should be continued after the war and the variation among responses determining President Roosevelt’s candidacy for a fourth term” (Remmers, 1945, p. 295). The study (Remmers, 1945) suggested that the increase in approval for world government may have been related to school study, media, and radio discussions. The 1957 Purdue Public Opinion Poll revealed some interesting findings: (1) rural and urban students had more similarities (in terms of the poll) than differences, (2) students from better home environments tended to be more liberal than those from the poorer home environments, and (3) racial misconceptions and ignorance was prevalent at the time. It was students’ attitudes toward issues such as race, religion, and socioeconomic status that were the real findings of the poll’s results (Remmers, 1957). Attention to these aspects of our multicultural society requires an educational focus. Teachers and schools may examine these problems by measuring students’ attitudes and providing instruction to influence in a positive way. Comparing students’ perceptions today with this study showed significant correlations in constitutional knowledge and civic issues.

From 1945–1950, the Detroit Citizenship Education Study investigated a total school approach defining citizenship education and created curriculum based on resolving political, social, and economic issues (Meier, Cleary, & Davis, 1969). Tests, questionnaires, and teacher logs were collected to determine the needs of civic education. Data indicated a need for students to understand democracy as a lifestyle. Other

perceived needs included improved problem-solving skills, more critical thinking, and better analytical skills for students. Finally, the teacher's role in developing curriculum was found as necessary (Cornbleth, 1971). However, limited studies at the time have been done regarding high school student's perceptions of civic principles. Kansas State College and their State's department of public instruction conducted a similar study from 1948–1953. Social studies teachers worked cooperatively to improve their civic education programs. Summer workshops developed definitions of citizenship objectives behaviorally, measuring student behavior, modifying curriculum, and evaluating program outcomes. Student knowledge of government increased during the high school years, but the study found little change in students' perceptions of civic principles and critical-thinking skills. Cornbleth (1971) concluded substantial agreement among studies, indicating that evident change was needed in civic education programs. Despite evidence that the total school environment impacts students' civic attitudes and behaviors, an emphasis on subject matter continued in the curriculum. Finally, active teacher participation in civic education curriculum modifications improved the chances for these changes to be implemented in the schools.

1950–1959: Global Competition and New Social Studies Revealed

Several events occurred in the 1950s that dramatically changed the way society viewed social studies as a discipline. The Korean War, the beginning of the Space Race (marked by the launch of Sputnik), and the Purdue Public Opinion Poll became turning points in history for social studies curriculum reform and its focus on citizenship. During this decade, the US was experiencing a need for change in social studies education, which was prompted by international competition and advances in science and technology. The

general public demanded a change in social studies curriculum as a result of these competitive advances.

The Korean War. A key historical event that shaped the need for curriculum standards was the Korean War of the 1950s. Many conservatives in America were displeased with the decision-making process during the war. Strength of character was questioned, and blame was placed on schools for poorly preparing citizens for character. During this war, a few American troops were held captive by Chinese communists and interrogated about American democracy. It was revealed publically that the soldiers knew very little about the functioning of their own political system. The prisoners showed little compassion and courage toward their fellow soldiers. Chinese interrogators described the soldiers as materialistic and ignorant of social values, social conflicts, and tensions (Bonner, 1958). The prisoners were depicted as individually insecure and afraid.

The American soldier has weak loyalties: to his family, his community, his country, his religion, and to his fellow soldier. His concept of right and wrong is hazy. He is basically materialistic, and he is an opportunist. By himself, he feels insecure and frightened... He is ignorant of social values, social conflicts, and tensions. There is little or no knowledge or understanding, even among American university graduates, of U.S. political history and philosophy; the federal, state, and community organizations; states and civil rights, freedoms, safeguards, and how these allegedly operate within his own decadent system. He is exceedingly insular and provincial with little or no idea of the problems and the aims of what he contemptuously describes as “foreigners” and their countries. (Bonner, 1958, p. 181)

To many conservative Americans, the materialistic nature of the soldiers represented a lack of citizenship education in public schools. The social studies discipline was to blame by the general public and government (Riley, 2006). For this reason, many scholars were motivated to make changes in educating Americans about the various

interdisciplinary aspects of social studies. Little research was conducted in the social studies classroom on the high school level.

New Discussion of “Closed Areas”. In 1955, a second event marked the dramatic change in social studies curriculum reform. Psychologists Maurice Hunt and Lawrence Metcalf (1955) introduced a new method of teaching social studies, emphasizing citizenship education and the teaching of “closed areas” that are often disregarded due to their controversial nature. Some of the subjects defined as “closed areas” were homosexuality, teenage pregnancy, racism, and patriotism. Discussion of these issues, Hunt and Metcalf (1955) considered, should be included in social studies curriculum. In social studies, students should be given the opportunity to reflect on facts, principles, and theories discussed in the decision-making process (Barr, et al., 1977).

The Beginning of the Space Race. The third significant event of the 1950s that greatly influenced social studies education was the Soviet Union’s launch of the space shuttle Sputnik in 1957. Sputnik was the first artificial satellite launched into space to make an elliptical orbit around the world. This technological advancement by the Soviets gave them military advantages and fueled the United States to invest more in science and technology to compete with these advances. This event “confirmed the sorry state of American schooling to its critics” (Byford & Russell, 2007, p. 40). Many Americans claimed that the successes of the Soviets confirmed the failure of the public school system. Progressive education, which was popular at this time, was blamed for this claim and failure. Michael (1960) reported that 23% of Americans believed the meaning of Sputnik was to catch up in education, science, and defense, obtaining this information from a survey administered in 1958. Educational initiatives in school curriculum,

particularly for preparation of citizenship, would result as a response to this historical event, and increased funding implemented such initiatives. The National Science Foundation was founded in 1950 and contributed to the educational initiatives, in response to these events, by funding various projects to reach the new goals. Also, in 1958, the National Defense Education Act was written to reorganize schools, especially in the area of social sciences, to compete with the Soviet threat. It was at this time that a national curriculum was introduced.

The Purdue Public Opinion Poll. The fourth and final major event that influenced public schools' increase in the teaching and learning of civic issues was the Purdue Public Opinion Poll of 1957. This poll surveyed high school students on their knowledge and attitudes toward democratic values. This survey was administered at a significant time, following major events in American history. Events such as the Cold War and the struggle in thought and action over communism led to the re-examination of the social studies curriculum with a focus on democratic values. The poll was part of the effort to re-examine previous attempts at citizenship education described in the 1930s and 1940s after the recent significant events in the 1950s. Purdue University's poll provided data that showed significant findings as they apply to this re-examination. Remmers (1958) stated that:

Teachers are enriched by shared opinions, innovations, and information; students benefit from teaching that is in a constant state of refinement and from the vitally interested teachers who refine it; our society is strengthened by a citizenry that is actively discussing the society's problems and its needs. (p. 2)

The Purdue Poll (Remmers, 1957) evaluated the effectiveness of the school's attempt to transmit democratic values and students' interests and how these values and interests influence citizenship education. One hypothesis of this study stated that if

schools effectively taught democracy, then as time in school increases, the democratic orientation of the students will increase. To measure the effectiveness of schools teaching democracy, this survey assigned a democratic value score for each participant and compared those scores among grades. Remmers (1958) explained the overall decrease in democratic knowledge as a cycle of decreased overall knowledge, and the study indicated that the students surveyed have a weaker democratic orientation, which was a disturbing downward trend. This trend may have been the result of the political, social, and economic events that occurred during this time. For example, an American value or essential democratic principle is the guarantee of individual freedom by the US Constitution; however, students interpreted this differently for certain groups. Remmers stated, "If we are to maintain our own freedoms and also influence the neutral peoples of the world, we can not be hypocritical about our national ideals" (p. 4). However, the relationship of these concepts for high school students today is unknown.

The discussion and practice of civic issues in classrooms may support a democratic-based social studies curriculum (Hess, 2008; Hess & Posselt, 2002; Hunt & Mattern, 1997; Metcalf, 1968; Snyder, 2008). In Remmers (1957) Purdue Opinion poll, students, constitutional knowledge was assessed in terms of freedom of speech, search and seizure, religious freedom, knowing one's accuser, the right to assemble, unalienable freedoms, habeas corpus, eminent domain, cruel and unusual punishment, and self-incrimination. Understanding the Bill of Rights is one of the goals of social studies education, particularly in terms of government. To be a productive citizen and as a continued purpose of public schools, students must understand their individual rights and responsibilities. The constitution is, by far, the most important document in American

history and builds the basis for the social studies curriculum (Jackson, et al., 2008). The first amendment states, that “there can be no law that interferes with someone’s religion, freedom of speech or press, or their ability to peaceably gather in groups, join organizations, or to contact the government with complaints” (Jackson, et al., 2008, p. 377). However, little research has been done in this area with high school students today.

Teaching essential concepts like the First Amendment to the US Constitution leads to engaging discussion regarding current events and historical and important issues of today, creating thoughtful citizens. Another Bill of Rights scenario involves the topic of search and seizure. The US Constitution protects its citizens from unreasonable searches and seizures, developed in response to colonist rule during British colonial times (Staros & Williams, 2007). Controversy in teaching and assessing students’ understanding and perceptions of what is unreasonable and whether that applies to certain institutions where children are endangered may be explored in encouraging that knowledge and thinking. For instance, in the US Supreme Court case, *Kyllo versus the United States* (2001), the courts ruled that the Fourth Amendment search includes the emergence of enhanced surveillance after the September 11th attacks on the US. However, another court case, *California versus Greenwood* (1988), determined that the meaning of a search did not constitute the police looking through someone’s garbage bags on a curb. Teachers may discuss this controversy of what defines “reasonable privacy,” “probable cause,” and special rules for juveniles with students. Each of these concepts of the Bill of Rights was included in the poll to develop an understanding of student attitudes. According to the results of the Purdue Public Opinion Poll, there were

mixed results assessing constitutional knowledge and attitudes about the Bill of Rights.

According to Remmers (1958), a sample of the findings revealed:

... 28% of twelfth grade students agreed that in some cases the police should be allowed to search a person or his home even though they do not have a search warrant; while only 37% disagree that local police may sometimes be right in holding persons in jail without telling them of any formal charges against them, and 38% agree that the police or FBI may sometimes be right in giving a man the “third degree” to make him talk. (p. 8)

Economics is a key aspect of citizenship education. Economic issues dominate public policy and debate that ranges from discussions of social security to immigration to international security (Otlin, 2008). Economic concepts were evaluated in Purdue’s poll, which included concepts of individual ownership, government control of industry, and government control of financial institutions. Ferrarini and Scug (2007) stated, “the most important contribution of the Constitution was the establishment of a framework for the efficient conduct of economic affairs” (p. 59). In terms of economic issues in society, Purdue’s poll addressed student attitudes toward government control of industry, an issue that has recently been discussed in the news because of the country’s economic recession. Forty-two percent of seniors agreed that large estates on which the land lies idle and unused should be divided up among the poor for farming. Seventeen percent of seniors agreed that all banks and all credit institutions should be run by the government.

Finally, democratic principles were questioned with regard to affirmative action, acceptance and conformity, voting rights, and conceptualized freedoms. Sixty-eight percent of seniors agreed that most of us do not realize how much our lives are controlled by other people’s schemes, and 30% agreed that people who have wild ideas and do not use good sense should not have the right to vote. Interestingly, when asked if they would favor a law in their state that requires employers to hire a person if he is qualified for a

job regardless of his race, religion, or color, only 68% agreed, leaving 20% in disagreement. Revealing students' knowledge of the US Constitution and exploring essential democratic principles for productive citizenship provided a foundation for restructuring the social studies curriculum. Understanding student attitudes toward economic issues facing the country at this time contributed to the re-examination as well.

Remmers (1963) concluded the study was important to this decade in order to obtain an inventory of high school-aged youth's views on matters of common concerns in government education, economic enterprise, and cultural aspirations and values. The findings from Purdue University's poll contributed to the development of basic trends in effective planning in education and government and social arrangements, exploring the origins and factors that changed those attitudes, interests, wants, and needs of youth. The limited findings of the 1957 Purdue Public Opinion Poll revealed the need for a general re-examination of the social studies curriculum, particularly in each social studies discipline including civics. Finally, the poll served as a starting point for more effective community integration of the state, region, nation, and ultimately world community.

In summary, four events in the 1950s impacted the re-examination of the social studies curriculum toward the goal of citizenship. The controversy over America's involvement in the Korean War and the results of the captured soldiers' interrogation about democracy and their little knowledge concerning such critical issues of being US citizens fueled this re-examination. The promotion of controversial democratic values and issues, such as the topics called "closed areas" by Hunt and Metcalf, became apparent. The Soviet Union's launch of Sputnik and the American public's enlightened view on the competition of global understanding in terms of schooling and knowledge

was another factor urging this change. And finally, the public opinion poll conducted by Purdue University and the results of high school students' perceptions of constitutional knowledge and their perceptions toward economic and democratic issues was another key event. These events paved the way for a new decade of innovation in writing and practicing curriculum in social studies.

1960s: The New Social Studies Movement

The improvement in social studies education during the 1960s began with the citizenship approach and the augmentation of teacher evaluation. This citizenship approach to social studies continued into the 1960s and modeled a variety of teaching methods. It was at this time in education that the concept known as Praxis testing was developed by Joseph Schwab, and teachers' knowledge of certain content areas was evaluated. Schwab (1983) argued that each discipline had unique approaches to knowledge and that curriculum developers should focus their attention on preparing young people for advanced work. Schwab's work influenced curriculum development projects in the middle to late 1960s (Armstrong, 2003). His structure of the disciplines led to the creation of the Praxis testing series. Rationale behind Praxis included the evaluation of teachers and their content knowledge. Lessons in Social Studies classrooms revealed action, procedures in instruction, and reflection. Modifications to lessons and learning became based on teachers' daily reflections. The introduction of teacher-developed materials and tests was more common. The notion of knowledge base, assessing skills, and values were critical to social studies education. Student performance was assessed through individual projects instead of ready-made tests. Teaching democratic values and inquiry was emphasized. Both the general public and the

government pushed for a general curriculum of social studies. Berelson, Lazarsfeld, and McPhee (1954) claim:

The democratic citizen is expected to be well informed about political affairs. He is supposed to know what the issues are, what their history is, what the relevant facts are, what alternatives are proposed, what the party stands for, what the likely consequences are. (p. 308)

In 1960, a group of social studies scholars was met in Woods Hole, MA. This meeting focused on the investigation of a new social studies curriculum to involve the contributions of a variety of professionals. Individuals from different disciplines within social studies worked alongside instructors in the field to enhance curriculum. The end result of the Woods Hole meeting ushered in the movement known as the “new social studies.” Collectively, more than 50 projects were introduced to the curriculum in all content areas of social studies. Edward Fenton of the Carnegie Institute for Technology published textbooks through Holt, Rinehart, and Winston in the late 1960s. These textbooks supported an inquiry-based approach to teaching social studies. Fenton (1991) suggested that a change was needed in social studies curriculum based on the perceptions of Americans as a result of the events discussed previously in this chapter, the innovative teaching methods that were new at the time, and the funding opportunities granted by the National Science foundation and Ford and Carnegie foundations. The projects developed as discussed at the Woods Hole conference affirmed common themes, such as the focus on inquiry, values, and games and simulations. Teaching social studies through issues and developing supplemental curriculum that outlined the goal of citizenship was the primary purpose. The goals of preparing students for daily life in our democratic society and global world were sought. The integration of innovative material that had been

created by social studies and education professionals was introduced to the classroom. The resulting projects were revolutionary for this time period.

The “new social studies” movement of the 1950s and 1960s changed the way social studies curriculum was written. A history professor from Harvard University, Donald Oliver, along with his graduate students and several secondary school teachers, collaborated to create a series of materials for social studies. This series, known as the Public Issues Series (Stern, 2010) emphasized the method of inquiry in classroom discussion and debate. This project consisted of lessons that stimulated student inquiry about current societal issues and challenged assumptions. Students, for example, would be given a case study to analyze and decide their position on the situation. Oliver (1966), working closely with his graduate students, James Shaver, and Fred Newmann wrote *Teaching Public Issues in the High School*, which presented a framework for teaching the analysis of public issues, the jurisprudential framework. Newmann was interested in teaching Civics and Government classes through the analysis of public issues that guide community service and social action. Newmann (1975) coined the notion of “what government *is*” as:

...the basic structure of government-its basic values, such as citizen participation, majority rule, separation of powers, civil liberties, and its basic elements, such as the two-party system, the two houses of Congress, the role of the judiciary, and the organization of the cabinet. (p. 186)

The project initiated by Harvard University earned federal funding from the US Office of Education as a result of the emphasis on curriculum reform due to historical events, such as the launching of Sputnik and competition during the height of the Cold War. Fred Shaver and all of Oliver’s graduate students became teacher-participants in the project’s implementation. The series of pamphlets included social studies topics such as

“The Immigrant’s Experience: Cultural Variety and the “Melting Pot,” “Privacy: The Control of Personal Information, and “Social Action: Dilemmas and Strategies.” Such lessons highlighted multiple perspectives and viewpoints, made valued judgments about conflicts, and allowed students the opportunity to construct knowledge, meaning, and solutions with current conditions in society. In each lesson, students were guided to consider persisting questions of history and identify various groups and individuals who would support or oppose such issues. Students were to develop their own ideas and beliefs on issues facing society by supporting and justifying the issues discussed. Questions included “Under what conditions would citizens be justified in using violence to overthrow a government?” and “In what situations should the rights of private property and private enterprise be limited to ensure certain rights or benefits of workers?” (Stern, 2010). The project conducted a series of evaluations, and one result found it inconclusive as to whether it is possible to teach the average high school student how to engage in intellectual discussion about social issues, calling for further examination. Furthermore, teachers also developed skills in promoting Socratic dialogue and in the discussion of values-based dilemmas. The Harvard Social Studies Project was intended to promote discussion and argument of public issues, which were the values-based dilemmas persistent in history. The discussion and debate of controversial issues, as suggested by the Project’s rationale, promoted students’ ability to analyze and justify their views on a public issue (Stern, 2010). However, limited studies have been done regarding student’s perceptions of civic principles in the social studies classroom.

American Political Behavior, consisting of five units, was developed by Indiana University and intended for high school curriculum in government (Stern, 2010).

Developers of this project considered the current civic curriculum materials outdated and found little relationship between the social concepts taught in social studies classrooms and the lack of teaching controversial issues to build on students' prior knowledge of political issues. This book project utilized four methods of instruction: confrontation, rule-example, application, and value judgment-policy decision. Each method depends upon a student's ability to organize data and evaluate and analyze political phenomena (Stern, 2010). The units included titles such as "Similarities and Differences in Political Behavior," "Elections and Voting Patterns," and "Political Decision Makers." The project provided students with the opportunity to (a) select, organize, and interpret information; (b) use concepts and make generalizations about political activities and behaviors; and (c) make value judgments individually and in a group setting, based on empirical evidence. Small group activities and the discussion of forced-choice scenarios and alternative solutions reinforced democratic political beliefs. The goals of the project revealed an understanding of the rights of citizens in society and their role in government and law making. Indiana University's project held extensive field testing by over 100 teachers and approximately 10,000 students. The course certainly impacted student's political beliefs and knowledge of American democracy, and the course material was used to enhance existing government courses taught in schools (Stern, 2010). Still, the relationship of civic concepts for high school students today is unknown.

Funded by the Office of Education and under the direction of John S. Gibson, Professor of Political Science and Education, Tufts University developed the "High School Social Studies Project" (Stern, 2010). Under this project, 10 major topics were covered in this 4-year program, which was developed to provide supplemental

alternatives to the current lecture-based methodology of high school social studies courses. Thirty-eight civics-related case studies were included in this project in which students read, organized and analyzed data, and defined societal issues concerning politics, the economy, and morality. The developers of this project stated that the “function of citizenship education in a democratic society is to transmit knowledge and to encourage the attainment of values, attitudes, and behaviors conducive to the perpetuation of the democratic civic culture” (1972). The ideas of making responsible decisions and understanding the governing process were central to this project. Seven elements in governing were described: (a) the people, the governed, (b) the officials, (c) the political process, (d) the structure of government, (e) decision-making, (f) policy, and (g) policies of external politics. Political, social, economic, and historical events taught in the units created by Tufts University, lessons emphasized the interaction among these seven elements. Student involvement concerning these issues is necessary in games and simulations, the analysis of film, the creation and presentation of student reports, and engaged discussion among the class. The project was written for students in grades 7 through 12 who would not continue formal education beyond high school. No teacher training was needed for the implementation of the material, and a detailed and elaborate teacher’s guide was provided. Tufts University offered, in its project, a variety of opportunities engaging students in learning activities that were relevant to the students’ daily lives. Again, studies are limited in students’ perceptions today of current civic principles.

The University of California’s Committee on Civic Education developed a series of supplemental curriculum to be implemented in elementary and secondary school

settings. A textbook, *Voices for Justice*, was designed for use in 12th-grade social studies classrooms. The curriculum promoted political science with a historical perspective of controversial issues, with topics addressing conflicts in society and the origins of the conflict, an understanding of the positive and negative aspects of the conflict, and ways of dealing with these issues as a citizen and leader in a constitutional system. The situations and case studies of this project explored the principles of constitutional democracy and were developed to re-create important court cases relative to democratic principles of the American Constitution. Conflicts are explained in the material with guidance from the teacher, providing students with the tools for dealing with conflict in a constructive manner. Two booklets, “Your Rights and Responsibilities as an American: A Civics Casebook” and “Conflicts, Politics, and Freedom,” were included along with a teacher’s guide (Stern, 2010). Teachers provided students with the opportunity to discuss issues and practice the Socratic method of inquiry. The project fostered students in developing a frame of reference for use as a tool in comprehending controversial issues. In evaluation of the materials, teachers revealed that students were either “very interested” or “interested” in the materials 90% of the time. The Committee on Civic Education designed a program that actively engaged students in the study of controversial issues (Stern, 2010). However, limited research has been conducted regarding students’ perceptions of civic principles.

Projects were often based on the roles of the law and government in international affairs and concerns. For example, Betty Reardon of Columbia’s Teacher’s College, led a project out of New York entitled the World Law Fund (Stern, 2010). This project was created for high school curriculum as a series of case studies and emphasized the

potential role of law to control violence in international affairs. The project-supported films, such as *Lord of the Flies*, *Dr. Strangelove*, and *High Noon*, were accompanied by a teacher's guide. Two books, *Peace is Possible* and *Peace: The Control of National Power*, were also included in the project. The project involved class simulations and games, as well as diverse teaching strategies when students teaching about law (Stern, 2010). This project was limited to curriculum development and teacher feedback, not student involvement.

The Justice in Urban America Project. Another project based on developing respect for the law consisted of the series, Justice in Urban America, produced by the Chicago-based American Society Foundation, to be implemented in high school civics and United States history courses. The project introduced a study of cases in the development of US law. The Foundation's goal was for students to understand that law was the primary tool for urban citizens to effectively deal with their environments (Stern, 2010). Students were to develop a respect for law and order, the role of law in American society, and ways to deal with issues of law in urban settings. The supplemental curriculum included readings and questions, as well as a teacher's manual with student objectives and strategies for teaching.

Members of the board of education and contributing foundations worked together to develop projects based on complementary ideas. The US Office for Education funded this project, and the goals of the grant included the improvement of students' attitudes toward law in American society. The program was led by Robert H. Radcliffe, the Director of the Law in American Society Foundation. He was a Professor of Education from the University of Illinois at Chicago who worked with Thomas Newman, Instructor

from the Laboratory School at the University of Chicago and also received support from educators and attorneys. Six booklets were developed that may have been used separately or collectively integrated into curriculum for courses in government or civics, economics, sociology, American history, or urban studies; these booklets contained case studies, questions, photographs, and graphics. The developers agreed that alienation is the primary problem in urban and suburban America and that law is the tool for citizens in dealing with that problem in their environments (Stern, 2010). Again, little research has been done in the area of high school students perceptions of civic principles.

Understanding democratic society was the theme of the project. Similarly, the Hartford Board of Education submitted the American Liberties Project as supplemental for 12th-grade students in an inner-city setting. Two booklets were produced as a result of this project. Each booklet dealt with directed readings concerning constitutional cases. The case studies in the booklets are accompanied by visuals that present the progression of a constitutional case. Students were guided to read and analyze the case studies, develop solutions, and discuss the outcomes of the cases.

Funded through the Ford Foundation, Carnegie Corporation, and the National Science Foundation, "From Subject to Citizen" was developed by the Education Development Center to teach students how to analyze the nature of relationships from a global perspective. The project included paperback booklets, simulations, records, and role-playing cards, all written for grades nine through twelve. The two major social studies topics geared toward citizen development were (1) the concept of power and (2) political culture. Units compared and contrasted the American political system and the British system and the ways American experiences influenced this difference. Case

studies of 17th- and 18th-century political issues relating to current issues helped make the connection between centuries and continued issues in society (Riley, 2006).

Supplemental material included primary source readings, inquiry-based and problem-solving lessons, simulations and games, and role-playing activities. Flexibility with the project exists in timing of units, and the introduction of novels and biographies was encouraged. Another advantage to this project was the training provided to teachers. An extensive series of workshops was offered to teachers for use in in-service, and field testing found that teachers easily followed all of the materials with ease (Stern, 2010). Thus, the relationship of social studies and civic principles is still unclear for high school students today.

The educational reform movement in social studies, known as “the new social studies,” ushered in new content and pedagogical strategies. The impact of these projects to the social studies discipline was enduring. Pedagogical approaches, such as teaching values, utilizing case studies, and the focus on inquiry, were among the critical, lasting impressions introduced and promoted during this decade. As a result of such projects, the American education system changed dramatically during this time period. As Hertzberg (1971) stated:

...the new social studies movement arose after a decade of attack on American schools as anti-intellectual, mindlessly oriented to life adjustment, neglectful of the able student, contemptuous of excellence, and filled with incompetent teachers untrained in their subject matter who plodded through curricula invented by fuzzy-minded educationists. (p. 1)

Contributing to the coming decade, education for social change in social studies experienced changes in the ways curriculum was written, the amounts of compassion and dedication teachers had for their students, and teachers’ knowledge in their content areas.

1970s: After the New Social Studies Movement

In the decade after the implementation of more than 50 social studies projects, social studies education and its goals for citizenship were still evolving. Curriculum was still written primarily by university professors, and schools were criticized for treating individuals as equal under constitutional law. Reform in social studies education had changed, just as society had changed. As described by Hertzberg (1971), the social studies centered around two versions of cognition: 1) The core curriculum was the result of decades of planning involving primary source material, and 2) The second model concerned the commitment to social action and student commitment and involvement in curriculum design and content. The idea of student empowerment, according to this curriculum, allowed students to make choices in topics of study. Materials of the late 1960s were still under review although they had been adopted by various schools. Hertzberg (1971) argued that social studies classrooms of the 1970s were poorly evaluated for student effectiveness and should have been observed in greater detail to discover the connection between past and present issues. Historical events occurred, such as the political stand of almost 500 colleges and universities closing or going on strike motivated by the killing of students by the National Guard at Kent State. The controversial US involvement in the Vietnam War along with the hundreds of thousands of troops engaged also influenced civic education. The ratification of the 26th Amendment to the US Constitution, which lowered the voting age to 18 years, impacted the development of voter opinion in schools. This amendment would allow high school seniors who were 18 years of age to vote in elections, promoting their involvement in governmental issues.

Finally, the public indictment and public opposition to or support for the government during and after Nixon's trial in the Watergate crimes illustrated the need for the promotion of discussing civic principles in Social Studies classrooms. Each of these events that occurred in the 1970s influenced civic education and the need for assessing student attitudes toward democratic principles. The need for enhanced discussion of social, political, and economic issues to transform the social studies classroom into the preparation of citizenship continued. Following the backlash of the reform movement of "the new social studies" in the previous decade, funding for the various projects was depleted and the leaders of teacher education programs were left out of the projects; opposition arose and the movement had expired. The curriculum returned back to the original State-determined standards.

The educational initiatives of the 1970s to promote citizenship, the central issue of the time, may be outlined in six concepts, explained by Levine (1975):

(1) The concept of affirmative action and its ramifications, as seen in the election of 1972, was essential as a democratic value and constitutional right; the concept which recognized all groups have an opportunity for upward mobility in society.

(2) Ethnic studies was the second issue perceived as controversial and, in the rising demand of curriculum reform, enriching white and non-white ethnic groups in curriculum material. Students of various ethnicities expressed their desire to learn about their own history and culture. New curriculum was written to approach all diverse cultures in social studies education so not to be considered bias or stereotypical in this culturally pluralistic nation.

(3) Bilingual education was the third issue. It was introduced as necessary to include in school curriculum.

(4) The reorganization of municipal power and the concept of decentralization were central to the issues facing this decade. Adequate attention must be given to the formation and continued governance of the community.

(5) The issue of racism was another controversial issue that is polarized and plagued the nation at this time; this issue continues to exist in American society.

(6) Finally, the concept of group identity as a current issue of the 1970s continues and deserves considerable intellectual attention in school.

Each of these issues explains the changes in social studies reform during this decade, and an issues-centered curriculum addressing these common problems was considered. However, little research has been done concerning these concepts in the social studies classroom.

Cornbleth (1971) recommended that schools provide a curriculum involving the analysis of contemporary public issues around which policy is created. Issues at this time included foreign policy, civil rights, defense, and more. Student councils may provide experiences of citizenship, but the number of students involved is small and the participation in school management is limited. Civic education programs, Cornbleth revealed, must be reassessed and present political and social issues should be reflected in current goals and practices. For example, student councils are often perceived as an effective form of democratic practice. However, student council members are limited in their involvement in actual school proceedings and management. A student may understand the workings of the formal structure of American government, yet a student

knows little about the American political system and is poorly prepared for the role of an informed, responsible citizen. The 26th Amendment to the US Constitution saw the expansion of the electorate to include people between ages of 18–20 years. This amendment impacted the existing civic education programs and development of curriculum in an effort to immediately prepare students for political participation. Teaching strategies that encourage conflict resolution by discussing issues of public concern and debate would replace the rote learning of memorization and recitation (Cornbleth, 1971). The application of critical thinking, conflict resolution, and making difficult political choices help students develop a position on issues in society. Changes in secondary civic education were made as a response to social and political issues. Relating civic education to present political realities was emphasized in the assessment of current programs.

Kent State Shootings. The shootings at Kent State in 1970 widened society's perceptions of government control and power and the implications of government control over individual and group rights. Students at Kent State University were rightfully protesting the American invasion of Cambodia, which President Richard Nixon announced on television on April 30, 1970. The shooting of unarmed college students, where four were killed and nine were wounded, resulted in American distrust of the government (Lewis & Hensley, 1998). This event received national response, and hundreds of colleges and universities closed throughout the US for 4 million students to strike. This event fueled public opinion of America's involvement in Vietnam and in international affairs, leading to a re-examination of social studies. The impact of social change and the debate of government control or individual rights were highlighted.

The Watergate Scandal. Another event critical to the changes in social studies curriculum was the Watergate scandal. The effects of the scandal ultimately led to the first and only resignation of a US President, but the indictment, trial, and conviction of many administrative government officials ensued. The Watergate scandal began with the breaking and entering of the Democratic National Committee headquarters at the Watergate complex on June 17, 1972. The Federal Bureau of Investigation made a connection between payments that had been made to the burglars and the Committee to re-elect the current President. The investigation revealed Nixon's secret tapings of proceedings in his offices and other meetings. One of the recordings exposed Nixon's involvement in the cover-up of the break-in. The Watergate scandal continued to ignite the public's view of government and trust in political policies (Fremon, 1998).

The social studies discipline was impacted in the 1970s because many Americans wanted the school system to reflect the importance of the US Constitution and understand the American political system. It was also important for social studies curriculum to demonstrate the importance of social issues and individual and group decisions in making such policies, along with support and opposition of those policies (Cornbleth, 1971). These historical events and educational initiatives paved the way for further curriculum reform in the social studies discipline.

1980s: Back to Basics and A Nation at Risk

An increase in Collegiate studies during the 1980s indicated a decline in the civic engagement of young Americans and brought a resurgence of interest in civic education within the academic community. The 1980s encompassed the examination of teacher satisfaction; textbooks and the lack of supplemental materials; diverse instructional

practices such as lecture and discussion; individual student assignments; inquiry and discovery learning; values; community-based instruction; unit projects; and simulations. Research findings (Delli Carpini, 2002; Delli Carpini & Keeter, 1996; Owen, 1999) showed the following: (1) People under the age of 35 years pay less attention to politics and have lower levels of political knowledge than older people; (2) Young people distrust politicians and have limited faith in government institutions to act in the best interest of citizens; and (3) Younger students are less inclined to register and turn out to vote in elections than older classmen.

In reaction to poor student civic participation, a trend developed within the American scholarly community to unite research and practice in endeavors to increase civic competence among young people. These revealing findings indicated a need for promoting civic education. Owen (2004) disclosed, students, in efforts to promote citizenship, should learn core American values such as egalitarianism and individualism in schools. They must also understand the nation's rule of law, the idea of government applied equally and justly. These values may be passed on through civic education in social studies curriculum. Thus, the relationship of social studies and civic principles and values is still unclear for high school students.

It was society's pressure to excel globally that lead to the reform of social studies education, as highlighted in *A Nation at Risk* (U.S. Department of Education, 1984). This policy exposed the American education system as failing to meet the national need in workforce capabilities and in comparison with other nations. Content, expectations, time, and teaching were components of the process contributing to this failure. A close look

was taken at school curriculum and teacher qualifications. Citizenship education was again explored as a critical goal for social studies.

Textbooks in the 1980s were sophisticated and full of graphics. On the secondary level, textbooks were written with an emphasis on content coverage instead of skills and included little direct skill instruction. Textbooks from the 1980s failed to document controversial issues, and even where the topics were included, there was a sensitivity in the teaching approaches. Textbooks written in previous decades tended to foster a read-recite style of teaching and learning, while up-to-date texts present more primary source materials and graphic data along with narrative text. The increase of case studies in teaching civics was apparent in textbooks at this time, which means that there is more diversity in textbooks than seen in previous decades. In summary, the textbooks of the 1980s tended to be conventional and based upon information that was noncontroversial in nature. Learning various attitudes or skills was limited to the use of supplemental educational videos or materials. Projects and supplemental materials implemented during the 1960s during “the new social studies movement” were abandoned, and teaching through inquiry was reported as difficult to use with most students (Patrick & Hawke, 1982).

Teachers in the 1980s, according to the Research Triangle Institute (RTI) survey, felt adequately qualified to teach their content area, reported at 90% of junior high teachers and 80% of senior high school teachers (Weiss, 1978). However, teachers were less likely in their preparation programs by encountering one dominate method of teaching. They were lacked an exposure to an interdisciplinary course, a social issues course, or the practice of inquiry in social sciences (Wiley, 1978). The teachers’ views

revealed that socialization and work preparations were primary goals for social studies. Teaching values in the classroom is second only to the parent's role as consistent in the community. Fontana (1980), reporting for the Agency for Instructional Television, discussed teachers' views of the purpose of social studies. These purposes included teaching knowledge from the past, coping with life, thinking critically, teaching knowledge and methods of social sciences, and preparing students for alternative futures ("More than 95% of teachers agreed that critical thinking should be the purpose of social studies as compared with only 37% agreeing that teaching knowledge of the past should be the main purpose" Fontana, 1980, p. 8). Teachers views conflicted with the widespread impression that history was a major aspect of social studies in teachers' minds. However, these studies were limited to teacher's perceptions.

One of the factors influencing social studies education for citizenship lies in teachers' perceptions of problems and needs within the discipline. The belief that the subject is less important than others has an overwhelming impact on student interest and teaching materials. Another influential factor is the insufficient funding for purchasing equipment and supplies, the lack of materials for individual instruction, out-of-date materials, inadequate student reading abilities, and lack of planning. Lack of student motivation and interest led to a decrease in teacher satisfaction, also known as "teacher burnout" (Eslinger & Superka, 1980). Finally, social studies teachers in the 1980s were not very active in professional organizations or associations, but they do value other teachers as sources of information about developments in their careers. An important research goal for the social studies in the 1980s involved teachers' common views and attitudes as less satisfied on textbook reliability, training and time for planning,

socialization and preparation for the future as primary goals, and shaping student experiences. Engle and Ochoa (1988) revealed that the social studies are linked incontrovertibly with the democratic ideal. According to Engle and Ochoa, social studies:

...specializes in the education of an effective democratic citizen. The democratic citizen is not to be understood merely in the classic "good citizenship" sense of who is patriotic, loyal, and obedient to the state; rather, the good citizen is also a critic of the state, one who is able and willing to participate in its improvement. (p. 3)

In 1987, McPike (2003) defined three essential beliefs for social studies curriculum: (1) democracy as the worthiest form of government ever conceived was the first of these beliefs, (2) not taking democracy in practice for granted, and (3) the belief that democracy's survival depended on transmitting the political vision and equality before the law to each new generation. This was what united Americans and gained support and loyalty for our political institution. "It is to give tomorrow's adults a proper educational context within which they can understand the world around them and form their own opinions about it" (McPike, 2003, p. 7).

In efforts to investigate the support of civic education among youth, Weil (1993) collected data from seven countries (the United States, Britain, France, West Germany, Italy, Austria, and Spain) from 1945 to 1987. Two scales were used for evaluation: Democratic Ideals and the Approval of Existing democracy and a subscale of items from Kaase's (1971) study, which was a separate scale examining a form of democracy and democracy as a solution for problems in Germany at the time. Examples of questions in the study included:

If you think about the difficulties which face us: The scarcity of raw materials, food and sources of energy, caused by the rapid growth of the population, and the growth of the economy. Do you believe that we can control these difficulties with our democratic form of state with several parties in the Parliament, or do we need

a single-party system with a strong government at the top to take care of these difficulties in the future?” ((Kaase, 1971, p. 200)

The author indicated that the term “several parties” is the democratic response. Weil’s studies continue in 1993 and 1996 (Kaase, 1971). Weil’s (1993) results indicate that eastern Germans tend to be more democracy-oriented than expected. In addition, western Germans were found to be only slightly more democratic than eastern Germans. However, western Germans were found to have much higher levels of support for post-war democracy than Austria and Spain during their times of transition. Results also indicated that eastern Germans were more critical of democratic practices as compared to western Germans. In transitional democracies, Weil suggested the support for “demonstration effects,” referring to the admiration of western countries and existing democracies and “historical preferences” concerning those who prefer the new regime over the old one to be more supportive of democratic values. However, this study was limited to German citizens, not American citizens.

The 1980s was a ground-breaking time period for social studies education and the adaptation of curriculum toward civic education. Diverse methods, lesson planning, teacher evaluation, and various studies examining civic education initiatives formed the basis that paved the way for coming decades and changes in standard curriculum. The focus during the 1980’s was on “basics” and competency, and the notion of “what you get is what you earn” came to light. Teaching social studies was driven by content standards assigned by the State. The lack of commitment in social studies teaching civics really determined the path of educators in the coming decades. Social studies instruction was conducted primarily in large group settings by one teacher using the assigned textbook, worksheets, and films. Few new technologies or innovative methods of

teaching were being explored. The traditional way of teaching—lecture-based, guided recitation, and assignments—dominated the social studies classroom (Fancett & Hawke, 1980).

1990s: National Standards in Social Studies Education

In 1990, the National Assessment of Educational Progress's (NAEP's) Report Card in Civics concluded that America's students had only a superficial knowledge of civics (Walling, 2007). The "Back to Basics" movement of the 1980s and No Child Left Behind legislation impacted social studies education concerning citizenship. A number of organizations were formed in the 1990s in response to the NAEP report and the movements and legislation. The Center for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement (CIRCLE) initiated a campaign to promote civic education. This campaign conducted, collected, and funded research on the civic engagement and political participation of young Americans.

The Center for Civic Education is a nonprofit education corporation that promotes responsible citizenry, is committed to democratic principles, and is actively engaged in the practice of democracy in America and other countries. The Center developed programs to supplement social studies curriculum and provide professional development. The American Civics Center, another organization, was established as a nonpartisan civic education organization with the goal of preparing citizens for active participation in democracy through programs and travel to Washington, D.C. for middle and high school students. The goal of each of these organizations was to promote of civic education in schools.

Ellis, Fouts, and Glenn (1991) presented a balanced view of civics education, calling it one that respects a “knowledge-centered” approach (focused on subject matter content) alongside a “society-centered” approach (focused on solving problems) and a “learner-centered” approach (focused on activities). The lack of democratic practice in the classroom limits students from learning very important character values such as responsibility, team work, group decision-making, and problem-solving skills (Branson, 2003). Individual responsibility for the community is an idea that lies at the heart of our society. Ochoa-Becker (1999) indicated that social studies teachers are responsible for teaching democratic values such as equality, freedom, respect for all, and the celebration of diversity. Furthermore, it is important for students to understand all political systems, but democracy should not only be taught in schools but it should also be modeled and practiced. However, limited studies have been done regarding students perceptions of civic principles in the social studies classroom.

Students need the 21st-century competencies found in critical thinking, locating, assessing, and evaluating information, analysis and synthesis, and applying learning to real-life situations to succeed in the future. To “counter-socialize,” a term coined by Ochoa-Becker (1999), means to reflect on values learned and felt early-on in life. Ochoa-Becker and Engle (1999) produced a model that reflected these three aspects. The model was based on enhancing higher order thinking skills using five types of questioning: 1) definitional questions, 2) speculative questions, 3) analytical questions, 4) evidence questions, and 5) justification questions. These types of questions give students the chance to make their own decisions and provides the teacher with a format to follow, keeping the discussion structured and under control. It is necessary for the teacher to

remain neutral in these types of discussions with students, pose the questions, and give the students control, which is often difficult for teachers. However, the teacher, prior to delivering such instruction, would develop rapport with his or her students and create a comfortable and safe atmosphere. It is only in this type of classroom environment that students can openly and honestly discuss current issues and perhaps argue constructively as a group. This exercise describes democratic progress.

Whitefield and Evans (1996) conducted a series of surveys to measure the political, cultural, and economic attitudes of citizens in Russia. In one study, Whitefield and Evans (1996) focused on Russians' support for democratic principles and political opposition, surveying approximately 2,000 citizens. The attitudes toward democracy were assessed based on seven statements using a 5-point "agree-disagree" scale. The concepts of freedom of expression and political opposition, as well as the actual practice of democracy, were addressed. Statements such as, "People should be allowed to organize public meetings to protest against the government" were asked. The authors found a slight decrease in Russians' support for democratic principles and political opposition from 1993 to 1995. Vagueness in the responses limited more explicit analysis of statements such as, "Political parties that wish to overthrow democracy should be allowed to stand in general election" (Whitefield & Evans, 1996, p. 220). However, this study was limited to Russian citizens, not American citizens.

Torney and Wilkenfeld (2009) conducted a study on paths to 21st-century competencies through civic education. The survey analyzed the responses of 9th-grade students to citizenship issues. Issues addressed in the study included social justice, human rights, coherence of community, and global interdependence. Torney and Wilkenfeld

supported that citizenship should encourage students to challenge injustice, inequalities, and discrimination. The development of critical thinking skills; consideration of social, political, ethical, and moral problems, as well as the opportunity to explore opinions and ideas of others, is the foundation of creating productive citizens. Students also learn, through this evaluation of citizenship, to argue a case of others and speak out on issues that are of concern to them. According to Torney and Wilkenfeld:

Students who experience the type of civic education that combines interactive and lecture based learning experiences also have stronger norms of social responsibility, meaning they think that it is important for citizens to maintain the social order by doing things such as working hard and obeying the law.” (p. 25)

Active participation in different kinds of decision-making situations, e.g., determining fairness or unfairness and understanding that justice is essential to a democratic society and to the role of government in enforcing order and resolving conflicts, was provided. The study (Torney & Wilkenfeld 2009) determined that students are aware of what is considered to be good citizenship. Students described the values of democracy as justice, diversity, toleration, respect, and freedom. The following conclusions were drawn by Torney and Wilkenfeld (2009) based on this research:

Civic-related classrooms that fail to implement either a traditional or an interactive education fail to adequately prepare students for their futures. More than a quarter of ninth grade students in the United States were receiving neither of these types of civic education in 1999, perhaps because of instruction that was poorly organized or did not get students involved. (p. 29)

However, the relationship of these concepts for high school students in the social studies classroom is still unknown.

Current Trends in Civic Education

Instruction in today’s social studies classroom continues to emphasize the recitation of new information in the form of lecture, and the issued textbook is the

primary source of content. Textbooks and standards are written by those that are not directly involved in teaching the material and do not know what the students are capable of learning. These professionals do not know the interests or level of diversity of these high school students. Discussion, especially in large groups, is avoided in today's classrooms, and cooperative grouping sometimes occurs. Open discussion of controversial and social issues is avoided due to the teacher's inability to remain neutral and a fear of disrupting individual opinions and beliefs (Hess & Posselt, 2002). The values and inquiry model of instruction, which was impactful in the social studies movement of the 1960s, is rarely utilized in social studies classroom today. The effort to plan and develop teacher-made materials and assessments as well as the student-centered approaches of these types of lessons serves as an obstacle for many social studies teachers. Despite these factors, the overall goal of social studies—to produce effective citizens—has not changed; social studies teachers continue to strive to meet this critical outcome. Themes in current trends of civic education, as discussed in this section, reveal and emphasis on (1) the use of discussion of current events and controversial issues, (Chiodo & Byford, 2004) (2) the use of technology to promote global citizenship (Snyder, 2008), and (3) character-building in a democratic classroom (Banks 2008; Schapp, 2002; Lopez, 2002; Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 1994). In the following section, these three themes are interrelated and emerge collectively.

Today, social studies teachers are engulfed with high stakes testing and meeting required standards; teachers are not necessarily concerned with the promotion of citizenship as the primary goal of social studies education. It is the intention of the current study to provide information regarding students' perceptions of citizenship

education. A recent study (Kahne & Westheimer, 2003) found that 25% fewer citizens today vote than in 1960. Young people of today are disengaged from politics, and there is confusion and difference in the very definition of citizenship and the things that make a democratic citizen.

The primary goal of citizenship in social studies education is affected. Kahne and Westheimer (2003) studied schools and educational programs that promote service and positive character traits such as honesty, integrity, self-discipline, and hard work in students. The programs to support these traits may de-emphasize the need for developing strong community members, meaning that they promote individual traits instead of group or collective concerns. Teaching individual character values may detract from the teaching of important democratic principles and may also hinder democratic change. Analyzing surveys, observations, interviews, and student portfolios, Kahne and Westheimer noted students' commitment to and capacity for democratic participation and civic involvement. The study documented statistical significance of students' understanding of social needs and their willingness to spend time addressing these needs (Kahne & Westheimer, 2003). Three common themes emerged, one pertaining to the emphasis on students' commitment to change society where there is a need. Two strategies were suggested to promote this theme. Teachers may show students that improvements in society are needed by discussing and examining social problems and controversial issues, the idea that emerged during Rugg's progressive education time period. Progressive Harold Rugg (1941) affirmed:

To guarantee maximum understanding, the very foundation of education must be the study of the actual problems and controversial issues of our people... the avoidance of controversy is a travesty of both knowledge and democracy. To keep issues out of the school, therefore, is to keep thought out of it; it is to keep life out

of it.” (p. 15)

Byford and Russell (2007) suggested that the discussion of controversial issues leads to more productive citizens in our society and their learning to solve problems and think critically with a group about an important issue and promote interpersonal skills. Students in government classes may become exposed to CNN during a Congressional hearing where open and respectful discussion is occurring on an issue. This real-life connection to discussion in their high school classes may lead to student interest and relevance. Byford and Russell stated that students exposed to discussion in the classroom were more likely to discuss issues in society and enjoyed this type of teaching strategy, remembering active learning. It is also important, as suggested in the article, for teachers to research discussion techniques and the benefits of learning new ways to incorporate discussion into their classroom. It is America’s responsibility to maintain social justice and values like ethics, freedom, equality, unity, and diversity.

Citizenship in this country means embracing the principles that the country was built upon. Hartonian, et al., (2007) stated, “the quest for cultural unity is inconsistent with democracy if it does not also recognize the rich diversity of our increasingly pluralistic society” (p. 243). The authors (Hartonian, Scooter, & White, 2007) argued that values such as those listed above must be understood, reconciled, and balanced in order to establish the critical process of democracy. Teachers can promote American values of freedom and equality, unity, and diversity in their lesson planning and activities. The unequal distribution of wealth seen around the world is an example of a lesson/topic discussed in social studies classrooms, such as the idea of wealth in the hands of few versus in the hands of the majority in a developing country where most

citizens live in poverty and struggle. Teaching such controversial issues introduces important democratic discussions in the social studies classroom. Making informed and justified decisions and answering critical thinking questions should be all content-area teachers' commitment; this would instill higher order thinking skills in students. "History matters. It matters not only because we can learn from the past, but because the present and the future are connected to the past by the community of a society's institutions" (Ferrarini & Schug, 2007, p. 57).

Hess's (2008) definitions of discussion ranged from the minimalist viewpoint of "more than a couple of people and an idea" to a much more detailed description of "exchanging openly various perspectives based on a topic or question." The third definition Hess mentioned has particular significance to the viewpoint considered in the current study because a personal definition (to the researcher) of discussion would certainly include respect between members for the understanding of various perspectives. The final definition requires the most time dedicated to all members of discussion: the teacher and the students. Therefore, the last definition would, in my experience, be the least likely to occur in today's classroom.

Another strategy to teaching civic principles, which emphasized commitment from students to a changing society, involved students' positive experiences with civic participation. Kahne and Westheimer (2003) found that positive civic experience strengthened student commitment. Both commitment and the capacity to view oneself as an active participant in society were important in the development of citizens. Capacity may be encouraged through engaging students in real-world projects. An example of a project that required students to develop speaking and presentation skills was

implemented Students reflected on their increasing views of identity as democratic citizens.

Teaching skills and providing knowledge of civic engagement through workshops and simulations were also found to be effective in fostering civic principles. Given a particular scenario, such as the decision to eliminate the free or reduced lunch program, students were given the opportunity to discuss the policy and develop practical solutions to enact change. Connection is the idea described as important for students to understand that civic engagement is not individual but a collaborative method. Connection among students may be attained through communities of support, such as sports teams or religious groups, which are activities that bring a community together. Many of the programs observed connecting civic role models to students in the classrooms. Bringing in active participants of change in society may enable students' vision of becoming connected to society and being of value to participation in a democratic world. Schools must follow the programs observed by Kahne and Westheimer (2003) in efforts to produce citizens, focusing on the many opportunities for student commitment to participation in a democracy, the capacity to view themselves as productive citizens, and the connection between themselves and our democratic society.

“Researchers agree that statements and questions selected toward individual freedoms and justice is important in teaching our nation’s youth about American democracy” (Byford, 2004, p. 48). Teachers should provide students with the civic knowledge, critical thinking skills, and decision-making skills to enhance their ability and willingness to become responsible and informed citizens. A democratic classroom introduces and teaches cooperative learning and decision-making among peers and

enforces respect for others' viewpoints. The classroom may be focused on global issues and democratic values that promote citizenship, as social, political, economic, and environmental issues are openly discussed in a democratic classroom. Students gain an understanding of various world views and perspectives and accept that there are people around the world who live similarly to and differently from them. A democratic classroom is comfortable, and the rapport between the teacher and the student is one of equal respect and openness to inquiry in learning. Classroom discussion and debate shows students the importance of current events, and these activities can be beneficial to critical thinking and problem-solving skills. The National Council for the Social Studies (2001) solidifies the importance of each student's "knowledge of our nation's founding documents, civic institutions, and political processes" (p. 15).

A report sponsored by the Carnegie Corporation of New York and CIRCLE (2003) reviewed and interpreted research on school-based civic education in the US. Fifty-six leading experts contributed to the report, which included goals for civic education in schools and recommendations for school administrators and policy-makers. More than 30,000 copies of the report were distributed and a national organization—the Civic Mission of Schools—was established, as well as civic education coalitions in all 50 states and the District of Columbia. The charge of these organizations was to promote civic education according to the primary goal of developing competent citizens who have the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary to participate responsibly and effectively in the political and civic life of a democracy. However, little research has been done in this area with high school student's perceptions of civic principles.

The American Youth Policy Forum (AYPF), in collaboration with the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD) (2004), conducted a series of roundtable discussions on Capitol Hill in Washington, D.C. on the topic of bringing civic engagement back into public schools. National, state, and local policy-makers, education leaders, and researchers attended this meeting. An action plan, Restoring the Balance between Academics and Civic Engagement in Public Schools, was introduced, outlining the ways schools can accomplish the mission of producing students who are both academically proficient and civically engaged. The report begins with:

...a disturbing imbalance in the mission of public education...the recent preoccupation of the nation with reshaping academics and raising academic performance has all but overpowered a task of equally vital importance - educating our young people to become engaged members of their communities as citizens. (Boston, Pearson, & Halperin, 2005, p. 13)

The report found that US schools are failing not only to teach the necessary basic knowledge about democracy and citizenship but also in teaching the necessary critical thinking skills and “attitudes and dispositions of productive citizenship” (p.16). Seven propositions for ways to build civic engagement into the public school curriculum were suggested in the report. Sharpening civic knowledge, teaching responsible citizenship, and providing opportunities for hands-on civic education through community service were among these propositions.

CIRCLE (2004) found that government and history classes consist of content in the following percentages: 45% of content covered the Constitution or the US system of government and how it works; 30% of the class focused on great American heroes and the virtues of the American system of government; only 11% of the content in government and history classes was centered on problems facing the country today; and

only 9% of time was spent on racism and other forms of injustice in the America. Thus, the relationship of social studies and civic principles is still unclear for high school students.

Teaching democracy in the classroom is vital to creating intelligent, informed members of society. It is in a democracy that freedom and liberty are highly valued and progress toward unity is desired for all. Teaching citizenship education in the social studies classroom has been a primary goal for schools. The use of technology and the Internet is considered in the teaching of global issues and relating learning in the social studies classroom to student's everyday life.

Diem (2006) quotes George and Nancy Brownlee:

Information is the vital component of a participatory and representative democracy. In the 21st century, ignoring the education of children in assessing, analyzing, evaluating, and producing media messages, deprives students of the very tools they need to function as citizens and to live a fruitful, rewarding personal and life work. A choice to include meaning, questioning, and critical thinking skills in the story of technology in education is a choice that presents technology, democracy, and the schools as friends of each other.” (p. 4)

From *The Civic Mission of Schools* (2002) reports that “For more than 250 years, Americans have shared a vision of a democracy in which all citizens understand, appreciate, and engage actively in civic and political life” (p. 4). Schools can provide opportunities for civic engagement both in the community and globally. Teaching and discussing current events from all disciplines gives students the chance to explore what is going on in the world around them. Service work in the community also provides much-needed democratic values of understanding the role of people in society. Community service allows students to see the real-life situations of individuals living in or around their communities. Andolina, Jenkins, Keeter, and Zukin (2003) found that 48% of

students who completed current events and service projects in their community said their interest in politics and national issues increased. Civic skills, such as open discussions, developing and presenting oral speeches, and writing and debating issues in high school social studies classrooms, contribute to practicing democracy and creating those active citizens.

Practicing democracy in the classroom is built upon trust between the teacher and the student and fair and equal treatment of all students toward each other. Creating a comfortable classroom climate that is conducive to such open discussion and debate of controversial or civic issues is the responsibility of the social studies teacher. Addressing issues of group discussion techniques and guidelines, diversity, and equality will contribute to the maintenance of class control (Kelly, 2002). The idea of a classroom that is student-centered, meaning that power is shared with the students, may be an obstacle that teachers overcome when teaching citizenship education.

Mattern (1997) defined power sharing with students as offering students the choice of course layout and curriculum. Instead of following a set curriculum when talking about Germany, a teacher may begin a lesson by inquiring about what students know about Germany and what they would like to know about the country as a whole. In this manner, the teacher is choosing to relinquish some power over the content and give the students the power to make decisions about what they study. This would, in turn, heighten student interest in the subject matter, which can be a challenge in itself in the social studies classroom. This is a simple way to practice democracy in the classroom, and it plays an important part in creating productive citizens. It is not just practice of

power-sharing in the classroom that promotes citizenship education but practicing the privilege of voting. This study was limited to German citizens, not American citizens.

The role of technology in creating productive citizens has become an important part of social studies education. Teachers in social studies classrooms can use computers to introduce different levels of communication on a global scale. Learning through online discussion forums, as Snyder (2008) suggested, becomes “recursive,” as students read and reread each others’ responses and generate additional thinking and content of online postings. This type of learning reinforces concepts, ideas, and diverse perspectives, which in essence is the practice of democracy. Discussion boards provide benefits to teachers as well; the teacher is able to reflect on the topics and the students’ understanding of the content. Exploring student responses may help teachers gain insight on student learning. This understanding can lead to greater relationships between teachers and students and a more comfortable and capable classroom climate due to the use of technology and the discussion of historical events.

A democratic classroom is one that is humanistic and child-centered. It seeks an understanding of improving the school climate and its role in the community. Students are given the opportunity to help make decisions in the classroom and play a role in the formation of rules and procedures. A democratic classroom introduces and teaches cooperative learning and decision-making among peers and enforces respect for others’ perspectives (Apple & Beane, 1995). The classroom may be focused on global issues and democratic values that promote citizenship. Social, political, economic, and environmental issues are openly discussed in a democratic classroom. Students have an understanding of various world views and perspectives and accept that there are people

around the world who are similar and different than their individual and cultural lives. A democratic classroom is one that is comfortable, and the rapport of teacher and student is one of equal respect and open to inquiry in learning. Classroom discussion and debate shows students the importance of current events, and these activities can be beneficial to critical thinking and problem solving-skills (Hess, 2008). Practices in a democratic classroom reflect practices in a democratic society.

A new look at school reform is needed based on the incorporation of citizenship education into the social studies curriculum. Practicing democracy in the classroom and building a foundation in all social studies courses based on developing citizens who are knowledgeable in global issues shows empathy and understanding for tolerance and diversity. A thorough belief is that such knowledge empowers individuals and creates free-thinking, autonomous learners.

A critical theory of education is influenced by Dewey's (1944) and Freire's (1970) critical pedagogies in attempts to develop tools and true learning that would promote democracy, social justice, and concepts of life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness (Warde, 1960). According to Warde (1960):

Critical theory seeks to reconstruct education to radically democratize education in order to advance the goals of progressive educators like Dewey, Freire, and Illich in cultivating learning that will promote the development of individuality, citizenship and community, social justice, and the strengthening of democratic participation in all modes of life. (p. 16)

Research (Allen, 2003; Breault, 2003; Ehrlich, 1999; Hartoonian, 1991) suggested the importance of promoting and practicing citizenship in the classroom. Democratic practices in the classroom may included student-led conferences, such as student councils, open discussion of current events, and group decision-making with a focus on

individual responsibility. As students actively engage in citizenship education, they are becoming more informed and knowledgeable of civic issues. As cited in Byford (2004), “despite time constraints and the subsequent primacy towards teaching to assessment standards (teaching to the test), teachers still use democratic teaching approaches (e.g. We the People, Public Policy Discussion Approach, Public Issues Discussion, Reasoning with Democratic Values, and Kids Voting) which may help teach the concept of democracy and constitutional rights as guiding principles in the social studies classroom” (Owen, 2006). Despite overwhelming research for the promotion and importance of citizenship education, there is a deficiency in the schools today. Perhaps through this historical examination of civic education, the political, social, and economic events that influenced the progress of civic education, and through the perspectives of students on civic principles, social studies may be revitalized toward its goal of citizenship. Thus, further research is needed in terms of student’s perceptions of civic principles in the social studies classroom.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of the current study was to investigate student perceptions of democratic values and civic principles in the social studies classroom. The intent of this chapter was to describe the methodology for such efforts. For purpose of this study, the researcher utilized a quantitative methodology of survey research. In the survey method, participants complete a survey or questionnaire describing opinions or attitudes of a population by studying a sample from that population. This survey method was also feasible in today's economy and promotes a prompt response time. A cross-sectional approach was used to administer the surveys; data was collected (Creswell, 2008).

The surveys developed for the current study attempted to evaluate student knowledge of constitutional principles and reveal student opinions on democratic values and economic principles commonly taught in social studies curriculum. A survey questionnaire including three scales was used to explore the research questions. These scales included: (a) a scale to measure student perceptions of democratic values; (b) a scale to measure student perceptions of constitutional rights and responsibilities; and (c) a scale to measuring student perceptions of economic issues. The survey was administered to 250 high school seniors in eight Shelby County schools: Arlington High School, Bartlett High School, Bolton High School, Collierville High School, Germantown High School, Houston High School, Millington High School, and Southwind High School. The study was adapted from the Purdue Public Opinion Poll of 1957 by Hermann Remmers.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided the study:

1a. How do the perceptions of a sample of 18-year-old students compare with those of a similar group studied in 1957 in regard to democratic values?

1b. How do students' perceptions of democratic values differ by such demographic characteristics as gender, ethnicity, grade point average, perceived level of classroom discussion in social studies courses, and political orientation?

2a. How do the perceptions of a sample of 18-year-old students compare with those of a similar population studied in 1957 with regard to constitutional rights and responsibilities?

2b. How do students' perceptions of constitutional rights and responsibilities differ by such demographic characteristics as gender, ethnicity, grade point average, perceived level of classroom discussion in social studies courses, and political orientation?

3a. How do the perceptions of a sample of 18-year-old students compare with those of a similar population studied in 1957 with regard to economic issues?

3b. How do students' perceptions of economic issues differ by such demographic characteristics as gender, ethnicity, grade point average, perceived level of classroom discussion in social studies courses, and political orientation?

Statistical Hypothesis

The researcher initially hypothesized that there would be a significant difference between perceptions of a sample of 18-year-old students compared to those of a similar

group studied in 1957 with regard to democratic values. There is also a significant difference among students' perceptions of democratic values by such demographic characteristics as gender, ethnicity, grade point average, perceived level of classroom discussion in social studies courses, and political orientation. Second, the researcher hypothesized that there would be a significant difference among the perceptions of a sample of 18-year-old students compared with those of a similar population studied in 1957 with regard to constitutional rights and responsibilities. The difference between students' perceptions of constitutional rights and responsibilities was significant when comparing such demographic characteristics as gender, ethnicity, grade point average, perceived level of classroom discussion in social studies courses, and political orientation. Third, the researcher theorized a significant difference among perceptions of a sample of 18-year-old students compared with those of a similar population studied in 1957 with regard to economic issues. The difference between students' perceptions of economic issues differs significantly by such demographic characteristics as gender, ethnicity, grade point average, perceived level of classroom discussion in social studies courses, and political orientation.

Participants

For purposes of this study, the researcher utilized a purposive nonrandom sampling. Twelfth-grade students were selected from eight high schools in a suburban school district in the southeastern United States. These senior students were currently enrolled in a regular or advanced placement (AP) Government course; one Government class and one AP Government class were selected from each school. From each of the two Government courses (regular and AP), students were selected on the basis of age. For

this study, 18-year-old students were selected. Since this study investigated democratic values and constitutional knowledge, it is representative for the students to be of voting age and considered adults.

When the survey was administered, participants for this study were all 18 years of age. There were approximately 100 male students and 100 female students that participated in the study. Each of the students was enrolled in a government class on either the university or technical path requirements toward a graduation.

Participants were informed of the voluntary nature of their participation in this study and of the fact that they could discontinue their participation at any time with no negative consequences regarding their academic standing in the district (see Appendix A). In an attempt to minimize any influence student participants might have had on each other, participants were contacted individually via electronic mail. Prior to the beginning of the study, a research coordinator for each district was contacted by electronic mail as well to grant permission for this study and for further communication with teachers. The different methods used to get informed consent were described for each district, and limitations to communication were stipulated by each district. Before communicating with the student participants, correspondence with each school's principal confirmed the principals' consent (see Appendix B). To maintain the confidentiality of the participants, no real names of schools or individuals will be used when the data are reported. Finally, this study was approved through the Institutional Review Board (IRB) in accordance with all applicable statuses and regulations as well as ethical principles. A copy of the approved IRB is included in the Appendix section.

Instruments

Several demographic questions were included in the survey. These questions were designed to reveal characteristics such as ethnicity and political orientation for the use of comparing such responses. Other demographic questions were designed to reveal things such as the student's cumulative GPA and perceived level of discussion in high school social studies classes. Two classes (at about 25 students per class) at each school were selected, and the number of 18-year-olds per school was equal to approximately 20. The total sample size was 200 students. Since the researcher administered the surveys in-person, a return rate of 100% return was expected. The amount of time each participant needed to complete the survey varied between 10 and 20 minutes. Due to the anonymous nature of the survey and using a paper-and-pencil format, there were no anticipated risks to participants in this study.

This study used the Remmers' (1957) poll, which consisted of 17 statements (Appendix C) that were designed to measure students' opinions of democratic values. The questions/statements were categorized into taxonomies constructed to measure constitutional knowledge, economic principles, and democratic beliefs. While special attention was given to replicate the Remmers (1957) survey, limited modifications were required to clarify for changing trends in vocabulary. No questions/statements were altered. However, the original survey (Remmers, 1957) did not take into account the current research methodology of data analysis; the original survey counted the respondents' answers and tabulated the data into percentages. Samples were analyzed for response rates and frequency of answers given for individual statements. The original survey made no inferential comparisons. The number of answer choices varied by

statement on the original survey: 4 items on the original survey were designed on a 4-point scale or continuum (i.e., agree, tend to agree, tend to disagree, and disagree) while the remaining 14 were on a 3-point scale (i.e., agree, undecided, and disagree).

Table 1

Structure of the Remmers questionnaire

Taxonomy #	Concept	Survey #
Democratic Values Taxonomy		
1	Affirmative action	8
2	Acceptance and conformity	9
3	Voting rights/privileges	10
4	Conceptualized freedoms	11
5	Determination	19
Constitutional Rights and Responsibilities Taxonomy		
1	Freedom of speech	13
2	Search and seizure	14
3	Religious freedom	16
4	To know accuser	17
5	Right to assemble	18
6	Unalienable freedoms	7
7	Habeas Corpus	20
8	Eminent domain	21
9	Cruel and unusual	22
10	Self-incrimination	24
Economic Principles Taxonomy		
1	Individual ownership	12
2	Government control of industry	15
3	Government control of financial institutions	23

Special attention was given to replicate the style, format, and designated questions from the original 1957 public opinion poll. Responses were tabulated for each statement. By categorizing democratic values in the three domains, this survey instrument was designed to measure student perceptions of civic issues and democratic principles.

The Pilot Study

A pilot study was administered to a group of 20 students with demographic characteristics similar to the study participants to establish validity of this study. The pilot study was conducted to make any changes that were needed, which was beneficial to the study. Students who participated in the pilot study shared their concerns with completing the survey, and changes were made accordingly. Also, a few of the researcher's mentors and peers within the discipline reviewed the survey instrument survey to check for clarity, wording, and content. If a concept or value seemed to be unclear or was contested, the question was reworded.

Data Collection

The survey was administered to approximately 200 students in 8 high schools. All data was collected in 2011. Sixteen Government teachers were contacted by the researcher to assist in data collection. The consent letters for both students and administrators (Appendix B) were given prior to the administration of the survey. Each participant was given 6 demographic questions and 18 questions/statements from Remmers (1957) Purdue Public Opinion poll Instructions for completing each section were provided and discussed at the time the survey was administered.

Statistical Analysis

Descriptive statistics will be obtained for all demographic characteristics and questionnaire items. From the pilot study, the exploratory factor analysis determined primary factors within the survey instrument.

For part A of the three research questions, the chi-square goodness of fit test was utilized to compare sample item frequencies of the items with those obtained from the 1957 survey sample. The chi-square goodness of fit test was used to determine whether the distribution of frequencies you observe in your data “fit” or coincide with distribution of frequencies historically observed.

For part B of the three research questions, chi-square test of independence was utilized to compare item frequencies across subgroups of students. This test enabled determination as to whether relationships exist between student responses to the items and student characteristics such as gender, ethnicity, GPA, perceived level of classroom discussion in social studies, and political orientation. As each statement was quantified by an assigned value from the participant, the resulting descriptive statistics were used to determine trends from the survey data. Inferences from the emerging trends, as supported by the literature, were reported and discussed in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Presented in this chapter were the results pertinent to the research questions posed for this study. After the demographic characteristics of the present sample were addressed, the discussion in the chapter turns to how the results were presented in subsequent tables. The tabled results are organized by the major themes around which the research questions are organized—namely, democratic values, constitutional knowledge, and economic principles—and, within this structure, alternate between “one-way” comparison of currently-sampled student responses with 1957 “norms” and “two-way” explorations of group differences by currently-sampled student responses to the items subsumed by the three themes.

Demographic Data

Consistent with the demographics of the “norming” sample of students surveyed in 1957, the sample employed in the current study was composed of some 200 students who were enrolled either in government or advanced placement government courses and who were 18 years of age. As shown in Table 1, exactly half of the current sample of 200 identified themselves as male and half as female. In terms of ethnicity, some 55.5% of sampled students categorized themselves as white, while some 28.5% identified as being African American. Of the remaining 16%, slightly less than 12% of the sampled students said they either were Asian (6%) or some “other,” ethnicity that was not specifically named (5.5%), while the rest claimed to be ethnically Hispanic (2%), Hawaiian/Pacific

Islander (1.5%), or Native American (1%). Demographic characteristics of students in the present sample may be seen in Table 2 included in this chapter.

When asked about their Grade Point Averages, slightly more than half of the sampled students (52%) reported that they were either “well above average” (20%) or “above average” (32%) in achievement, while the remaining 47% of students indicated that their GPAs were either “average” (43%), “below average” (5%) or “well below average” (.5%) Regarding the amount of time devoted to discussion about civic issues in students’ classes, some 43% of the sample students reported that there was “a great deal” of discussion, while the rest reported that there was either “some” discussion (41%) or “little” (14%) or “almost no” discussion (2%) of such issues.

In terms of political orientation, the sample was almost evenly divided across the political spectrum. With 2.5% either unsure or unwilling to respond to the question about their political leanings, about half of the sample (50%) indicated that they were to some degree “liberal” in their views, while the remaining 47% of the sample offered that their political orientation was to some extent “conservative.” A similar pattern attended students’ responses to the question concerning confidence in the current US Presidential administration and its policies: To this question, about 52.5% of the sample indicated that they had “a great deal” (12.5%) or at least “some” (40.5%) confidence in the present administration, while the remaining 47.5% reported their having only “a little” (28.5%) or “almost no” confidence (18.5%) in the present presidential administration and its policies.

Table 2

Demographic Characteristics of Students in the Present Sample (N = 200)

Category	<i>f</i>	%
Gender		
Male	100	50.0
Female	100	50.0
Ethnicity		
African American	57	28.5
Asian	12	6.0
American Indian	2	1.0
Hawaiian/Pacific Islander	3	1.5
Hispanic	4	2.0
White/Caucasian	111	55.5
Other	11	5.5
Grade Point Average		
Well Above Average	40	20.0
Above Average	64	32.0
Average	86	43.0
Below Average	9	4.5
Well Below Average	1	0.5
Level of Class Discussion About Issues		
A great deal	86	43.0
Some	82	41.0
A little	28	14.0
Almost none	4	2.0

(Table 2 continues)

(Table 2 continued)

Category	<i>f</i>	%
<hr/>		
Political Orientation		
Definitely Liberal	20	10.0
Mostly Liberal	29	14.5
Liberal Leaning	51	25.5
Conservative Leaning	49	24.5
Mostly Conservative	31	15.5
Definitely Conservative	15	7.5
Don't Know/No Answer	5	2.5
Confidence in Current US President and Policies		
A great deal	25	12.5
Some	81	40.5
A little	57	28.5
Almost none	37	18.5

Summary of Results

Because of the emphasis on individual item percentages, chi-square analyses—both “one-way” and “two-way”—were conducted to determine whether differences between observed and expected frequencies were statistically significant. With respect to the first or “A” sections of the three research questions, the “one-way” or “goodness of fit” chi-square test was employed to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference in the distribution of the item responses of currently-surveyed students compared to the distribution of responses to the same item made by students surveyed in 1957. In the relevant tables following, the item as presented on the

questionnaire is cited verbatim, along with the percentages of students in each sample who either to some extent “agreed” or to some extent “disagreed” with the item (Items 7, 9, 10, 11) or who “agreed,” were “undecided,” or “disagreed” the item (Items 8, 12 through 24). For each comparison of item frequencies, the chi-square statistic is provided—with degrees of freedom equal to the number of response categories being compared minus one—along with an index of the effect size (w).

With respect to the second or “B” parts of the three research questions, the “two-way” or chi-square “test of independence” was employed to determine whether a statistically significant relationship obtained between the level of agreement that students expressed with an item and information that these same students provided about their backgrounds. To facilitate analyses and interpretation, this background information about students was dichotomously recoded, such that the perceptions of “minority” students were contrasted with those of “white” students (ethnicity); those of “above average” in achievement students were contrasted with those who were “average or below” (GPA); those of students engaged in “a great deal” of class discussion about civic issues were contrasted with those of students experiencing only “some” classroom discussion (Discussion); those of “students professing to be of “liberal” bent were contrasted with those of students professing to be “conservative” (Political Orientation); and those of students feeling “a great deal or some” confidence in the current administration and its policies were contrasted with those of students feeling “little to no” confidence in the administration and its policies (Confidence).

To avoid redundancy, only an item “keyword” (such, as “immigration,” or “voting”) rather than the item verbatim is provided in presenting the two-way chi-square

results. However, as with the presentation of the one-way tables, percentages pertinent to each cell in the cross tabulation of the two variables (that is, response level by student grouping) are provided for each item, along with the value of the chi-square statistic derived from comparing the observed and expected cell frequencies. For items involving the analysis of four cells wherein two response level are crossed with two student groupings (that is for Items 7, 9, 10, 11), the effect size associated with the chi-square statistic is called the *phi coefficient*. For items involving the analysis of six cells wherein three response levels are crossed with two student groupings (that is, for Items 8, 12 through 24), the effect size is referred to as *Cramer's V*. Both of these effect size statistics may be interpreted like the more familiar correlation coefficient—that is, with values closer to one denoting stronger effects and values closer to zero denoting weaker effects---and are statistically significant to the same extent as the specific chi square statistic to which they correspond.

Analyses of Democratic Values Items

Research Question 1A: How do the perceptions of a sample of 18-year-old students compare with those of a similar group studied in 1957 in regard to democratic values?

Research question 1A concerns students' perceptions of democratic values with respect to five statements on the survey and statistically compares two distributions of student responses to these statements via the "goodness of fit" chi-square test. As reflected in the very large chi-square values and robust effect size statistics attending such comparisons, highly significant statistical differences in the perceptions of the 1957

and 2011 samples of students were observed for all five items pertinent to the democratic values theme: specifically, the items taken up with such time-honored cultural concerns as valuation based on of “achieved” rather than “acquired” characteristics (Item 8), the importance of personal discipline and determination (Item 9), the right to one’s own views expressed through the right to vote (Item 10), the need for freedom from external control and interference (Item 11), and the requirement to know and live by own mind (Item 19). Results for the chi-square “goodness of fit” statistics for the five democratic values items were included in Table 3.

More specifically, with respect to the items allowing for one of three possible responses (that is “agree,” “undecided,” “disagree,” the first democratic values question inquired as to whether one would “favor a law . . . which requires employers to hire a person if they are qualified for the job, regardless of their race, religion, or color.” For this item, far more students agreed in 2011 (83%) rather than in 1957 (63%), while far fewer disagreed in 2011 (3%) than in 1957 (20%), the result being a highly significant chi-square ($\chi^2 (2, N=200) = 41.37, p <.001, w = 0.45$). For question 19, “most Americans are not capable of determining what is and what is not good for them,” the results from the 1957 study showed students agreeing and disagreeing equally at 37%. In contrast, the students in the current sample tended more often to disagree (48%) than agree (25%), with the result being a significant difference in the distribution of responses across time ($\chi^2 (2, N = 200) = 15.16, p <.001, w = 0.28$).

As regards the remaining three democratic values questions—all of which allowed for four possible response values—both the chi-square values and the associated

effect sizes were systematically larger. As regards Item 9, “Americans are getting lazy; most people need stricter discipline and the determination to fight for what they believe is right,” about 88% in the present sample agreed or tended to agree compared to roughly 76% of the 1957 sample ($\chi^2(3, N = 200) = 56.96, p < .001, w = 0.53$). Conversely, as regards Item 10 in the questionnaire, “people who have wild ideas and don’t use good judgment should not have the right to vote,” the students surveyed in 2011 more often tended to disagree (72%) than the students surveyed in 1957 (53%) ($\chi^2(3, N = 200) = 93.72, p < .001, w = 0.63$). However, the biggest discrepancy across the five democratic values items was observed for the statement concerning the extent to which “Americans don’t realize how much their lives are controlled by other people’s agendas (plans)” ($\chi^2(3, N = 200) = 113.24, p < .001, w = 0.75$). While the student sampled in 1957 more often tended without qualification either to “agree” (69%) or “disagree” (8%) with this statement, students in 2011 appeared to be more ambivalent, with fewer saying that they “agreed” with the statement outright (41.5%) and more merely “tending to agree” with the statement (39.5%) and fewer “disagreeing” with the statement outright (4%) and more “tending to disagree” (15%).

Table 3

Chi-Square "Goodness of Fit" Statistics for Five Democratic Values Items

Group	Agree %	Undecided %	Disagree %	χ^2	<i>w</i>	
08. Would you favor a law in your state which requires employers to hire a person if they are qualified for a job, regardless of their race, religion, or color?						
Sample 2011	83.0	13.5	3.5	41.37 ***	0.45	
Norms 1957	63.0	17.0	20.0			
19. Most Americans are not capable of determining what is and what is not good for them.						
Sample 2011	24.5	27.5	48.0	15.16 ***	0.28	
Norms 1957	37.0	26.0	37.0			
Group	Agree %	Tend to Agree %	Tend to Disagree %	Disagree %	χ^2	<i>w</i>
9. Americans are getting lazy; most people need stricter discipline and the determination to fight for what they believe is right.						
Sample 2011	56.5	31.5	9.5	2.5	56.96 ***	0.53
Norms 1957	60.0	16.0	7.0	17.0		
10. People who have wild ideas and don't use good judgment should not have the right to vote.						
Sample 2011	10.0	18.0	33.5	38.5	93.72 ***	0.68
Norms 1957	31.0	16.0	13.0	40.0		
11. Most Americans don't realize how much their lives are controlled by other people's agendas (plans).						
Sample 2011	41.5	39.5	15.0	4.0	113.24 ***	0.75
Norms 1957	69.0	16.0	7.0	8.0		

*** $p < .001$.

Research Question 1B: How do students’ perceptions of democratic values differ by such demographic characteristics as gender, ethnicity, grade point average, perceived level of classroom discussion in social studies courses, and political orientation?

Research question 1B examines student’s perceptions of democratic values by differences in students’ background characteristics: namely, gender (as Male or Female), ethnicity (as Minority or White), Grade Point Average (as Above Average or At/Below Average), level of class discussion (as A Great Deal/Some), Political Orientation (as Liberal or Conservative) and Confidence in the Present US Administration (as A Great Deal/Some or Little/No). By each of these six characteristics in turn, frequencies, percentages, and the results of the various chi-square tests of independence tests are presented for the set of all five democratic values items in Table 3.

Inspection of Table 3 reveals that for three of the characteristics—gender, grade point average, and political orientation—no relationship was observed with how students responded to any of the democratic values questions. For the other three characteristics, however, differences emerged with respect to the question about the need for meritocratic hiring practices (Item 8) and the statement about Americans getting “soft” and needing more “discipline” and “determination to fight for what they believe” (Item 9). With respect to the former question about hiring, greater agreement among students who were exposed to more class discussion (91.9%) as opposed to less (76.3%) resulted in a statistically significant chi-square statistic ($\chi^2 (2, N = 200) = 8.62, p < .05, V = 0.21$). With respect to the question about discipline, differences were observed by ethnicity (χ^2

(1, $N = 200$) = 7.66, $p < .01$, $V = -0.20$), level of class discussion χ^2 (1, $N = 200$) = 5.47, $p < .05$, $V = 0.17$), and confidence in the current administration χ^2 (1, $N = 200$) = 4.24, $p < .01$, $V = 0.15$). With respect to these three characteristics, White students (93.7%) tended to agree with the statement more than Minority students (80.9%), students engaged in more classroom discussion (94.2%) tended to agree more often with the statement as opposed to students engaged in less (83.3%), and students expressing greater confidence in the current administration (92.5%) tended more often to aver that citizens needed more “discipline” and “determination” as contrasted with students who professed little or no confidence in the current administration (83%).

Constitutional Knowledge Analysis

Research Question 2A: How do the perceptions of a sample of 18-year-old students compare with those of a similar group studied in 1957 with regard to constitutional rights and responsibilities?

Research question 2A takes up comparisons of the responses of currently-sampled student with those of the 1957 reference group responses with regard to ten items dealing with constitutional rights and responsibilities. As with the previous research question concerning the “goodness of fit” analysis of the demographic values items, the percent of students in each group who responded to the item at some level—four levels with respect to Item 7 and three levels with respect to the nine remaining items—along with chi square statistics and effect sizes are presented in Table 4.

Table 4

Chi-Square Test of Independence Results for Five Democratic Values Items by Student Characteristics

Gender
(Male $n = 100$, Female $n = 100$)

Item	M % A	M % U	M % D	F % A	F % U	F % D	χ^2	V
8 Hiring	81.0	16.0	3.0	85.0	11.0	4.0	1.17	0.08
9 Discipline	89.0	NA	11.0	87.0	NA	13.0	0.19	0.03
10 Vote	28.0	NA	72.0	28.0	NA	72.0	0.00	0.00
11 Controlled	81.0	NA	19.0	81.0	NA	19.0	0.00	0.00
19 Determination	30.0	23.0	47.0	19.0	32.0	49.0	3.98	0.14

Ethnicity
(Minority $n = 89$, White $n = 111$)

Item	M % A	M % U	M % D	W % A	W % U	W % D	χ^2	V
8 Hiring	82.0	13.5	4.5	83.8	13.5	2.7	0.47	0.05
9 Discipline	80.9	NA	19.1	93.7	NA	6.3	7.66**	-0.20
10 Vote	25.8	NA	74.2	29.7	NA	70.3	0.37	-0.04
11 Controlled	79.8	NA	20.2	82.0	NA	18.0	0.16	-0.03
19 Determination	29.2	22.5	48.3	20.7	31.5	47.7	2.93	0.12

Grade Point Average
(Above Average $n = 104$, At/Below Average $n = 96$)

Item	Ab % A	Ab % U	Ab % D	A/B % A	A/B % U	A/B % D	χ^2	V
8 Hiring	88.5	9.6	1.9	77.1	17.7	5.2	4.74	0.15
9 Discipline	86.5	NA	13.5	89.6	NA	10.4	0.44	-0.05
10 Vote	27.1	NA	72.9	28.0	NA	72.0	0.08	0.02
11 Controlled	76.0	NA	24.0	86.5	NA	13.5	3.57	-0.13
19 Determination	18.3	31.7	50.0	31.3	22.9	45.8	5.02	0.16

(Table 4 continues)

(Table 4 continued)

Level Of Class Discussion
(Great Deal $n = 86$, Some Degree $n = 114$)

Item	Gr % A	Gr % U	Gr % D	S/L % A	S/L % U	S/L % D	χ^2	V
8 Hiring	91.9	5.8	2.3	76.3	19.3	4.4	8.62*	0.21
9 Discipline	94.2	NA	5.8	83.3	NA	16.7	5.47*	0.17
10 Vote	20.9	NA	79.1	33.3	NA	66.7	3.74	-0.14
11 Controlled	82.6	NA	17.4	79.8	NA	20.2	0.24	0.03
19 Determination	20.9	29.1	50.0	27.2	26.3	46.5	1.05	0.07

Political Orientation
(Liberal $n = 100$, Conservative $n = 95$)

Item	L % A	L % U	L % D	C % A	C % U	C % D	χ^2	V
8 Hiring	83.0	12.0	5.0	82.1	15.8	2.1	1.65	0.09
9 Discipline	88.0	NA	12.0	87.4	NA	12.6	0.02	0.01
10 Vote	29.0	NA	71.0	27.4	NA	72.6	0.06	0.02
11 Controlled	76.0	NA	24.0	85.3	NA	14.7	2.66	-0.12
19 Determination	25.0	27.0	48.0	24.2	27.4	48.4	0.02	0.01

Confidence in Current Administration's Policies
(Great Deal/Some $n = 106$, Little/Almost None $n = 94$)

Item	G/S % A	G/S % U	G/S % D	L/N % A	L/N % U	L/N % D	χ^2	V
8 Hiring	83.0	13.2	3.8	83.0	13.8	3.2	0.06	0.02
9 Discipline	92.5	NA	7.5	83.0	NA	17.0	4.24*	0.15
10 Vote	23.6	NA	76.4	33.0	NA	67.0	2.18	-0.10
11 Controlled	79.8	NA	20.2	81.0	NA	19.0	0.17	0.03
19 Determination	23.6	26.4	50.0	25.5	28.7	45.7	0.36	0.04

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Of this set of 10 items, no significant differences in the distribution of group responses was observed for the items concerning the government's prohibiting free speech (Item 13), law enforcement officials conducting a residential search without a warrant (Item 14), citizens' rights to assemble peaceably and make speeches (Item 20), law enforcement being able to hold persons in custody without formally charging such persons (Item 21), and the right of law enforcement to use "harsh treatment" to make someone talk. On the other hand, as shown in Table 5 significant differences in the distribution of the two groups' responses were observed for the other five items in this set of items.

As shown in Table 4, the statement concerning not "limiting and controlling the immigration of foreigners . . . as much as we do now" showed a strong shift away from students' disagreeing or tending to disagree in the current sample (63%) when compared with the level of disagreement recorded for in the 1957 reference group (81%), the 18-point difference resulting in a highly significant chi-square statistic and correspondingly robust effect size test ($\chi^2(3, N = 200) = 98.29, p < .001, w = 0.70$). A similarly large disparity in the distribution of group responses was observed for Item 17 concerning the rights of individuals who have been charged with a crime always to know who is accusing them test ($\chi^2(2, N = 200) = 112.52, p < .001, w = 0.75$). In 1957, in excess of 80% of the surveyed students agreed with this item (81.0%), compared with slightly more than half of the students in the 2011 sample (52.0%).

Compared with the results for these two items, those for Items 16, 21, and 24 that respectively concerned allowance of "religious freedom" ($\chi^2(2, N = 200) = 28.00, p <$

.001, $w = 0.37$), the government's right of "eminent domain" ($\chi^2 (2, N = 200) = 9.29, p < .001, w = 0.22$), and the constitutional provision against self-incrimination ($\chi^2 (2, N = 200) = 9.15, p < .001, w = 0.21$) were less pronounced. As regards selectively allowing religious freedom, there was a trend away from the very high level of disagreement observed among students surveyed in 1957 (86.0%) towards less outright disagreement (74.0%) and more indecision (17.5%) among students the 2011 sample. This softening of outright disagreement towards greater indecision was also observed for the items concerning eminent domain and self-incrimination. With respect to the former item, some 84.0% disagreed with the item and only 10.0% were undecided in the 1957 sample, compared with 76.5% who disagreed with the item and 16% who were undecided in the 2011 sample. As regards the latter item, while similar percentages of students expressed both outright disagreement with the item in 1957 (58.0%) and in 2011 (52.5%) as well as outright agreement with the item in 1957 (18.0%) and in 2011 (14.5%), less than one-fourth (24%) of the 1957 sample of students were undecided the item, compared with about one-third in the 2011 sample.

Table 5

Chi-square “Goodness of Fit” Statistics for Ten Constitutional Knowledge Items

Group	Agree %	Tend to Agree %	Tend to Disagree %	Disagree %	χ^2	w
7. We should not limit and control immigration of foreigners into this country as much as we do now.						
Sample 2011	18.0	19.0	25.5	37.5	98.29***	0.70
Norms 1957	11.0	8.0	12.0	69.0		
Group	Agree %	Undecided %	Disagree %	χ^2	w	
13. The government should prohibit some people from making public speeches.						
Sample 2011	18.0	21.5	60.5	2.20	0.10	
Norms 1957	22.0	22.0	56.0			
14. In some cases the police should be allowed to search a person or their home, even though they do not have a search warrant.						
Sample 2011	23.0	14.5	62.5	3.53	0.13	
Norms 1957	29.0	13.0	58.0			
16. Some religious groups should not be allowed the same freedoms as others.						
Sample 2011	8.5	17.5	74.0	28.00***	0.37	
Norms 1957	6.0	8.0	86.0			
17. If a person is accused of a crime, they should always have the right to know who is accusing them.						
Sample 2011	52.0	22.5	22.5	112.52***	0.75	
Norms 1957	81.0	10.0	9.0			

(Table 5 continues)

(Table 5 continued)

Group	Agree %	Undecided %	Disagree %	χ^2	<i>w</i>
18. Certain groups should not be allowed to hold public meetings even though they gather peacefully and only make speeches.					
Sample 2011	10.5	21.5	68.0	4.97	0.16
Norms 1957	16.0	22.0	62.0		
20. Local police may sometimes be right in holding persons in jail without telling them of any formal charges against them.					
Sample 2011	16.0	13.0	71.0	1.46	0.09
Norms 1957	18.0	15.0	67.0		
21. In some cases, the government should have the right to take over a person's land or property without bothering to go through the judicial system.					
Sample 2011	7.5	16.0	76.5	9.29***	0.22
Norms 1957	6.0	10.0	84.0		
22. The police, FBI, or CIA may sometimes be right in giving individuals harsh treatment to make them talk.					
Sample 2011	40.0	29.0	31.0	1.69	0.09
Norms 1957	39.0	26.0	35.0		
24. Persons who refuse to testify against themselves (that is, give evidence that would show that they are guilty of criminal acts) should be forced to talk or be punished.					
Sample 2011	14.5	33.0	52.5	9.15**	0.21
Norms 1957	18.0	24.0	58.0		

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Research Question 2B: How do students’ perceptions of constitutional rights and responsibilities differ by such demographic characteristics as gender, ethnicity, grade point average, perceived level of classroom discussion in social studies courses, and political orientation?

Research question 2B examines currently-sampled students’ responses to ten questions about of constitutional rights and responsibilities by differences in these students’ background characteristics. As Table 6 shows, the cross-tabulation of six characteristics by 10 items resulted in conducting 60 chi-square tests of independence. However, of these 60 tests, only six (10%) were observed to be statistically significant and of these six statistically significant results, three concerned relationships between different student characteristics and Item 7 dealing with not limiting or controlling “immigration of foreigners into this county as much as we do now.” For this item, statistically significant relationships were observed for student responses by ethnicity, (χ^2 (1, $N = 200$) = 17.19, $p < .001$, $V = 0.29$), political orientation (χ^2 (2, $N = 195$) = 14.85, $p < .001$, $V = 0.28$), and confidence in current administration (χ^2 (2, $N = 200$) = 3.96, $p < .05$, $V = 0.14$). By characteristics, these tests revealed White students tending more often to disagree with the item than Minority students (at 75.7% to 47.2%, respectively), “Conservative” students tending to disagree with the item more often than “Liberal” ones (at 75.8% to 49.0%, respectively), and students expressing less confidence in the current Presidential administration tending to disagree more often with the item than students expressing more confidence (at 70.2% to 56.6%, respectively).

Via the two-way chi-square procedure, statistically significant relationships were also observed with respect to student characteristics and items 20, 21, and 18. Regarding the right of local police “in holding persons in jail without telling them of any formal charges against them,” a statistically significant relationship between gender and student responses was noted ($\chi^2 (2, N = 200) = 6.49, p < .05, V = 0.18$), with some three-fourths of Male students (75.0%) disagreeing with the item but only about two-thirds of Female students disagreeing with the item (67.0%). A statistically significant relationship between student ethnicity and item 21 concerning eminent domain ($\chi^2 (2, N = 200) = 6.38, p < .05, V = 0.18$).

Concerning the right of government “to take over a person’s land or property without bothering to go through the judicial system,” roughly equal percentages of Minority (16.9%) and White (15.3%) students were undecided. However, with respect to agreement with the item, the percentage of White students (15.3%) exceeded that of Minority students (2.2%), while with regard to disagreement with the item, the percentage of Minority students (80.9%) surpassed that White students (73%). Finally, a significant relationship was observed with respect to student Grade Point Average and item 18 concerning freedom of assembly ($\chi^2 (2, N = 200) = 13.89, p < .001, V = 0.26$). Given the statement that “Certain groups should not be allowed to hold public meetings even though they gather peacefully and only make speeches,” nearly 80% of students who claimed to have an “above average” GPA disagreed (79.8%), while only around 56% of students declaring their GPA to be “average, if not “below average” disagreed (55.8%). Conversely, while nearly 15% of students who described their GPAs as “average or below average” agreed with the item, somewhat less than half that percentage

was observed to agree with item among students who professed to having “above average” GPAs (6.7%).

Table 6

Chi-square Test of Independence results for Ten Constitutional Knowledge Items by Student Characteristics

Gender
(Male $n = 100$, Female $n = 100$)

Item	M % A	M % U	M % D	F % A	F % U	F % D	χ^2	V
7 Immigration	43.0	NA	57.0	31.0	NA	69.0	3.09	0.12
13 Speech	17.0	21.0	62.0	19.0	22.0	59.0	0.21	0.03
14 Search	23.0	14.0	63.0	23.0	15.0	62.0	0.04	0.02
16 Religion	11.0	16.0	73.0	6.0	19.0	75.0	1.76	0.09
17 Accused	57.0	18.0	25.0	47.0	27.0	26.0	2.78	0.12
18 Assembly	13.0	17.0	70.0	8.0	26.0	66.0	3.13	0.13
20 Charges	18.0	7.0	75.0	14.0	19.0	67.0	6.49*	0.18
21 Domain	9.0	16.0	75.0	6.0	16.0	78.0	0.66	0.06
22 Punishment	46.0	25.0	30.0	35.0	33.0	32.0	2.42	0.11
24 Incrimination	15.0	26.0	59.0	14.0	40.0	46.0	4.61	0.15

(Table 6 continues)

(Table 6 continued)

Ethnicity
(Minorities $n = 89$, Whites $n = 111$)

Item	M % A	M % U	M % D	W % A	W % U	W % D	χ^2	V
7 Immigration	52.8	NA	47.2	24.3	NA	75.7	17.19***	0.29
13 Speech	14.6	22.5	62.9	20.7	20.7	58.6	1.25	0.08
14 Search	16.9	12.4	70.8	27.9	16.2	55.9	4.90	0.16
16 Religion	9.0	20.2	70.8	8.1	15.3	76.6	0.95	0.07
17 Accused	48.3	25.8	25.8	55.0	19.8	25.2	1.22	0.08
18 Assembly	13.5	20.2	66.3	8.1	22.5	69.4	1.55	0.09
20 Charges	20.2	10.1	69.7	12.6	15.3	72.1	2.86	0.12
21 Domain	2.2	16.9	80.9	11.7	15.3	73.0	6.38*	0.18
22 Punishment	38.2	24.7	37.1	41.4	32.4	26.1	3.05	0.12
24 Incrimination	14.6	27.0	58.4	14.4	37.8	47.7	2.84	0.12

Grade Point Average
(Above Average $n = 104$, At/Below Average $n = 96$)

Item	Ab % A	Ab % U	Ab % D	A/B % A	A/B % U	A/B % D	χ^2	V
7 Immigration	37.5	NA	62.5	36.5	NA	63.5	0.02	0.01
13 Speech	18.3	19.2	62.5	17.7	24.0	58.3	0.67	0.06
14 Search	26.9	16.3	56.7	18.8	12.5	68.8	3.11	0.13
16 Religion	5.8	15.4	78.8	11.5	19.8	68.8	3.14	0.13
17 Accused	53.8	25.0	21.2	50.0	19.8	30.2	2.35	0.11
18 Assembly	6.7	13.5	79.8	14.6	30.2	55.2	13.89**	0.26
20 Charges	15.4	10.6	74.0	16.7	15.6	67.7	1.31	0.08
21 Domain	9.6	12.5	77.9	5.2	19.8	75.0	3.01	0.12
22 Punishment	37.5	31.7	30.8	42.7	26.0	31.3	0.90	0.07
24 Incrimination	12.5	34.6	52.9	16.7	31.3	52.1	0.78	0.06

(Table 6 continues)

(Table 6 continued)

Level Of Class Discussion
(Great Deal $n = 86$, Some Degree $n = 114$)

Item	Gr % A	Gr % U	Gr % D	S/L % A	S/L % U	S/L % D	χ^2	V
7 Immigration	36.6	NA	61.4	37.0	NA	63.0	0.29	-0.04
13 Speech	14.0	22.1	64.0	21.1	21.1	57.9	1.70	0.09
14 Search	22.1	12.8	65.1	23.7	15.8	60.5	0.52	0.05
16 Religion	8.1	17.4	74.4	8.8	17.5	73.7	0.03	0.01
17 Accused	55.8	19.8	24.4	49.1	24.6	26.3	0.99	0.07
18 Assembly	9.3	24.4	66.3	11.4	19.3	69.3	0.87	0.07
20 Charges	20.9	9.3	69.8	12.3	15.8	71.9	3.91	0.14
21 Domain	3.5	12.8	83.7	10.5	18.4	71.1	5.24	0.16
22 Punishment	34.9	36.0	29.1	43.9	23.7	32.5	3.75	0.14
24 Incrimination	11.6	30.2	58.1	16.7	35.1	48.2	2.12	0.10

Political Orientation
(Liberal $n = 100$, Conservative $n = 95$)

Item	L % A	L % U	L % D	C % A	C % U	C % D	χ^2	V
7 Immigration	51.0	NA	49.0	24.2	NA	75.8	14.85***	0.28
13 Speech	22.0	16.0	62.0	13.7	27.4	58.9	4.88	0.16
14 Search	16.0	16.0	68.0	29.5	13.7	56.8	5.07	0.16
16 Religion	11.0	22.0	67.0	6.3	12.6	81.1	4.98	0.16
17 Accused	43.0	26.0	31.0	60.0	18.9	21.1	5.66	0.17
18 Assembly	17.0	22.0	61.0	4.2	21.1	74.7	8.78	0.01
20 Charges	14.0	15.0	71.0	17.9	8.4	73.7	2.30	0.11
21 Domain	7.0	18.0	75.0	8.4	12.6	78.9	1.14	0.08
22 Punishment	37.0	29.0	34.0	44.2	28.4	27.4	1.33	0.08
24 Incrimination	15.0	28.0	57.0	13.7	37.9	48.4	2.19	0.11

(Table 6 continues)

(Table 6 continues)

Confidence in Current Administration's Policies
(Great Deal/Some $n = 106$, Little/Almost None $n = 94$)

Item	G/S % A	G/S % U	G/S % D	L/N % A	L/N % U	L/N % D	χ^2	V
7 Immigration	43.4	NA	56.6	29.8	NA	70.2	3.96*	0.14
13 Speech	18.9	23.6	57.5	17.0	19.1	63.8	0.88	0.07
14 Search	23.6	15.1	61.3	22.3	13.8	63.8	0.14	0.03
16 Religion	9.4	19.8	70.8	7.4	14.9	77.7	1.24	0.08
17 Accused	49.1	23.6	27.4	55.3	21.3	23.4	0.80	0.06
18 Assembly	13.2	22.6	64.2	7.4	20.2	72.3	2.20	0.11
20 Charges	15.1	16.0	68.9	17.0	9.6	73.4	1.86	0.10
21 Domain	5.7	19.8	74.5	9.6	11.7	78.7	3.18	0.13
22 Punishment	39.6	30.2	30.2	40.4	27.7	31.9	0.17	0.03
24 Incrimination	12.3	36.8	50.9	17.0	28.7	54.3	1.87	0.10

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Economic Principles Analysis

Research Question 3A: How do the perceptions of a sample of 18-year-old students compare with those of a similar group studied in 1957 with regard to economic principles?

With all relevant descriptive and inferential statistics presented in Table 6, Research question 3A concerns the distribution of currently-sampled student responses to three “economic principles” items against the distribution of student responses observed in the 1957 sample. As with the findings for the set of items dealing with democratic values, highly significant differences in the distribution of the responses of the two

samples were observed for all three of the “economic principles” items: namely, Item 12 concerning rights of inheritance ($\chi^2 (2, N = 200) = 18.28, p < .001, w = 0.30$); Item 15 concerning government ownership of the means of production $\chi^2 (2, N = 200) = 15.36, p < .001, w = 0.28$); and Item #13 concerning government control of banking and credit institutions ($\chi^2 (2, N = 200) = 6.04, p < .001, w = 0.17$).

While similar levels of agreement with the three items were observed across both samples, there were marked discrepancies in the percentages of the two groups of sampled students who disagreed with or were undecided about the item content. As regards government abolition of “all rights of inheritance to insure equality of opportunity,” a little less than two-thirds of the students sampled in 1957 disagreed with the item (64.0%) compared to slightly more than half of the students sampled in 2011 (51.0%). With the percentage of students agreeing with the item about the same in both samples (10%), a significantly smaller percentage of the 1957 sample was undecided about the item (26.0%), compared with the percentage of sampled students observed in 2011 (39%). With some 11% of both samples agreeing with the item stating “most basic industries, like mining and manufacturing, should be owned by the government,” discrepancies in the percentages of two samples who disagreed with or were undecided about the issue were similar to those observed for the item concerning inheritance. Where some 71% of the 1957 sample disagreed with and an additional 18% were undecided about concept of government ownership of these industries, only about 60% of the 2011 sample disagreed with the idea (61.5%), while a larger percentage than in 1957 were undecided (28.0%). Finally, differences in the distribution of student responses to the statement that “all banks and credit institutions should be run by the government” were

also evidenced across the 1957 and 2011 samples but to a lesser degree than with the other two “economic principles” items. Because somewhat larger but nearly equal percentages of students agreed with the statement in 1957 (18.0%) and 2011 (17.0%), disparities in the percentages of students who were undecided in 1957 (20.0%) and 2011 (28%) and who outright disagreed in 1957 (62%) and in 2011 (55%) were smaller. Even so, the displacement of 7% to 8% of responses across response categories was large enough to suggest that the two distributions lacked “goodness of fit” and to issue in a small but robust effect size difference.

Table 7

Chi-square "Goodness of Fit" Statistics for Three Economic Principles Items

Group	Agree %	Undecided %	Disagree %	χ^2	<i>w</i>
12. The government should abolish all rights of inheritance to insure equality of opportunity.					
Sample 2011	10.0	39.0	51.0	18.28***	0.30
Norms 1957	10.0	26.0	64.0		
15. Most basic industries, like mining and manufacturing, should be owned by the government.					
Sample 2011	11.0	28.5	60.5	15.36***	0.28
Norms 1957	11.0	18.0	71.0		
23. All banks and credit institutions should be run by the government.					
Sample 2011	17.0	28.0	55.0	6.04**	0.17
Norms 1957	18.0	20.0	62.0		

** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Research Question 3B: How do students' perceptions of economic issues differ by such demographic characteristics as gender, ethnicity, grade point average, perceived level of classroom discussion in social studies courses, and political orientation?

With respect to the three “economic principles” items, eighteen chi-square tests of independence were conducted across the six background characteristics of students, but only two such tests proved to be statistically significant. Both concerning students' professed level of confidence in the present US Presidential administration, a significant difference was observed in the responses of students professing to have “a great deal or some confidence” versus the responses of those professing to have “very little or no confidence” with respect to the items concerning government control of industries $\chi^2 (2, N = 200) = 7.01, p < .05, V = 0.19$) and government control of banking and credit institutions $\chi^2 (2, N = 200) = 8.17, p < .05, V = 0.20$). With respect to the first of the two items, slightly more than 70% of the students having less confidence disagreed with the statement about control of industry (70.2%) compared with around 50% of the students with greater confidence (51.9%), while roughly 35% of the students with more confidence in the administration were undecided about the issue (34.9%) and only around 21% of the students with less confidence expressed indecision (21.3%). For the question about government control of financial institutions, similar percentages were obtained. Among students who had more confidence with the present administration, some 22.6% agreed with the item, some 31.1% were undecided and some 46.2% disagreed. In contrast, among students expressing less confidence in the present administration, some 10.6% agreed with the item, some 24.5% were undecided and some 64.9% disagreed.

Table 8

Chi-square Test of Independence results for Three Economic Principles Items by Student Characteristics

		Gender (Male $n = 100$, Female $n = 100$)							
Item		M % A	M % U	M % D	F % A	F % U	F % D	χ^2	V
12	Inheritance	11.0	32.0	57.0	9.0	46.0	45.0	4.13	0.14
15	Industries	11.0	21.0	68.0	11.0	36.0	53.0	5.81	0.17
23	Banking	17.0	25.0	58.0	17.0	31.0	52.0	0.97	0.07

		Ethnicity (Minorities $n = 89$, Whites $n = 111$)							
Item		M % A	M % U	M % D	W % A	W % U	W % D	χ^2	V
12	Inheritance	10.1	39.3	50.6	9.9	38.7	51.4	0.01	0.01
15	Industries	13.5	23.6	44.5	9.0	32.4	58.6	2.41	0.11
23	Banking	14.6	25.8	59.6	18.9	29.7	51.4	1.41	0.08

		Grade Point Average (Above Average $n = 104$, At/Below Average $n = 96$)							
Item		Ab % A	Ab % U	Ab % D	A/B % A	A/B % U	A/B % D	χ^2	V
12	Inheritance	6.7	35.6	57.7	13.5	42.7	43.8	4.87	0.16
15	Industries	9.6	25.0	65.4	12.5	32.3	55.2	2.16	0.10
23	Banking	16.3	23.1	60.6	17.7	33.3	49.0	3.16	0.13

(Table 8 continues)

(Table 8 continued)

Level Of Class Discussion
(Great Deal $n = 86$, Some Degree $n = 114$)

Item	Gr % A	Gr % U	Gr % D	S/L % A	S/L % U	S/L % D	χ^2	V
12 Inheritance	8.1	38.4	53.5	11.4	39.5	49.1	0.72	0.06
15 Industries	10.5	20.9	68.6	11.4	34.2	54.4	4.71	0.15
23 Banking	18.6	29.1	52.3	15.8	27.2	57.0	0.49	0.05

Political Orientation
(Liberal $n = 100$, Conservative $n = 95$)

Item	L % A	L % U	L % D	C % A	C % U	C % D	χ^2	V
12 Inheritance	10.0	40.0	50.0	10.5	34.7	54.7	0.58	0.06
15 Industries	14.0	28.0	58.0	6.3	28.4	65.3	3.23	0.13
23 Banking	18.0	28.0	54.0	16.8	24.2	58.9	0.52	0.05

Confidence in Current Administration's Policies
(Great Deal/Some $n = 106$, Little/Almost None $n = 94$)

Item	G/S % A	G/S % U	G/S % D	L/N % A	L/N % U	L/N % D	χ^2	V
12 Inheritance	12.3	42.5	45.3	7.4	35.1	57.4	3.29	0.13
15 Industries	13.2	34.9	51.9	8.5	21.3	70.2	7.01*	0.19
23 Banking	22.6	31.1	46.2	10.6	24.5	64.9	8.17*	0.20

* $p < .05$.

Summary of Findings

According to the chi-square “goodness of fit” and “test of independence,” highly significant differences in the perceptions of the 1957 and 2011 samples of students were observed in all themes organized by items. In all five items relevant to democratic values, there were very high chi-square values and robust effect size statistics. Changes in student perception are clearly defined based on this theme. More ambivalent responses in the current study based on democratic values compared to the “norming” sample. Student perceptions of democratic values revealed differences by demographics in three of the six statements based on hiring, discipline, and determination.

In regards to constitutional knowledge, of the 10 items, five statements were found to be significantly different in the distribution of group responses. Statements, such as immigration, rights of the accused, religious freedom, eminent domain, and self-incrimination showed significant chi-square values. Six of the 10 statements about constitutional rights and responsibilities were observed to be statistically significant according to the chi-square results. Three of these concerned relationships between characteristics, such as political orientation, confidence in current administration, and ethnicity. Differences in gender revealed responses in regards to the charges statement and significant difference among freedom of assembly and grade point average was revealed.

Finally, in regards to economic principles, chi-square results found each of the three statements significantly different. Only two tests on perceptions of economic issues differ by demographic characteristics, industries and banking based on a student’s

confidence in current administration. Based on statements about democratic principles, constitutional rights and responsibilities, and economic issues, demographic characteristics and changes in student perception compared to the “norming” sample showed statistical significance using the chi-square “test of independence” and “goodness of fit.”

Employing the “one-way” or “goodness of fit” chi-square test, statistical analyses of contemporary responses versus historical norms indicated generational differences across all five items within the domain of democratic values, all three items within the domain of economic principles, and five of the 10 items in the domain of constitutional rights and responsibilities. Especially robust differences were observed with respect to items referencing affirmative action laws ($\chi^2(2, N = 200) = 41.37, p < .001, w = 0.45$), immigration ($\chi^2(3, N = 200) = 98.29, p < .001, w = 0.70$), universal voting rights ($\chi^2(3, N = 200) = 93.72, p < .001, w = 0.68$), and the legal right to face one’s accuser ($\chi^2(3, N = 200) = 112.52, p < .001, w = 0.75$). However, when the “two-way” or “test of independence” chi-square was employed to identify differences in item responses by student characteristics, statistically significant results were much less commonly observed and only systematically emerged with respect to the issue of “limiting and controlling immigration.” When levels of agreement and disagreement to this item were compared, differences among students in the contemporary sample were observed by ethnicity ($\chi^2(2, N = 200) = 17.19, p < .001, V = 0.29$), political orientation ($\chi^2(2, N = 195) = 14.85, p < .001, V = 0.28$), and confidence in the current U.S. administration’s policies ($\chi^2(2, N = 200) = 3.96, p < .05, V = 0.14$). To help clarify the generational findings, reference to the historical record is made, while more current events are evoked

to help make the subgroup differences in contemporary student responses more interpretable.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The current study was designed to explore students' perceptions of civic principles in the social studies classroom. The survey administered in this study utilized the 1957 Purdue Public Opinion Poll. Several themes emerged in the comparison of the two studies. Twelve survey questions showed significant generational differences within the three categories. This chapter discusses the findings from the results organized by category and the pedagogical implications of the findings. Limitations of the study and recommendations for future research are also addressed, followed by the conclusions of the study.

Discussion of the Findings

The purpose of this study was two-fold: (1) to investigate students' perceptions of civic principles in the social studies classroom through three domains: democratic values, constitutional rights and responsibilities, and economic principles and (2) to examine participant responses in relation to demographic characteristics such as ethnicity, frequency of class discussion, confidence in current administration, and political orientation. The practice of preparing students to become more civic-minded is supported in both state and national standards (Kahne et al., 2000). Results of this study reveal a continued need to teach civic principles in the social studies classroom as in studies conducted by Allen (2003) and Apple and Beane (1995). Replication of a survey administered in 1957 by Purdue University was utilized to assess and compare such perceptions. A comparison using chi-square procedures were employed, and significant differences may be organized into the three domains.

Democratic Values

All five democratic values statements indicated highly significant statistical differences in the perceptions of the 1957 and 2011 samples of students. For example, more students agreed in 2011 ($\chi^2 = 41.37$) as compared to the 1957 sample whether one would “favor a law... which requires employers to hire a person if they are qualified for the job, regardless of race, religion, or color.” Differences may be influenced or attributed through time and historical events, such as the Civil Rights Movement and amendments to the U.S. Constitution after the first study was conducted in 1957. In 1954, the Supreme Court case *Brown v. Board of Education* invalidated the decision made in the *Plessy v. Ferguson* case concerning the notion of “separate but equal” and allowed social integration in all aspects of society. This rapid acceleration of civil rights certainly impacted the changing views of young people over time. Based on earlier work by Bennett (1998, 2007, 2008), there are changes in youth civic orientation across the post-industrial democracies, which resulted from divisions of globalization.

Item 9 on the survey stated that “Americans are getting lazy, most people need stricter discipline and the determination to fight for what they believe is right.” Of the respondents in the current study, students tended to agree ($\chi^2 = 59.06$) with the need for stricter internal discipline compared to their 1957 counterparts. McGuire (2007) suggested the need for civic efficacy, which ideally will lead to the belief that students’ actions can make a difference and having an individual responsibility to speak out for or against public policy in return makes a difference in society. Bostrom (2001) agreed that over the last several decades (surveys in 1965, 1976, and 1989), adults responded that today’s youth were much more selfish, materialistic, and reckless than the generation

before. An overwhelming number of people (41%) in 1965 stated that young people are more irresponsible, too wild, less restricted, and freer of actions (Bostrom, 2001). These conclusions supported the survey's promotion of strong moral values and an active participation of citizenship in society. In a similar study conducted by Bostrom (1976), only 24% of respondents said they had great confidence in teens facing up to their own and the country's problems in a responsible way.

Bennett (2009) coined the term "actualizing citizen" for the new generation as compared to the "dutiful citizen," which referred to the older-generation citizen. According to Bennett, the actualizing citizen has a weak sense of duty to participate in government compared to the past dutiful citizen. The actualizing citizen has a general mistrust of the government and media. Today's citizen is more likely to join online social media groups in support of a cause, enabling "digital action." Finally, Bennett described a shift in viewpoints that indicated movement from a core democratic act such as voting to a focus on lifestyle, including consumerism, volunteerism, and social activism. The idea of civic efficacy and this understanding of a new generation of citizens may explain the changes in attitudes and this movement toward such democratic values.

The biggest discrepancy ($\chi^2 = 113.24$) noted was in democratic values with the corresponding statement, "Americans don't realize how much their lives are controlled by other people's agendas (plans)." Findings imply that in 1957 the students sampled tended to agree, whereas students in 2011 appeared to be more ambivalent with fewer agreeing and more merely "tending to agree" or "tending to disagree." Again, this may be the consequence of students having a lack of knowledge or understanding of the issue. Owen (2006) suggests several current democratic teaching approaches, such as "We the

People,” Public Issues and Public Policy Discussion, Reasoning with Democratic Values, and Kids Voting. These approaches may help teach the concepts of democracy and constitutional rights as guiding principles in the social studies classroom.

Statement 19, “Most Americans are not capable of determining what is and what is not good for them” showed significant chi-square generational differences ($\chi^2 = 15.16$). Such a difference in determination may be attributed to the lack of active participation in local and national governmental involvement. Westheimer and Kahne (2004) described the different kinds and conceptions of a good citizen and reveal three conceptions: personally responsible, participatory, and justice-oriented. Core assumptions of these kinds of citizens are centered on solving social problems and improving society by creating more productive citizens. For statement 19, the results from the 1957 study showed students agreeing and disagreeing equally at 37%. In contrast, most participants from the current sample tended more often to disagree (48%) than agree (25%), with the result being a significant difference in the distribution of responses across time ($\chi^2 (2, N = 200) = 15.16, p < .001, w = 0.28$). This difference may also suggest confidence or lack thereof as a result of participating in current policies and administration. Dewey (1916) emphasized participation in a collective endeavor incorporating all three kinds of citizens. Participation and active involvement in politics contribute to the lack of today’s youth on current issues important to citizenship. Westheimer and Kahne (2004) asserted strategies for change that challenge injustice and address the root of the problems facing today’s society.

Finally, statement 10 on the survey, “People who have wild ideas and don’t use good judgment should not have the right to vote,” exemplified a significant chi-squared

value of 93.72. Students surveyed in 2011 more often tended to disagree (72%) than the students surveyed in 1957 (53%) ($\chi^2(3, N = 200) = 93.72, p < .001, w = 0.63$). This shift in generational attitudes toward the right to vote may be the result of a lack of knowledge of the definition of the term “citizenship.” This notion of *shifting politics* among younger citizens was explained by Bennett (1998) as a feeling of youth being less liable in their duty to participate in politics, for example, voting. Furthering this example, when faced with engagement of social networking, blogging, and online discussion, there is certainly an increase in participation in politics when compared with participants from the comparative study. However, media engagement is not the same as civic engagement. Opinions and open debate on issues of social concern imply some notion of the public; however, commenting in the media through the Internet and actually voting on paper ballots are two very different forms of civic participation. Bennett (1998) discussed several trends in youth civic engagement, which results in poor civic education. These trends involve a decline of face-to-face participation, an overall decline in election-related participation and protest, declining interest in news and public affairs, and the decline in trust for other people. These trends certainly illustrate this idea of shifting politics among 2011 participants.

In sum, all five items pertinent to the democratic values theme showed significant chi-squared values, more specifically, items referring to time-honored cultural concerns such as valuation, which are based on the idea of “achieved” rather than “acquired” characteristics. Also, substance of personal discipline and determination, the right to vote, and the need for freedom from external control and interference as well as conceptualized freedoms were found significant. Recent studies have attempted to determine the

characteristics of school curricula and learning environments that explain more and less successful outcomes (Andolina et al., 2003; Elrich, 1999; Kahne et al., 2000). Not surprisingly, one factor that has consistently been seen as important is the openness of a school's or classroom's climate (Torney-Purta, 2002).

An open classroom environment in which students are engaged in the discussion of current events or controversial issues may increase student interest in politics (Byford et al., 2009; Hess & Posselt, 2002; Niemi & Junn, 2005). The results of the current study relate to studies conducted by Niemi and Junn (2005), who suggested that schools should emphasize the fostering of civic skills particularly in the social studies classroom.

Bennett et al. (2009) stated:

...we may wish to go beyond knowledge of how government works to address the workings of citizen-organized political processes, from how civic networks are organized in popular online social networking forums such as facebook, to the workings of direct consumer campaigns to change the labor, environmental, or trading practices of corporations. (p. 111)

Teaching and promoting democratic values is necessary in the social studies classroom to provide students with the information needed to understand and inquire about civic issues. With the knowledge of democratic values and the practice of activities in the social studies classroom that engage students in democracy, better preparation for productive citizens in society may be promising.

Constitutional Rights and Responsibilities

Of the four statements addressing constitutional rights and responsibilities, two of these statements (concerning immigration and rights of the accused) illustrated a large, significant chi-square difference. Changes in attitudes may be attributed to widespread media, amendments to the U.S. Constitution and the Civil Rights Movement, and new

definitions of citizen categories. Buckett (2007) refers to a new movement in society, “Neoliberalism.” This term is defined by an ideology that is focused on the creation of new wealth through technology instead of assigning priority to equality and freedom. The concern here is the changes in attitudes toward the role of government and political viewpoints based on ideologies and public opinion.

Students in today’s classrooms are engaged in public opinion through various forms of media, and more students today than in the previous study are growing up in single-parent households. This affords students different family values, and there is a perceived value divide between adults and younger people (Bostrom, 2001). It is the teaching of values and ideologies that may influence the changing results in constitutional rights and responsibilities.

One statement that dealt with constitutional rights and responsibilities was concerned with not “limiting and controlling the immigration of foreigners... as much as we do now,” and results of the current study showed a strong shift away from disagreement in the current sample ($\chi^2 = 98.29$) when compared to the level of disagreement from 1957. The topic of immigration is frequently referenced in national news, and the increase in diverse populations in the United States may contribute to the changing views on immigration. Similar significance was found pertaining to the rights of individuals who have been charged with a crime and know the accuser. In 1957, 81% agreed, as compared to slightly more than half of the current sample in agreement ($\chi^2 = 112.52$). Perhaps the statement, the rights of the accused, was misrepresented in terms of constitutional knowledge. If students understood the rights and freedoms of Americans, their responses may have been more in agreement (although further explanation of the

statement may be necessary for understanding). Risinger (2003) confirmed the overall attitude of students toward citizenship and the role of being a productive citizen as disconnected from societal issues. Perhaps it is the lack of discussion concerning such issues that must be addressed in the social studies classroom to encourage this knowledge.

Schroeder (2007) revealed “90% of teachers surveyed said they fully or partly agree that news in the classroom is one of the best ways to get students interested in a class and its subject” (p. 1). These teachers choose to incorporate current events into their classroom, which is not guided by school policy. The overwhelming requirement of standardized testing has made it difficult to expose students to world affairs and concepts of constitutional rights and responsibilities in their everyday lives. Kahne and Westheimer (2003) agreed that young people today are disengaged from politics and are confused about the definition of citizenship.

It is a concern of the researcher that nearly half the students in the current sample felt that if they were charged with a crime, they may not always have the right to confront their accuser. Again, such changes in attitudes may be the result of historical events such as 9/11 and the passing of the Patriot Act. The Patriot Act was intended to protect America from acts of terrorism.. On May 26, 2011, President Obama signed an extension to the three provisions in the Patriot Act concerning wiretapping, the search of business records, and the surveillance of individuals suspected of terrorist-related activities. Detention of immigrants for an indefinite amount of time, unlawful searches of homes and businesses, and also monitoring telephone calls, electronic mail, and financial records without a court order are included in the Patriot Act. Many of the new provisions have

been considered unconstitutional and controversial. This controversy may contribute to the enhanced distrust of government by participants in the current study.

The results of the current study examining students' perceptions of constitutional rights and responsibilities indicated a decline in indecision among participants from the current sample as compared to those from the 1957 sample (as discussed in Chapter 4). This may be due to the lack of knowledge about government or the lack of self-confidence in responses. Such a discrepancy was found in items regarding eminent domain and self-incrimination and may be the result of the lack of political knowledge, which is supported by previous studies (Delli-Carpini & Keeter, 1997; Maeroff, 1977). The U.S. Constitution continues to be the most imperative document in American history and in social studies curriculum (Jackson, et al., 2008). Assessing student's knowledge and attitudes toward the government system and the Bill of Rights may lead to enhanced critical thinking and the goal of developing "productive citizens."

In sum, there were five statements on the current survey dealing with democratic values in which student's responses changed significantly in comparison to their 1957 counterparts. The largest chi-square differences were observed concerning issues of immigration and rights of the accused, affirmative action, acceptance and conformity, voting rights and privileges, and conceptualized freedoms. Such generational differences and perceptions may be attributed to influences of historical events and changing ideologies. Differences may also correlate with a lack of knowledge and access to such information at the time of the comparative 1957 study; changes in curriculum instruction, such as the amount of discussion occurring in the classroom of such issues, possibly contributed to these differences as well.

Economic Principles

Of the three statements regarding economic principles, two of these statements, inheritance ($\chi^2 = 18.28$) and industries ($\chi^2 = 15.36$) illustrated the largest significant difference in chi-square values. Such statistical discrepancies may be the result of America's growing fixation on the media results in the decrease in morals and values of such issues of economic principles. Changes in generational differences may be a result of gender roles, liberalism favoring social welfare policies within our country, and the unbalanced budget widespread in the media (Buckett, 2007).

Participants of the 2011 study were much more undecided about all three items concerning economic principles as compared to their 1957 counterparts. In items concerning "rights of inheritance," "basic industries owned by the government," and "banks and credit institutions run by the government," more 2011 participants disagreed than the 1957 sample. Such results may reflect the current economic struggles facing American society today. For example, participants from the 2011 sample are exposed to America's current economic state and varying opinions and causes for the economic state of affairs as compared to participants in 1957, which had limited access to electronic media. Economic issues, including welfare, housing, gas prices, and taxes on goods and services, were among the most publicized in the decades studied. The expansion and accessibility of the Internet allows students many opportunities to be exposed to these concepts. Hartoonian et al. (2007) refer to moral authority among students today, stating that "sustaining a democracy requires paying attention and having the ability to analyze issues, confront contradictions, deal with ambiguity, suspend judgment, and ultimately make thoughtful decisions" (p. 245).

Participants of the 2011 study may be influenced by their parent's viewpoints and attitudes as well. Many of the participants' parents were born in the 1960s when both the Vietnam War and the Watergate scandal brought world-weariness, rebellion, and a loss of trust in government and traditional institutions, showing a weakening of the core culture (Walling, 2007). Social studies course requirements have changed since the first study was conducted in 1957. Today, students are only required to take one semester of government as compared to the three courses in democracy, civics, and government that were common up until the 1960s (Walling, 2007). This decrease in course requirements may also contribute to such changes in generational attitudes toward the government, the economy, and democratic values.

Student Characteristics

A second purpose of the current study was to explore the demographic-based differences in the responses of participants from the 2011 study. Based on the three themes and comparisons of student characteristics, significant chi-square values were found. Organized by theme, descriptions of these characteristics and possible explanations of these values are discussed.

Demographic comparison of democratic principles. For students' perceptions of democratic values, three characteristics showed significant difference; greater agreement was found concerning the hiring statement among students who were exposed to more class discussion ($\chi^2 = 8.62$) as opposed to less. Such findings imply that students who have more discussion in class agree on the need for meritocratic hiring practices. Findings illustrate a negative lean toward disagreement on the constitutional concept of affirmative action. Further research should be conducted to determine the cause of such

changes in attitude over time between studies. Differences were found in demographic characteristics (e.g., ethnicity, level of class discussion, confidence in current administration) in the question concerning discipline ($\chi^2 = 5.47$). Caucasian students (93.7%) agreed with the statement more than minority students (80.9%), and students engaged in more classroom discussion (94.2%), students expressing greater confidence in the current United States administration (92.5%) also agreed with that statement. There is a need for discussion-based learning in the social studies classroom to teach such issues, corresponding with the results of several other studies (Byford et al., 2009; Chiodo & Byford, 2004; Hess & Posselt, 2002; Hunt & Metcalf, 1968).

Demographic comparison of constitutional rights and responsibilities. One factor that may have seriously affected the results of the current study may be the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks on the United States (referred to in some places as 9/11), which may have influenced student responses concerning political and constitutional issues. Access to information via the Internet also contributes to changes in student responses. The question about confidence in the current U.S. administration and policies may differ among students based on access to information. Participants in the 2011 study had a “great deal” or at least “some” confidence, while 47.5% reported having “little” or “almost no” confidence in current U.S. administration and policies.

Significance was found in Item 7 (pertaining to limiting and controlling immigration), and relationships were observed in student responses by ethnicity, political orientation, and confidence in the current U.S. administration ($\chi^2 = 17.19$). More Caucasian students disagree with the statement on immigration (75.7%) than minority students (47.2%); students who self-identified as “conservative” tended to disagree

(75.8%) as compared to self-identified “liberal” students (49%); students with less confidence in the current U.S. administration (70.2%) disagreed more often than students expressing more confidence (56.6%). Assessing students’ attitudes toward civic principles as illustrated in the studies conducted by Lopez (2002) and Amadeo et al. (2001) indicated students’ lack of understanding and the continued need for promoting such principles.

The researcher found that there was a significant relationship between student’s GPA and the statement concerning freedom of assembly ($\chi^2 = 13.89$). Given the statement that “Certain groups should not be allowed to hold public meetings even though they gather peacefully and only make speeches,” nearly 80% of students that reported an “above average” GPA disagreed (79.8%), while only about 56% of students declaring an “average” or “below average” GPA disagreed (55.8%).

Demographic comparison of economic principles. Finally, two items showed significance when dealing with economic principles and based on demographic characteristics: industries ($\chi^2 = 7.01$) and banking ($\chi^2 = 8.17$). Focusing on both students’ confidence in current administration and policies, a significant difference was observed in the responses of students admitting to have “very little” or “no” confidence in the concept of government control of industries and banking and credit institutions. More than 70% of students with less confidence disagreed with the statement regarding control of industry as compared to 50% of students with greater confidence. Similar percentages were found pertaining to government control of financial institutions; among 2011 participants with more confidence, 22.6% agreed, 31.1% were undecided, and 46.2% disagreed. Otlin (2008) stated that teaching economic issues is essential in civic

education. Teachers should provide students with the opportunity to interpret, make judgments, and analyze debates using data and graphs. Economic issues dominate current news and policies and are central topics of debate among political candidates for the U.S. presidential race of 2012. Otlin (2008) stated, “If our students cannot evaluate economic arguments, they can do little but watch democracy from the sidelines or step into the fray partially being blindfolded” (p. 75).

Disparity among students indicating less confidence in the current U.S. administration, with only 10.6% agreeing, 24.5% undecided, and 64.9% in disagreement. With the control of industry. Such results may support the need for classroom discussion and awareness of issues in that affect our democratic society, e.g., social, economic, and democratic principles. A closer examination of the results in this study suggests that significant differences exist between the 1957 student sample and the current student sample. Discussion of democratic values, constitutional rights and responsibilities, and economic issues promote civic-minded students and the need for teaching civics in the social studies classroom.

In conclusion, there were significant chi-square differences among the three themes based on student demographic characteristics. Characteristics such as the amount of classroom discussion, confidence in current administration, and differences in gender and ethnicity presented significant differences among the three themes. These differences show the substantial need for modifications in teaching civic principles in the social studies classroom.

Pedagogical Implications

Implications for teaching social studies and the promotion of civic principles center on five major factors: (1) the requirement of civics in formal education, (2) discussion of issues facing society today, (3) critical thinking skills and group problem-solving, and (4) the use of technology.

Expectations and requirements in social studies classes have changed dramatically from 1957 to today. Civics was a required course in the early 1950s, one of the time periods evaluated in this study; however, civics is not a required course in high schools today. Only one semester of government during a student's senior year is required in the State of Tennessee. Despite this, the foundation of the social studies curriculum continues to be based on citizenship development and democratic values.

Citizens in a democratic society should be able to discuss and debate the current social and political issues affecting the global world. According to progressive principles emerging from Columbia University's Teachers College, several necessary elements highlight the education of engaged citizens. Such elements are characterized by respect for diversity, in which an individual should be recognized for his or her own abilities, interests, ideas, needs, and cultural identity. An additional element suggests the development of critically and socially engaged intelligence, which supports an individual's understanding of and participation in community matters. Citizens practice collaborative decision-making in society, working toward a common goal. Westheimer and Kahne (2004) concluded that varied priorities, e.g., personal responsibility, participatory citizenship, and justice-oriented citizenship, exemplify citizen commitment and have profound, diverse implications for pedagogy, curriculum, evaluation, and

educational policy. Such priorities aid students in the understanding of democratic values and incorporate the idea of conceptualized freedoms.

Conversely, teachers should provide students with the civic knowledge, critical thinking skills, and decision-making skills to enhance their ability and willingness to become responsible and informed citizens. It is the researcher's belief that the social studies classroom must be focused on global issues and democratic values that promote citizenship, as social, political, economic, and environmental issues are openly discussed in a democratic classroom. Students gain an understanding of various worldviews and perspectives and accept that there are differences. In addition, the need for parental involvement is of great concern among educators to support such values based on our constitutional rights and responsibilities and democratic and economic principles. Bostrom (2001) concurred with the concern that the lack of parental involvement is the biggest problem facing schools today. This lack of parental involvement may contribute to expectations of school's promoting life skills in the social studies classroom.

The use of technology and the Internet in the classroom should be considered when teaching of global issues and attempting to relate learning in the social studies classroom to a student's everyday life. Previous studies (Allen, 2003; Breault, 2003; Ehrlich, 1999; Hartoonian, 1991) indicated the importance of promoting and practicing citizenship in the classroom, which may in turn promote active participation in politics. Additionally, Niemi and Chapman (1998) found that general progress in school was a good predictor of several forms of engagement, including attention to news, a sense of efficacy in communicating with government, a sense of understanding government, and tolerance of others' views. "Technology can be used as a tool for communication and

inquiry through a constructivist approach— fostering student learning through real-life application” (Morehead & LeBeau, 2004, p. 13).

In-class discussion and debate shows students the importance of current events and can both be beneficial to critical thinking and problem-solving skills. In 2001, the National Council for the Social Studies, in a position statement on “Creating Effective Citizens,” solidifies the importance of each student’s “knowledge of our nation's founding documents, civic institutions, and political processes” (p. 5).

The Internet serves as a medium for people to meet and address issues and concerns on a global scale. The Internet promotes tolerance. It serves a democracy where people have free speech, and this freedom of expression is the highlight of the Internet; educators should encourage students to be active participants in politics. The Internet may provide students with the opportunity to discuss issues and debate topics in an open-minded, free-thinking manner. This electronic environment promotes tolerance and can offer students more acceptance of world cultures. Further, the Internet opens up a world of information and people under a common language, and it allows people to establish connections. Zukas (2000) contended that students using the Internet develop a better understanding of the world, which leads to critical examination of shared values and beliefs as well as societal problems.

Limitations of the Study

As with most studies, limitations exist in this study that should be addressed. In the current study, variables such as sample size, survey response time, dates of research, and influences in the school setting are all possible negative factors that limited this study.

1. The current study was limited to 12th-grade students enrolled in either government or advanced placement government courses; results and conclusions are limited to participants in this sample group only. The sample is defined by 18-year-old students in 8 high schools located in a suburban district of a southeastern state in the United States, and findings may not be generalizable beyond this sample. The schools' settings (with diverse goals and initiatives) and the researcher's personal beliefs (political and moral) may have also affected this study.

2. Because surveys were mailed to the designated schools, the researcher had no control over the amount of time the respondents took to complete the survey. Average response time varied from several weeks to several months. The study was conducted over a two-month period, considerate of testing times in school when teachers are particularly busy, once again in efforts to gain an appropriate response rate.

3. In the current study, the researcher was unaware of the courses, either regular or advanced, that were surveyed. Therefore, changes may be relevant in and differences may exist amid students enrolled in the advanced placement course and the standard government course. Also, the surveys were administered by government teachers from the eight high schools; extraneous variables inside and outside the classroom may have limited results of the surveys.

4. In terms of political orientation, the sample was almost evenly divided between "liberal leaning" and "conservative leaning." Interestingly, 2.5% of the sample indicated that they were either unwilling to respond or were unsure of their opinion or understanding. For instance, one government teacher, after administering the surveys, communicated a student's confusion about the meaning of the terms liberal and

conservative. This may indicate a lack of knowledge in the area of political orientation, which may have in turn altered survey responses.

5. Special attention was given to replicate the style, format, and design of questions or statements from the original public opinion poll administered in 1957 by Purdue University. Considering this, limitations may have existed among the original survey. The original survey did not include an analysis of demographics or group responses by category. By developing categories using three domains in the current study, this survey instrument was designed to measure student perceptions of civic principles. As the findings indicate, differences were found concerning the amount of discussion even within the same classroom. This perceived factor may have limited the study.

6. Another limitation is that students' responses to demographic questions may not have been truthfully answered. The question regarding student GPA revealed that within the sample of the current study, more than half claimed "well above average" or "above average." This researcher, having experience with students in a similar setting, understands that students may not be truthful or know their GPAs. Therefore, the accuracy of the survey responses based on this fact may affect responses and results.

7. Finally, students' access to information concerning constitutional rights and responsibilities and civic and economic principles may present further limitations to this study. Students who have access to technology and the Internet as well as other forms of media may have a better understanding of the world around them and therefore may be more opinionated and more aware of such issues.

Recommendations for Further Research

A nation-wide survey may have provided more insight into the changes in student perceptions with regard to civic, economic, and constitutional issues. Results from a broader national sample may have included different analyses of the regions in the United States that would have made for an interesting study. In the 1957 poll administered by Purdue, the authors surveyed students in grades 9–12. However, only 12th-grade students were polled in the current study. Future studies may include all grade levels and examine the ways that perceptions change throughout high school based on the discussion of issues. Pretests and posttests, according to enrollment in government classes, may also have provided more depth to the assessment of social studies curriculum. Further developing this idea, teachers could possibly participate to further explore the changes in social studies classes and methods that promote citizenship.

Examining student access to information, adding a demographic-related question about frequency of media use and Internet access and perhaps even interest in global issues, may promote the need for and effectiveness of technology in the social studies classroom, as supported by studies conducted by Snyder (2008) and Diem (2006). Qualitative research could also be conducted to include interviews and observations of government classes and students. Interviews and observations may provide more depth to such a study and allow for more open-ended responses. It is also recommended to further evaluate students' perceptions of values education in the social studies. It is a great concern that students in today's classrooms lack an education in life skills, character, and moral development. Incorporating such skills may encourage the problem-solving and critical thinking desired in what is considered a productive citizen.

Conclusion

The literature review and historical background of social studies education in terms of its goal of citizenship education form the foundation for changes in student perceptions. Dewey and Merriam— both progressive minds in social studies— and significant historical events (especially in the 1950s, including the Purdue public opinion poll) paved the way for educational reform in social studies. In response, the new social studies movement emerged, illustrating more diverse methods for teaching and integrating interdisciplinary approaches into social studies. Despite these factors, the overall goal of social studies—to produce effective citizens—has not changed; social studies teachers continue to strive to meet this critical outcome. Themes in current trends of civic education, as discussed in this section, reveal and emphasize (1) the use of discussion of current events and controversial issues, (2) the use of technology to promote global citizenship, and (3) character-building in a democratic classroom.

The lack of democratic practices in the classroom restricts students from learning important character values such as responsibility, team work, group decision making, and problem-solving skills. Individual responsibility for the entire community is a notion that lies at the heart of our society. Through the researcher's teaching experience and discussions with other social studies teachers, it is noted that the goal of citizenship seems to be lost through the introduction of various state mandated standards across different disciplines. A new examination of school reform is needed and should be formed on the basis of incorporating citizenship education into the social studies curriculum. Practicing democracy in the classroom and building a foundation in all social studies courses, based on developing citizens that are knowledgeable in global issues,

show empathy and understanding for tolerance and diversity. Such knowledge may empower individuals and create free-thinking, autonomous learners, as supported by Bickmore (2001).

Teaching democracy in the classroom is vital to creating intelligent, informed members of society, and the effective use of technology may contribute to such understanding. Despite high stakes testing, value-adding school improvement efforts, and rigorous teacher-evaluation methods, social studies professionals have a responsibility to create civic-minded students. It is more important than ever to promote citizenship in our democratic society and demonstrate critical thinking, collaborative problem-solving, and active discussion of issues in the social studies classroom.

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**A SURVEY OF HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS' OPINIONS ABOUT CIVIC
PRINCIPLES**

The following questionnaire is designed to help educators, administrators and researchers to learn about and understand students' opinions concerning civic principles.

TO MAINTAIN YOUR ANONYMITY, PLEASE DO NOT WRITE YOUR NAME ON THIS PAPER.

Demographics, Items 1 through 6: Please circle your responses to the following questions about you.

1. What is your gender?
 - A. Male
 - B. Female

2. With which ethnic/racial group do you most identify?
 - a. African American
 - b. Asian
 - c. American Indian
 - d. Hawaiian/Pacific Islander
 - e. Hispanic/ Latin American
 - f. White/Caucasian
 - g. Other Ethnicity

3. How would you describe your current GPA (grade point average)?
 - A. Well above average
 - B. Above average
 - C. Average
 - D. Below average
 - E. Well below average

4. How much discussion is there of social and political issues in your social studies classes?
 - A. A great deal
 - B. Some
 - C. A little
 - D. Almost none. It's mostly lecture.

5. Which of the following best describes your political orientation?
 - A. Definitely liberal
 - B. Mostly liberal
 - C. Liberal-leaning
 - D. Conservative-leaning

- E. Mostly conservative
- F. Definitely conservative

6. In general, how much confidence do you have in the current U.S. Presidential administration and its policies?
- A. A great deal
 - B. Some
 - C. A little
 - D. Almost none

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE →

Survey Directions, Items 7 through 24: Listed below are several statements that deal with civic principles. Tell how much you agree or disagree with each statement by **CIRCLING THE LETTER** of the response that reflects your opinion. Please note that the number of answer choices may vary by the statement.

7. We should not limit and control immigration of foreigners into this country as much as we do now.
- A. Agree
 - B. Tend to agree
 - C. Tend to disagree
 - D. Disagree
8. Would you favor a law in your state which requires employers to hire a person if they are qualified for a job, regardless of their race, religion, or color?
- A. Agree
 - B. Undecided
 - C. Disagree
9. Americans are getting lazy; most people need stricter discipline and the determination to fight for what they believe is right.
- A. Agree
 - B. Tend to agree
 - C. Tend to disagree
 - D. Disagree
10. People who have wild ideas and don't use good judgment should not have the right to vote.
- A. Agree
 - B. Tend to agree
 - C. Tend to disagree
 - D. Disagree
11. Most Americans don't realize how much their lives are controlled by other people's agendas (plans).
- A. Agree
 - B. Tend to agree
 - C. Tend to disagree
 - D. Disagree

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12. The government should abolish all rights of inheritance to insure equality of opportunity.
- A. Agree
 - B. Undecided
 - C. Disagree
13. The government should prohibit some people from making public speeches.
- A. Agree
 - B. Undecided
 - C. Disagree
14. In some cases the police should be allowed to search a person or their home, even though they do not have a search warrant.
- A. Agree
 - B. Undecided
 - C. Disagree
15. Most basic industries, like mining and manufacturing, should be owned by the government.
- A. Agree
 - B. Undecided
 - C. Disagree
16. Some religious groups should not be allowed the same freedoms as others.
- A. Agree
 - B. Undecided
 - C. Disagree
17. If a person is accused of a crime, they should always have the right to know who is accusing them.
- A. Agree
 - B. Undecided
 - C. Disagree
18. Certain groups should not be allowed to hold public meetings even though they gather peacefully and only make speeches.
- A. Agree
 - B. Undecided

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE →

C. Disagree

19. Most Americans are not capable of determining what is and what is not good for them.

- A. Agree
- B. Undecided
- C. Disagree

20. Local police may sometimes be right in holding persons in jail without telling them of any formal charges against them.

- A. Agree
- B. Undecided
- C. Disagree

21. In some cases, the government should have the right to take over a person's land or property without bothering to go through the judicial system.

- A. Agree
- B. Undecided
- C. Disagree

22. The police, FBI, or CIA may sometimes be right in giving individuals harsh treatment to make them talk.

- A. Agree
- B. Undecided
- C. Disagree

23. All banks and credit institutions should be run by the government.

- a. Agree
- b. Undecided
- c. Disagree

24. Persons who refuse to testify against themselves (that is, give evidence that would show that they are guilty of criminal acts) should be forced to talk or be punished.

- a. Agree
- b. Undecided
- c. Disagree

THANKS FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION

THE UNIVERSITY OF MEMPHIS
Institutional Review Board

To: Cody L. Lawson

Instruction and Curriculum Leadership

From: Chair or Designee, Institutional Review Board

For the Protection of Human Subjects

irb@memphis.edu

Subject: The impact of civic education: Are we meeting the goal in Social Studies? An examination of student's perceptions of civic principles (071111-618)

Approval Date: August 12, 2011

This is to notify you that the Institutional Review Board has designated the above referenced protocol as exempt from the full federal regulations. This project was reviewed in accordance with all applicable statuses and regulations as well as ethical principles.

When the project is finished or terminated, please submit a Human Subjects Research Completion Form (COMP) to the Board via e-mail at irbforms@memphis.edu. This form can be obtained on our website at <http://www.memphis.edu/irb/forms.php>.

Approval for this protocol does not expire. However, any change to the protocol must be reviewed and approved by the board prior to implementing the change.

Chair or Designee, Institutional Review Board

The University of Memphis

Cc: Dr. Jeffrey Byford



Karen Woodard
Director of Middle and Secondary Education
160 South Hollywood
Memphis, TN 38112

TO: Ms. Cody Lawson

FROM: Karen Woodard, Director of Middle and High School Education

DATE: April 29, 2011

RE: Request to Conduct Research

I am pleased to inform you that your research project: *The Impact of Civic Education: Are We Meeting the Goal in Social Studies? An Examination of Student's Perceptions of civic Principles* is **approved** based on meeting the following requirements:

- FERPA rights have been guaranteed.
- Answers to questions 9 and 10 have been guaranteed.
- There can be no identification of students in any way.
- There is no monetary exchange or gifts.
- There must be written evidence that each parent approves each student's participation.

Upon completion of your research, please send a copy of your final report to Karen Woodard Director of Middle and Secondary School Education Shelby County Schools 160 South Hollywood Memphis, Tennessee 38112.

Sincerely,

Karen Woodard

Karen Woodard
Middle & Secondary Director
Shelby County Schools
901-321-2582

cc: Dr. Jeffrev Bvford